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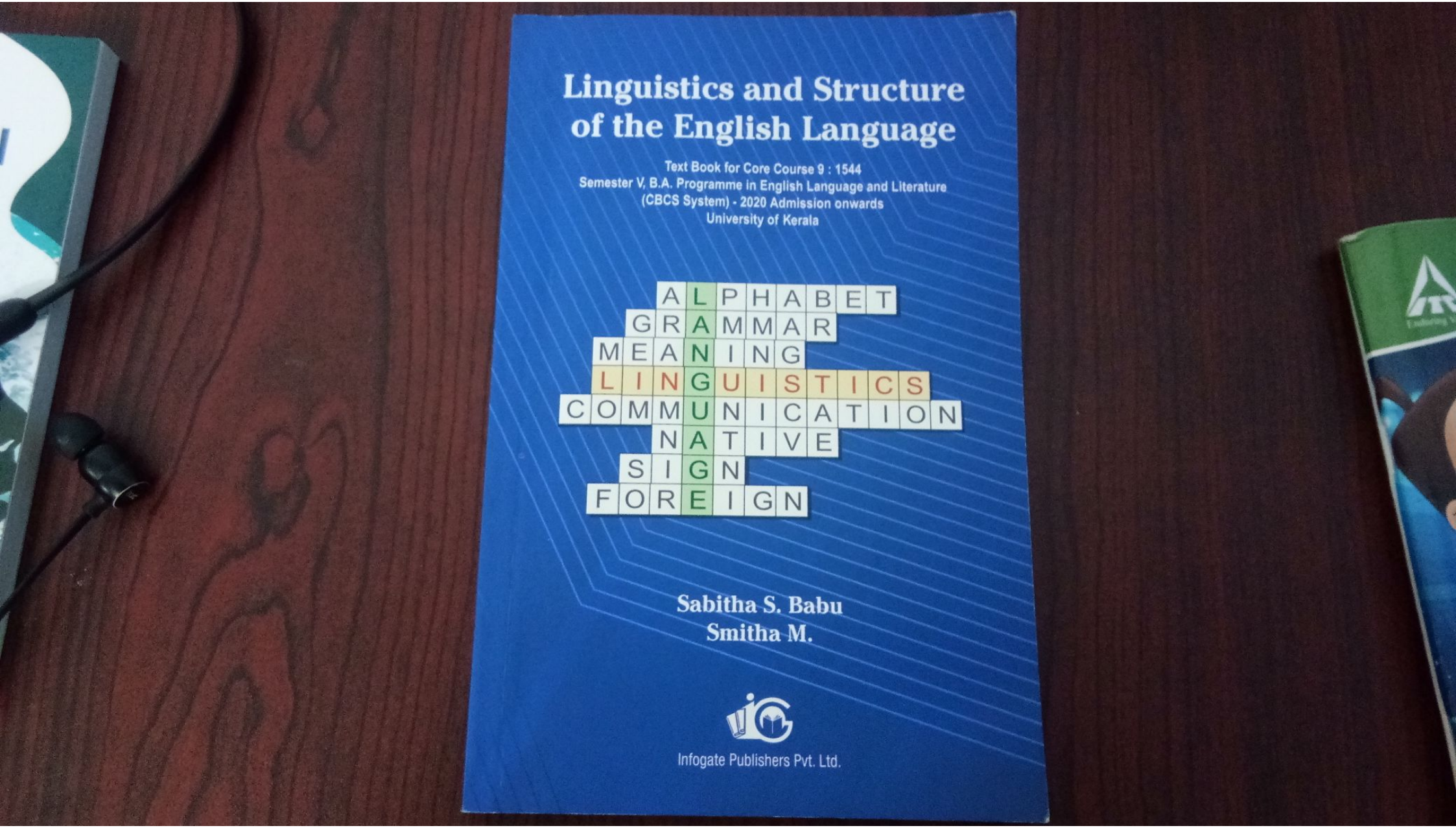
Linguistics and Structure of the English Language Text

History of English literature (University of Kerala)



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Linguistics and Structure of the English Language

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MODULE I

Linguistics

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Linguistics

Nature and scope of Linguistics, Types of Linguistics, Historical Linguistics, Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, and Pragmatics, Lexicography Approaches to the study of language, Diachronic and Synchronic, Prescriptive and Descriptive, Language as a system of signs, Sign, Signifier, and Signified, Langue and Parole, Competence and Performance, Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic axes, Varieties of Language, Dialect, Register, Pidgin, and Creole, Significance of Received Pronunciation (RP)

Introduction

An individual or a group of individuals uses and understands language as a combination of words, their pronunciation, and their forms. Vocal organs produce meaningful sounds that are audible and apprehensible. Language refers to a mode of communication through speech and writing. The word 'language' is taken from the Latin word *lingua* meaning tongue. A language communicates meaning through symbols, words, and gestures. It is a structured human system of communication. It is one part of a larger semiotic structure of communication. It is an interdependent integrated structure in which the role of each unit is determined by all other units in the same system. There is more to language than just a collection of words; it is an understanding of how words are related to one another and how these words facilitate communication. A complex set of rules governs the arrangement of basic units in a language.

The vocal sounds in a language could be embodied in other media such as writing & print (together known as the graphic medium), and physical signs (the visual medium), and Braille (a tactile medium). The major part of

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the function of language is communication. It emphasizes the social aspect of language. The other two functions are notation and calculation. Since language is related to a particular society, it is culture-specific and unique. Language could be inherited genetically. Furthermore, one could acquire language from the society in which s/he spends the first years. It helps a social group to fulfil its social functions using a system of arbitrary vocal symbols. The sequences of sounds generate human thoughts. The structure of the language embodies the universal forms of human thought. The utterances of language are either habits or constructed through habits. Since language is stimulus-free, the occurrence of certain words is predictable from the situations themselves. Language could be observed as an activity or behaviour that gets programmed at appropriate stages in an individual's life. It allows human beings to learn and adapt to changing circumstances. It is assumed that language is a product of both the mind and the social contexts in which it is used.

Human language is versatile. Modern linguists consider the spoken aspect of language as basic and primary. Or, to put it differently, speech precedes writing. Speech develops from an informal context, whereas writing develops from a formal context and requires conscious effort. While spoken language is spontaneous and rapid, written language is more complex.It is difficult to give immediate feedback on a written document. As a result, there is a lack of clarity, and one cannot fully rely on context to discern what a particular text conveys. Due to the instant nature of the speech and the presence of the listener, the problem of ambiguity is limited. Many factors play a role here, including the context, tone, and the speakers speed. During the listening process, it is helpful for the listener to understand the speaker's words. Recording of primary speech and thought indicates the secondary aspect of language to linguists. Both spoken and written language are manifestations of the same system known as language and both depend more on clarity, quantity, and relationship. A speaker's or writer's success lies more in their ability to effectively communicate. Thus, one cannot be superior to another.

Language conditions social behaviour and has always been the distinguishing feature of humankind. Hence, Barnett defines language as a "condition of the existence of human society". It is evolutionary and differentiates human beings from other animals. Bloomfield describes language as "the totality

of the utterance that can be made in a speech community". In other words, a community's language is comprised of all the utterances that can be made within it. The creative or productive property of language permits the native speaker to construct an infinite number of utterances in that language. Human beings use their linguistic resources to produce new expressions. Sapir treats language purely as a human institution. As Noam Chomsky points out, language consists of the ability of native speakers to comprehend grammatical and structural elements. Language's extended and metaphorical aspect denotes the study of gestures, postures, gaze, etc. popularly categorized under a distinct branch called 'body language'.

The use of language in human culture is productive, and many of them have declined and developed over time, and some of them continue to evolve. Several theories argue that language is a combination of imitation, rhythm, pains and pleasures, and gestures.There are chiefly six theories viz, *the bow-wow theory* (beginning of language is related to humankind's attempts to imitate noises and natural sounds), *the ding-dong theory* (denoting sound symbolism that traces the origin of language in connection with the natural sounds produced by human beings), *the pooh-pooh theory* (language generates from the violent outcries and exclamations produced by people and speech begins with interjections),*the gesture theory* (studying the role of gesture or the movement of jaw, lips, hands, shoulder, and eyes in the development of a language) concerning the origin of language, the *yo-he-ho theory* (claiming that language evolves from the grunts, groans, and snorts evoked by the group of people during a heavy physical work), and *the sing-song theory* (proving that language develops from play, laughter, cooing, courtship, emotional mutterings and the like). The origin of language remains an enigma, even though most theories agree and disagree with one another.

The American linguist, Charles F. Hockett, identifies thirteen design features of a language. Some of the chief features are interchangeability, specialization, displacement, productivity, the duality of patterning, traditional & broadcast transmissions, directional reception, and discreteness. According to modern linguist and cognitive scientist Steven Pinker language is instinctive as human beings inherit a predisposition towards acquiring a language. At the same time, it is non-instinctive as one can choose what to

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say or whether to say it. Language is a system of vocal and graphic symbols. The relationship between the vocal/graphic symbols and the denoted objects is arbitrary, as there is no connection between the words/symbols used and the meanings expressed. Hence one cannot logically explain why a four-legged barking animal is called *dog* in English, *patti* in Malayalam, *kutha* in Hindi, *shvaana* in Sanskrit, *canis* in Latin, and *chien* in French. The prime feature of language is its dualism. The duality of language denotes the structuring of language at two levels of sounds, and words. The structure dependence of language influences the production of meaning. The productive and creative aspect of language enables the construction of an infinite number of sentences in it. Hence, language is creative, complex, and unique. Language is symbolic as it is abundant with symbols representing abstract as well as concrete meanings. A symbol is different from a sign. The latter gives you denotative meaning, whereas symbol enables one to club reason and imagination to produce connotative meaning. The systematic and scientific study of language is known as Linguistics.

Language is a systematic arrangement of various systems like phonology, morphology, and syntax. One could learn a language from the environment. Thus, it is assumed that language is culturally transmitted. Acquisition of language involves mental activity as well. Since geographical and cultural barriers determine diverse linguistic conventions, language remains flexible. The property of medium transferability of language facilitates its adaptive nature. Languages are continuously evolving with new words, meanings, pronunciations, and grammatical structures. In short, language is modifiable in various ways.

Linguistics: Nature & Scope

The systematic study of language is known as linguistics. One of the fields of knowledge with the quickest growth is linguistics. In other words, linguistics studies the nature of language. It tries to investigate the elements of the language system and conclude how the system functions. It is concerned with describing language, examining its nature, and developing a philosophy of language. The very word linguistics is derived from Latin in which *lingua* means tongue and *istics* means knowledge or science.

It is a scientific process as it follows a methodology of science. The select samples of language are analysed to formulate various linguistic theories describing the structure and functioning of the language. The role of the linguist is to prescribe rules regarding the usage of language in spoken and written form. Linguistics is empirical and objective, operating with publicly verifiable data obtained using experiments. The linguistic study of a language comprises the rules and principles governing the grammar and pragmatics of the same language. The linguistic rules discuss the physical properties and pronounciation of speech sounds, the combination of words, the structuring of phrases, clauses, and sentences, and the creation of meanings. The use of linguistic structures in various contexts is regulated by linguistic principles.

Linguistics is interpreted as a science that deals with language as a universal and very essential part of human behaviour. The collection, classification, analysis, and verification of linguistic data make the study a scientific process. The linguistic data involves utterances of isolated levels as well as the connected speech level. The language system is abstract and gets represented in the language behaviour of individual members of the language community. Linguistics is an inductive science because it is based on observation and experimentation. The construction of a language, the various changes made in it from time to time, its usage, and its relationship with other languages will come under the scope of linguistics. Hence linguistics is descriptive, historical, comparative, and explicit study. Moreover, it observes the interaction between language and all facets of human behaviour, physiology, and culture. The multidisciplinary approach of linguistics materialises the collaboration of various disciplines in the study of language.

The recent studies made in the field of language and linguistics revealed the infinite possibilities of linguistics as a special branch of study. Modern linguistics broadens its focus and incorporates historical and comparative studies of language in addition to the nature of describing languages. Linguists can help the public understand how the language works in certain linguistic environments. They can assist the people in the usage of language by bringing a linguistic perspective to the traditional grammar. The great linguist like Noam Chomsky and others invited the attention of language lovers to innumerable considerations connected with linguistics such as

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psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, and similar other branches. Their research proved that study of language is closely connected to subjects like psychology, sociology, philosophy, and alike. Language plays a significant role in various human activity and knowledge fields.

Language is hierarchical in nature, as it is divided into submits and the smallest unit is a speech sound or a *phoneme*. A speech sound cannot be divided into further units. These units form a sequence that starts with a phoneme. A morpheme is a more complex, meaningful unit made up of two or more phonemes. Morpheme combinations can also result in larger units or words. A text or discourse is made up of multiple connected sentences or huge units of words that are combined to produce a single piece of writing or speech. It could be represented as

Phoneme—Morpheme—Word—Sentence—Text.

Primarily, there are six levels of linguistic analysis. They are listed below:

1. **Phonetics**: It deals with speech sounds' articulation, transmission, and reception. The study of phonetics is the systematic classification of the sounds made during speech. The articulation of speech sounds and the reception of them come under the scope of phonetics. Besides, the human speech mechanism and the auditory mechanism, this branch of study concentrates on their manner of production as well.

2. **Phonology**: It studies the selection and organization of speech sounds in a language. The formation of speech sounds into larger units like morphemes and syllables come under reference here. (The second module discusses these two points in detail).

3. **Morphology**: It refers to the study of the internal organization of morphemes into words. Or else, it describes the word formation in a language. (The concept is elaborated in the third module).

4. **Syntax**: "Syntax" refers to how words are arranged into phrases and sentences. It deals with the organization and formation of words into higher structures like phrases and sentences. The syntactic analysis of a language includes the analysis of its sentence structures. The rules and

principles governing such structures are analysed. The syntactic rules decide the role and function of words in a sentence. Noam Chomsky and his followers define syntax as the very core of language structure. The structure of a sentence is known as constituent structure, and a constituent structure is built up by combining smaller units into larger ones. These units are called the syntactic categories. A sentence is a unique syntactic category. The smallest syntactical category is a lexical category which is inclusive of parts of speech. Phrasal categories indicate noun phrases and verb phrases in a sentence. In short, the syntax of a sentence focuses on the grammar and meaning of its words, rather than their mere arrangement.

5. **Semiology:** It is the study of signs. It is one of the most important features of structuralism, propounded by Saussure. The sign is a combination of signifier and signified. The relationship between the two components of a sign is arbitrary. The meaning of one sign is determined by its relationship with other signs in the same system.

6. **Semantics**: It discusses the change of meaning. It deals with the relationship between a word and its meaning. The word semantics has its root in the Greek word *semain*. French linguist Michel Breal coined the term semantics. It studies the meaning potential of words, phrases, and sentences. The context and the speaker's intention are entirely left out of consideration. In semantics, the goal is to give words and sentences meaning as well as to analyze and define words that are abstract in nature. The connotative level of words makes semantics a complex branch of study. In the second half of the twentieth century, the field of semantics has undergrown many changes due to the work of American philosopher Richard Montague. The revolutionary leap happened in the 1960s when linguistic meaning got bifurcated. One type of meaning is intrinsic to the linguistic form and is called semantics while the second type of meaning results from the interaction between the linguistic form of an utterance and the context in which it is uttered. The second category is Pragmatics.

Pragmatics/Discourse Analysis

Discourse refers to longer units of language. It focuses on the form and function of language beyond morphemes and syntax. Discourse analysts give importance to contexts or situations. Pragmatics is a term taken from the

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Greek root *pragma* meaning action. It is coined by American philosopher C.S. Peirce. It may be defined as the study of those aspects of language that cannot be considered in isolation from its use. In other words, it could be understood as the study of the relationship between symbols and those who use them. Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that studies how utterances produce various meanings in diverse contexts. Discourse analysis is an area of study that deals with the rules governing a conversation and the requirement that our social values impose on us. It aims to investigate the social and ideological aspects of a language in use. The understanding of the word and sentence meanings involves intra-linguistics and extra-linguistic features. Writing is intended to be long-lasting. Historical records, laws, literature, and so on set out much of its context within their text, necessitating no extra-linguistic knowledge to understand it. On the contrary, emergency calls in situations outside normal context are necessarily short and sharp, relying on the hearer's immediate grasp of what is wrong and what must be done.

Eg: "Fire"
"Stop thief"
"Man overboard" –

These are emergency calls also. It is extra linguistics knowledge of the listener that urges him or her to do something at the hearing of such shouts as given above. Some linguists assign many extra-linguistic functions to pragmatics as distinct from semantics. Pragmatics deals with the extra-linguistic features of the language. Pragmatics accounts for the meanings which are not intrinsic to the linguistic expression but results from the interaction of the linguistic expression with the context. The subject matter of pragmatics is the context-bound relationship between what is said and what is communicated. It is needless to say that the change in meaning is directly proportional to the change in contexts. Thus, the central aspect of pragmatics is its concern with principles that allow us to infer what is meant from what is said in a particular context.

Types of Linguistics

The field of linguistics is always evolving, as it is a dynamic one. Language plays a role in many aspects of human activity and knowledge, and

linguistics is useful in these areas, leading to the growth of many linguistic branches.Depending on the point of view used, linguistics can be divided into a number of subfields. The various linguistic branches emphasize a diverse set of phenomena or assumptions to analyse the language. Commonly speaking, linguistics could be divided into general and descriptive linguistics. General linguistics deals with the conceptual and categorical formulation with which languages are to be analysed. Descriptive linguistics, on the other hand, provides the data which confirms or refutes the propositions and theories put forward by general linguists. For example, the general hypothesis that all languages have nouns and verbs might be refuted or confirmed by the descriptive linguist with empirical evidence. The next subdivision talks about the theory and praxis of languages. While theoretical linguistics formulates theories about the structure and functions of language, applied linguistics is concerned with the application of such theoretical concepts and findings to a variety of practical tasks, including language teaching.

The linguists observe language objectively and scientifically to arrive at general principles. The sounds used in a language, forms of words in a language, and the arrangement of words to constitute meaningful utterances are all the concerns of a linguist. Linguistics is a science with a subject matter called language. The sounds used in a language, forms of words in a language, and the arrangement of words to total meaningful utterances are all concerns of linguistics. There are various approaches to the study of linguistics such as historical linguistics, descriptive linguistics, comparative linguistics, and so on. Historical linguistics implies the study of language, tracing its development for a given period. Descriptive linguistics deals with how a language functions and how it is used by a given set of speakers. Comparative linguistics is concerned with comparing two or more languages, thereby establishing the relationships between them from time to time. When linguistics is correlated to other branches of knowledge many new branches or diverse interpretive measures emerge in the field of linguistics.

Historical Linguistics

The nineteenth century witnessed the emergence of Historical linguistics as a separate discipline although a few scholars like Descartes, Locke, and,

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Humboldt made several significant contributions to the field of linguistics previously in the seventeenth century. Historical linguistics investigates the details of the historical development of a language and formulates a hypothesis about language change. This branch of linguistics deals with the general and particular aspects of language, the nature of language change, and its consequences. In the first half of the nineteenth-century historical linguists focussed on comparative linguists. They studied the various language families and investigated their shared common ancestry to identify the various changes that led to the breaking up of the ancestral language into its various units.

Ferdinand de Saussure, who is usually referred to as the father of modern linguistics, coined two technical terms to denote linguistics' historical aspects: 'diachronic' and 'synchronic'.A diachronic description of a language traces the historical development of the language and records the changes that have taken place in the language between any two successive points in time. It explains the evolution of a language over some time. A study of the history of any language is diachronic. A synchronic description of a language presents an account of the language at some point in time. The study of the English language in Chaucer's time, Shakespeare's time, or Modern-day would be represented as a synchronic one.

Applied Linguistics

It is a matter of common knowledge that linguistics is concerned with language in general, not with any language. We may consider linguistics as the scientific study of language with a well-defined subject matter. The study involves observation, recording, analysis of data, explanation through the hypothesis of theory, and so on. The utterances of the native speaker constitute the data of the language under study. As foreign students of the English language, we are here concerned with the application of linguistics in the classroom. The scholars emphasized applied linguistics based on its practical, fieldwork-based, data-driven, and empirical nature in contrast with the theoretical linguists. Applied linguistics denotes the application of linguistic methods and concepts to the practical problems involved in the process of language acquisition.

Applied linguistics has now involved as an important topic of study for students of linguistics. It has effectively been used in many other fields. It is concerned with comparing the sounds, words, grammatical systems, and structure of two languages and finding out the similarities and dissimilarities between them. It is quite natural, that a non-native student involved in learning English tends to make use of the sounds and emotions of his or her mother tongue. Technically this is called the mother tongue influence.

Eg: the use of the sound /l/ in the word Malayalam.

Applied linguists examine such mother-tongue influences and other practical domains like lexicography, translation, the teaching of reading, forensic linguistics, and the diagnosis and treatment of language disability.

Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics emerged as a distinct discipline in the 1950s. The growing interest in the question of language acquisition by children and the conceptual linking of linguistics and cognitive psychology initiates the emergence of Psycholinguistics. It is the study of the interrelationship of psychological and linguistic behaviour. To be precise, Psycholinguistics examines the connections between language and the human mind. Individual behaviour & capabilities, and their relationship with language come under the domain of psycholinguistics. In other words, it is the psychology of the language, including language acquisition by children, the mental process underlying, language use & memory, adult comprehension, defects of speech-language discords, and the like. The possible links between perception and cognition have always been a prominent and successful area of psycholinguists. Additionally, Psycholinguists deal with the influence of psychological factors like fear, anxiety, trauma, and intelligence on language. Since Psycholinguistics focuses on language behavior, it contributes to the development of cognitive linguistics in general.

This is the field of considerable activity at present especially because several linguists see language as the best key to an understanding of the human mind in general. Linguists think that the perception of speech sounds as well as writing symbols by a person is immensely influenced by his or her mind. It is psycholinguistics that conducts investigations about the innate

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language ability of the human brain and leaves the grammatical and semantic patterns of language processing in the human brain. It also studies problems connected with competence and performance. It offers some insights and corrective measures for dyslexia.

The field of Psycholinguistics involves aspects like

1. First language acquisition
2. Planning a language utterance
3. The development of a syntactic structure for the expression of an idea
4. The selection of words to express that idea and their insertion into sentences
5. The construction of words from smaller parts such as stems and endings, and the form of sounds and letters
6. Language-specific aspects of perception
7. The recognition of words, whether in speech or writing
8. The use of gestures in communication.

Sociolinguistics

The field of sociolinguistics studies language use in real life. It is nothing but the study of language in the social setting. In other words, it may be regarded as the application of linguistics at the social level or the study of social implications on the language. Sociolinguistics is a study of the relationship between language used and the structure of society. To put it in simple terms, sociolinguistics studies the effects of social factors on language use and language structures. Sociolinguists admit the fact that language use and language structures cannot be separated from the individual's social self. Specifically, it is concerned with the role that language plays in maintaining social roles. The relationship between language and society affects both international and interpersonal relations. Therefore, intergroup and interpersonal relations take on an increasingly important role.

The second half of the twentieth century witnessed the emergence of sociolinguistics. Language has different forms in different social contexts. Language serves as a window into a person's social reality. Different sections belonging to the same community may use different varieties of a language. The evolution of such language may depend upon several conditions such as geographical region, social situation, cultural background, and even personal activities and occupations. Age, sex, social class, ethnic background, etc. of

the people may also have a direct bearing upon their language. Sociolinguistics studies all these factors and their effects on a certain language which lead to the production of different varieties of a language. The irregular and inconsistent changes in the spelling, grammar, meaning, and pronunciation of words in a language and their diffusion cause language variation. One of the crucial areas of study for sociolinguists is the study of language variation. Thus, language variation and change are a concern for sociolinguists.

Sociolinguistics studies the heterogeneity of language. It exposes the connection between a certain language and the society in which that language is spoken. The study of language variations in different societies and different parts of society also comes within the scope of sociolinguistics. The dialectical difference within a language involved not only regional variations but class differentiation also. To an extent, class differentiation often transcends regional differences in speech. The differences in social status and social gradation observed by people within society and evolving responses from them are systematically described by sociologists. It involved far more behavioural aspects than just actual speech. It is the sociolinguist who describes and classifies formerly the speech features concerned, including the nervousness shown by someone who is socially insecure. Imitation of a prestigious dialect that gained social approval may be cited as a cause for linguistic changes which also must be studied by sociolinguists. Sociolinguistics takes into consideration factors such as the social backgrounds of both the speaker and the listener. In short, age, gender, profession, level of education, social class, and racial or ethnic background of each person are the decisive factors in the acquisition of language.

Anthropological Linguistics

Anthropological linguistics examines the evolution of language from a cultural standpoint using anthropological theories and methods. Additionally, it examines the role of language in cultural development. In this study, language is analyzed in relation to human cultural patterns and beliefs.

Lexicography Approaches to the Study of Language

The Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure is one of the prominent linguists to identify that language is a structured system. He is often referred to as the father of modern linguistics. The system comprises various elements

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like the basic sound units or phonemes, words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. His structuralist viewpoint defines each element of the language in its connection with other elements and dominates linguistic thinking even today. The structural critics justify the flexible nature of language in terms of its variation aspect. Variation, which forms a large part of the structure of language, is the vehicle of change in it. It denotes the observable differences in the speech of human beings. Having been a vital part of ordinary linguistic behaviour, variation shows the correlation of language with social variables.

Modern linguists have drawn much of their subject matter from Saussure's *Course de Linguistique Generale (A Course in General Linguistics)* which was published in 1916, in their attempts to analyze the complex system of language and its various units, their arbitrary relationships, and diverse functions. According to Saussure, the signs express meanings in a semiotic system. The Saussurean dichotomies are listed below:

Diachronic and Synchronic

Ferdinand de Saussure coins diachronic and synchronic approaches to indicate the presence and absence of temporal dimensions in language. The terms diachronic and synchronic are taken from Greek language denoting *across time* and *together time* respectively. As stated above, the diachronic approach studies the changes that occurred in a language over a while. It examines the progression of languages over time, the connections between them, from earlier records to the present day, and speculates about language's origins. Additionally, it involves developing general theories about language change and classifying languages into language families.

Most of the work in historical linguistics is diachronic. The investigation of the evolution of Modern English exemplifies the diachronic aspect of language study. The research will begin from the parent family called the Indo-European family of language and gets extended to Satem and Centum languages describing the Old, Middle, and modern versions of the English language. The diachronic study requires complex methodologies and inferences, whereas the synchronic approach is much more directly suggestive.

The Synchronic studies focus on a specific point in time and explain the language changes that took place at a particular time. It analyses the patterns and functions of the language of a specific point in time. The functions of grammatical structures and maintenance and establishment of meanings are the concerns of a synchronic study. Research on the Old English of King Alfred's day or an analytical study on the Latin of Caesar's day could be treated as examples of synchronic approaches to language learning. The researcher pays little attention to the differences in the language fro n the previous or future moment and concentrates only on the present momer.t.

Prescriptive and Descriptive

Prescriptivism is one of the prominent features of traditional grammar. In the prescriptive approach to language learning, the linguist identifies and recommends certain canonical forms and usages. The rejection of non-canonical usages happens as they nullify the regional and social variations in a language. The prescriptive methodology has been useful in educational contexts as it makes value judgments about linguistic factors. Their judgments often reveal the various aspects of social morality and are interpreted as recommendations about good style. They propound accurate measures for correct and incorrect language usage. For them, written language is accurate. But they are not factual statements and hence unscientific. Modern linguists prefer a descriptive approach to prescriptivism.

The goal of modern linguistics is descriptive, so it focuses on the structure, grammar, syntax, and phonetics of any given language without being concerned with its rules or norms. The descriptive approach to any language study aims to elaborate on the key elements involved in language learning. It observes and describes the various facts of linguistic behaviour objectively. It details the use of language by the native and non-native speakers of the language. The scientific approach to the study of language learning is descriptive. It opposes the imposition of arbitrary norms upon language. Flexibility is one of the main tenets of descriptivism. Modern linguistics takes a scientific approach to language study by accepting all language variations, such as jargon and dialect. In their view, there is no such thing as correct or incorrect language usage. According to this line of thinking, no language can be considered superior to another.

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Language as a system of signs

Language is a system composed of various units or elements. The different structures of the language are derived from the different types of arrangements of various linguistic units. The diverse structures of the language are governed by certain linguistic rules and regulations. The grammatical structure of any language forms its basic system. According to structuralists language is a system of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. For example, the phonological system of the English language is comprised of forty-four phonemes inclusive of twelve pure vowels, eight diphthongs, nine voiceless consonants, and fifteen voiced consonants.

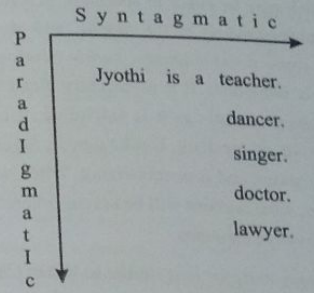
Sign, Signifier, and Signified

Language is a system of signs. The abstract system of the language gets manifested in the form of signs. A linguistic sign is a combination of an image or concept. The image is the expressed aspect of the concept. Being abstract, the concept is represented through either phonic (spoken) or graphic (written) symbols. Such phonic and graphic symbols are known as 'signifiers and the abstract concept is termed 'signified'. Hence, signifiers have particular forms, and signified indicates the meaning conveyed by that prescribed form. The most important feature of the linguistic sign is its arbitrary nature.

Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic

There are two types of relationships between linguistic units in a system. This dichotomy indicates the linear and horizontal relationships between linguistic units. The words syntagmatic and paradigmatic have their origin in the Greek words *suntagmatikos* (arranged together) and *paradeigmatikos* (serving as a pattern) respectively. The linear arrangement of linguistic units at the same level is denoted by syntagmatic. It refers to the relationship of a word with its preceding and following units in the same sentence. In the sentence 'Jyothi is a teacher', the relationship of the auxiliary word 'is' with the preceding noun 'Jyothi', and the following definite article 'a' is syntagmatic. Paradigmatic represents the relationship of an element with other elements which might have been used in its place without affecting

the context. The linguistic units are vertically arranged here. In the above example, if we substitute teacher with dancer, singer, doctor, and any other similar words, it will give different sentences. The relationship of such nouns is considered paradigmatic and hence these nouns are called *paradigms* that can occur in the same contexts. In other words, the relationships between various word classes like nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs explain the paradigmatic connections in a language. It could be illustrated with the following example.



Langue and Parole

To describe a language's structure, Saussure used the terms langue and parole, referring to the rules or system that forms a language and its actual expression. Langue consists of all the elements of languages including the rules, regulations, and social conventions of their combinations. It is a collective linguistics pattern existing as a sum of impressions deposited in the brain of each individual. The actual utterances of individuals are guided by a system of regularities or *langue*. The *langue* rules govern grammar, vocabulary, syntax, and sound system of any language. If we take a group of people using a simple language we find similarities in sounds, words, and meaning among these persons. They have similar sounds, images, or signs in their minds. Though it exists in everyone it is common to a group. Thus, Saussure says, "langue exists perfectly only within a collectivity". As langue

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exists in the minds of the people, we say it is abstract. So, we can say langue refers to the totality of language shared by the collective consciousness or the total of ideas about the various elements of language existing in the consciousness of a group of people. So, we define langue as a knowledge system that is a totality.

On the contrary, a parole is a fragment, and it is the actual use of the language by an individual in speech or writing. In other words, we may say it is the physical manifestation of langue that exist only in the mind. This concrete manifestation may be either in speech or in writing. When people modify their own understanding of the *langue*, and alter specific words, thereby gaining the rules of the language, *parole* develops. Unlike *langue*, it is not collective but individual. It is momentary, flexible, heterogeneous, unstable, and less than systematic as it is individual. It is concrete as it is used by people in writing or speaking. Unlike *parole, langue* is abstract as it is used by people in thinking and conceptualizing. When we take away what is personal in language, what remains will be *langue* whereas *parole* includes both personal and innovative elements.

The concept of *langue* and *parole* is similar to Noam Chomsky's ideas of *competence* and *performance*.

Noam Chomsky was a linguist at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology who introduced fresh approaches to understanding and representing various features of the language. In competence-based theories of language, Noam Chomsky is a major proponent. The book *Syntactic Structures*, published in the 1950s by Chomsky, revolutionized linguistics. His two major concepts 'competence' and 'performance' are introduced in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965). According to Chomsky, all human beings are born with the ability to speak, and therefore it is more important to study commonalities rather than differences between languages. As a reflection of this emphasis, he proposed universal grammar: the idea that every individual, regardless of the language they ultimately speak, has within them a system of universal principles for learning languages. According to his generative grammar focusing on the creativity of language, anyone

can create an infinite number of sentences with finite linguistic rules.In the modern era of linguistics, Chomsky's notions about human language were so revolutionary and influential that they completely changed the field.

Competence And Performance

The idea of Competence and Performance is put forward by Noam Chomsky. It is almost a revision of the idea of langue and parole proposed by Saussure. Competence may be defined as the native speaker's knowledge of his or her language. It consists of the total of the rules and regulations known to a person so that one can handle a particular language. It is innate linguistic knowledge of any language. It helps one to create infinite number of sentences in a language. The native speaker of a language possesses the necessary grammar of its language so much so that he or she can readily distinguish between what is grammatical and non-grammatical and relinquish the latter. This is the competence of the native speaker.

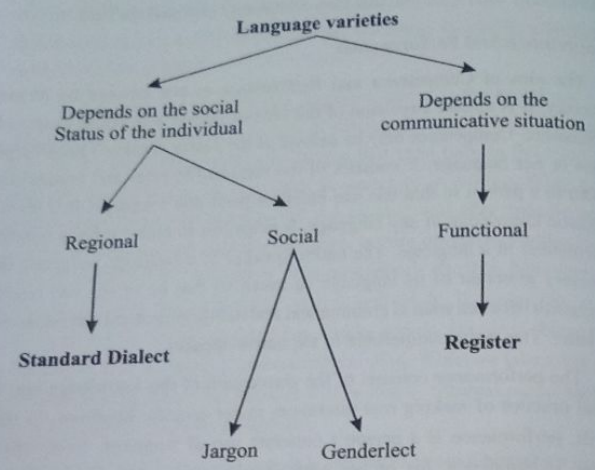
The performance consists of the conversion of this knowledge into the actual practice of making real utterances under specific situations. In other words, performance is a person's concrete use of language. Even when a person is competent, his or her performance may suffer due to different reasons. Memory limitations, distractions, shifting attention, and errors may occur at the time of utterance and affect performance. In other words, performance may suffer because of slips of the tongue, forgetfulness, poor memory, speech defects such as lisping, stammering, etc. Therefore, we may say competence is an abstract reality whereas performance is concrete. Though these two correspond to Saussure's idea of langue and parole, there is a notable difference between the two. While langue is common to every language user competence varies from individual to individual. This is so because langue refers to the social aspect of language whereas competence is based on individual psychology.

Later, Noam Chomsky in his book *Knowledge of Language* (1986) replaced the terms Competence and Performance with the terms Internalised Language (I-language) and Externalized Language (E-language) respectively.

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Varieties of Language



Any change that happens in the different aspects of the language like grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, and meaning can be called linguistic change. It occurs due to the following reasons.

1. Racial difference
2. Mixture of races
3. Fashion of high-class people
4. Dialectical variations
5. Minimization of efforts
6. Contact with other languages

Dialect and Register

There are two types of language varieties. They are called dialect and register. A dialect is a variety of language used by a particular group of people. Traditional linguists define dialect as a regionally restricted variety since it

is distinguished by features of grammar, vocabulary, and pronounciation. Morpheme and syntax changes are evident. The dialect used in a particular region is known as **regional dialect**. In England, each country is said to have its own regional dialect. Yorkshire, Derby, and Kentish are a few among them. The variations are caused by the educational, occupational, and social status of people. Dialects based on social differences are known as **socialdialects** or **sociolects**. Sociolects could be either **class dialects** depending on the social class to which the speakers belong or the **cast dialects** depending on the caste to which the speaker belongs. They are motivated by their socio-economic status, level of education, profession, age, sex or gender, and ethnic background. The dialects of the working class and aristocracy are instances of class dialects. The Namboodiri dialect in Kerala is an example of a caste dialect.

The study of dialects and the demarcation of dialect boundaries across a region is known as **dialectology**. **Isoglosses** are lines drawn on language maps to indicate language boundaries or the geographical spread of a certain linguistic expression. For instance, a language map of England and Scotland would reveal the isoglosses for the different expressions used to denote 'autumn' (*autumn*, *fall*, *backend*). One dialect may be differentiated from another by listing the linguistic features that occur in a particular region. A dialect is a user-based variety of a language. Certain dialects may acquire some importance and prestige and gradually may evolve into a distinct language. Both sociolects and dialects are linked to the speaker's sociological background.

Register

The register is the language variety which is primarily determined by the relevant communicative situations. In other words, it is the variation of language depending upon the content. A speaker uses a language differently in different situations. The difference is determined by factors like social occasion, context, purpose, and audience. Such variations of a single language are called registers of it. The term 'register' is used either to denote the jargon associated with a particular occupational group or more widely to refer to any variety that is influenced by subject matter, setting, the group being addressed, and so on. In other words, it is a form of language associated with

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particular social situations or subject matter such as legal language, scientific language, and medical language. Register choices (concerning the vocabulary and grammatical structures in the functional and communicative contexts) are influenced by factors like discourse topics, the relationship between the speakers involved in the conversation, and the medium of communication. The study of register reveals that language is context-bound. The register helps to demonstrate that language use in communication is governed by rules of situational and contextual appropriateness and is not arbitrary or uncontrolled. Registers are use-oriented, whereas dialects are user-oriented.

Slangs and jargon often served to integrate members of social subgroups, foster group loyalty, and togetherness, and keep outsiders at arms' distance.

Diglossia

It refers to the use of two varieties of the same language in different social contexts. The first variety is indicated by *H* and is used in sermons, political speeches, university purposes, administrative affairs, and news broadcasts. The capital letter *L* is used to denote the latter one. The second variety is prevalent in everyday conversations, to be precise, in informal situations.

There may be a boundary between two different languages or between dialects of the same language. **Isoglosses** mark the boundary between places or regions with different linguistic characteristics.

Standard Dialect

All the dialects of a language are in a way equally efficient, expressive, and complex. It is very natural that among the speakers of the same language some may have greater political, cultural, social, and economic importance than others. Gradually, the dialect they use will soon gain popularity and prestige. People always tend to imitate the dialect of such prestigious classes or groups. Thus, the prestigious dialect will be used by politicians, cultural leaders, and upper social and economic classes. Literary productions will also be published in the same dialect. The printed documents will also employ the same prestigious dialect. It will be taught in schools and will be popularised by the media. Naturally, such dialects will become dominant and may come to be called the *standard dialect*.

Standard dialect refers to the standard dialect of any language that enjoys a higher prestige than any other regional variations. The social and functional considerations determine the categorization of 'standard'. For example, Standard English represents the homogenous common core of the old Englishes and the new Englishes. Standard English is used in

(A) Written language
(B) Literature and print media
(C) Television and radio broadcasts
(D) Politics, administration, and court
(E) Higher education institutions
(F) Educational fields across the world as the teaching target of learners.

Idiolect

A language can be viewed as a collection of more or less similar idiolects. Often it is indeed impossible to draw a sharp distinction between the dialects of two neighbouring regions. However, narrowly we divide the dialect area using social, political, cultural, or geographical criteria. We will always find a certain degree of systematic variation in the speech of those speakers who are said to belong to the same dialect group. In fact, we may have to admit that everyone has got his or her dialect. This individual dialect may be called idiolect in the language of linguists. It is a person's specific way of speaking and the totality of the speech habits of an individual. No two idiolects resemble each other. Every idiolect will differ from every other in various aspects such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and sometimes even in grammar though to a smaller degree. It must also be remembered that a person's intellect will not get fixed forever. By the end of the period considered to be the time of language acquisition, it is subject to modification and change as long as the person is alive and speaking. In short, it is a pattern of speech that is characteristic of a particular individual during a particular period in history.

Individuals may modify and extend their idiolects throughout life. It may also be remembered that an individual may have several dialect variants (idiolect) in his or her command and may switch from one to the other according to the situation in which he or she finds himself or herself.

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Pidgin

Prolonged linguistics contact in a certain area may have several results. One such result, as we know, is **Bilingualism**. Bilingualism refers to the ability to use two different languages. **Multilingualism**, on the other hand, denotes the speaker's proficiency in using three or more languages. Likewise, a **Polyglot** is a person who can speak, read, or write in several languages. However, linguistic contact has other effects as well. When ready communication in a restricted set of contexts is required, there may arise a simplified version of one of the languages in the world. This language will be phonetically, grammatically, and lexically modified in the direction of the other language(s). This has happened quite spontaneously in response to immediate needs in such situations as trading in local communities, agricultural employment, work supervision, domestic employment, administrative routine, the refugee situation and so on. Such developments are called pidgins. In other words, a pidgin may be understood as a language made up of elements of two or more languages and used for contact especially trading contact between the speakers of other languages. It is the simplified version of a language that is developed to facilitate communication between two mutually unintelligible groups. As a result of the mutual abandonment of grammatical complexity and selection of vocabulary items from both languages, pidgin is the result of the two languages blending their linguistic structures. Hence, it is a hybrid language. Pidgin is not anyone's native tongue. An Indian variety of Pidgin English developed in the Madras Presidency of British India to facilitate communication between the English and their Indian counterparts. Gradually, owing to the permanent settlement and the intermixture of speech communities, pidgins will turn out to be the mother tongues of the new generation of the same community. To put it differently, the artificially created pidgins will give rise to a first language, in course of time. Such newly constituted mother tongue of any speech community is known as creoles.

Creoles

Over years, usually centuries pidgins may come to replace either or both original languages or to take up a position of equality with them, with greatly enriched grammatical structures and more extensive vocabularies. They then become the first languages or mother tongues of many speakers and

are known as creoles. They usually reveal something of their origin in two or more languages through the stage of pidgins.The pidgins are nativized as creoles. A creole is defined as a pidgin that becomes the first language of a community after it has evolved beyond its role as a trade language.

In other words, creole is a language that has its origin in an extended context between two language communities; one of which is generally European. It is a natural language developed historically from a pidgin. It incorporates features from each and constitutes the mother tongue of a community. One May mention such creoles as *Jamaican* based mainly on English, and *Haitian* based mainly on French. Once creoles have become established as the first, native, languages they become much more complex in structure and rich in vocabulary than the pidgins from which they have sprung.

Received Pronunciation

English, as we know, is one of the most vibrant and lively of languages. Thus, it was quite natural that the English language came to have little uniformity over the various regions in England. Language spoken by one social group may differ from that spoken by another. Similarly, it might also vary from locality to locality. Despite all these peculiarities, a certain variety of pronunciations gained social prestige and popular approval. Naturally enough, it was the pronunciation of the educated class. To be more specific it was typical of the educated speakers who belong to the southeast of England. The people whose pronunciation gained social prestige and popularity were mainly the upper and the upper-middle class of England. This is what later came to be known as the received pronunciation of England. The phrase 'Received Pronunciation' was coined by the linguist A J Ellis in the 1860s.

A standard speech is known as Received Pronunciation, and it is commonly referred to as RP. Due to its special prestige, RP is also known as the **Queen's English, BBC English,** or **Standard British English**. It is one of the accented versions that is widely used in English-speaking countries. Given that it has an accent, RP is worried about pronunciation. When compared to other regional Englishes, just the accent is different; vocabulary and grammar are not taken into account. One difference between RP and other regional

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dialects is that RP pronounces the /h/ sound as in hurt at the beginning of words, although most dialects, including the cockney in Britain, do not. Most English accents pronounce words like "car" and "heart" with an audible /r/ whereas RP does not. On this accent, phonemic transcriptions in dictionaries are founded. This variety of pronunciation later gained a greater appreciation and got better established with the advent of the radio network and television facilities. In other words, the BBC acknowledged and try to propagate this variety of pronunciation. Again, it was this variety of proper pronunciation accepted by various books on phonetics as the standard pronunciation of British English, just as we have in the *English Pronouncing Dictionary* by Daniel Jones. The British Public Schools also tried to popularise this variety of pronunciation. Later, it was followed by the two great learning centers in England, Oxford, and Cambridge.

Even when we speak about the official received pronunciation we must bear in mind or remember that there are many other regional styles of pronunciation. But at the same time, they all tend to be modified in the direction of the official received pronunciation. This is because it is almost taken for granted that the Received Pronunciation is the correct English pronunciation. However, this does not mean that this is the variety of pronunciation spoken by the largest number of speakers. The speakers of received pronunciation do not know that they are only a minority but still, received pronunciation is looked up to by the non-native speakers of English as the ideal model to imitate.One gains linguistic prestige by pronouncing RP. On the other hand, linguists do not consider any language variety to be either prestigious or not.

Questions

I. Answer the following in a word or sentence. (1 mark each)

1. Define language.
2. The word 'language' is taken from _____. What is the meaning of the word?
3. What do you mean by linguistics?
4. Barnett defines language as _____.
5. The metaphorical aspect of language is _____.
6. Distinguish between symbol and sign.

7. Phonetics.
8. Who is the author of *Knowledge of Language*?
9. The word semantics is derived from the Greek word ____.
10. Syntax.
11. Sociolinguistics.
12. Anthropological linguistics.
13. Define the sign.
14. Saussure's *Course de LinguistiqueGenerale (A Course in General Linguistics)* was published in the year ____.
15. Dialect.
16. Isoglosses.
17. Polyglot.
18. Pidgin.
19. Diglossia.
20. Write any two examples of creole.
21. *English Pronouncing Dictionary* is written by _____.
22. Give an instance of mother tongue influence.
23. Jargon.
24. Who is the father of modern linguistics?
25. Modern linguists prefer a ____ to prescriptivism.

II. Answer the following in a short paragraph not exceeding 50 words. (2 marks each)

1. Briefly explain the features of the language.
2. What is body language?
3. Language is a system. Explain.
4. Do you think language is hierarchical in nature? Why?
5. How do you evaluate the nature and scope of linguistics?
6. Distinguish between phonology and semiology?
7. Pragmatics.
8. Historical linguistics.
9. What are the different aspects of psycholinguistics?
10. Any two functions of sociolinguists.
11. Langue and Parole.
12. Diachronic and synchronic.

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13. Noam Chomsky.
14. Prescriptive and descriptive.
15. Language variety.
16. Differentiate between dialect and register.
17. Creole.
18. Standard dialect.
19. Multilingualism and bilingualism.
20. Applied linguistics.

III. Answer the following in a paragraph not exceeding 100 words. (4 marks each)

1. Give three definitions of language.
2. What are different theories regarding the origin of language?
3. Comment on linguistic analysis.
4. Semantics.
5. Evaluate discourse analysis.
6. Psycholinguistics.
7. Write a short essay on sociolinguistics.
8. Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic.
9. Language is a system of signs. Explain.
10. Signifier and signified.
11. Competence and performance.
12. Language variety and its reasons.
13. Received pronunciation.
14. Distinguish between pidgin and creole.
15. What do you mean by the arbitrary nature of the *sign*?

IV. Answer the following essay in about 300 words. (15 marks each)

1. The various types of linguistics.
2. Saussure and his dichotomies.
3. Language varieties.
4. Differentiate psycholinguistics from sociolinguistics.
5. Write an essay discussing lexicographic approaches to the study of language.

MODULE II
Phonetics and Phonology

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Phonetics and Phonology

Phonetics -Types – Articulatory, Acoustic, and Auditory-Speech mechanism-Organs of speech-Speech sounds & classification-Vowels-Cardinal vowels-Consonants -Three-part labelling-Phonology-Phonemes-Allophones and their distribution-Syllable structure-Suprasegmental features-Stress – word stress and sentence stress-Strong and weak forms-Rhythm –Juncture –Intonation – Assimilation – Elision-Transcription (sentences and passages) – IPA

Phonetics

Language is used in two ways for communication: speech and writing. A systematic study of the spoken and written forms of the language is called linguistics. The branch of linguistics that deals with the spoken form of the language is known as Phonetics. It studies the production, transmission, and reception of speech sounds. It deals with all possible sounds human vocal organs can produce. English is not a phonetic language. In the English alphabet, we do not have letters as many as we have sounds in English speech. In other words, with the twenty-six letters in the alphabet, we make forty-four speech sounds. This often makes pronunciation differ widely from the script. Words like knife, champagne, colonel, and lieutenant point out the differences in spelling and pronunciation. So, we need a special branch of study such as phonetics to explain the divergent aspects of various speech sounds.

Types of Phonetics

There are three types of phonetics.

1. *Articulatory Phonetics*

The production of different speech sounds through the use of speech organs is known as articulation. Articulatory Phonetics deals with the

movements of the speech organs in the production of speech sounds. This study aims to understand how the outgoing air from the lungs is regulated along the vocal tract to produce different speech sounds.

2. *Acoustic Phonetics*

The acoustic analysis examines how sound is transmitted from the speaker to the listener. The study of acoustic phonetics is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds such as frequency and amplitude.

3. *Auditory phonetics*

It deals with the reception and perception of speech sounds.

Speech mechanism

A branch of linguistics, phonetics studies sounds' production, transmission, and reception. The following concepts will be discussed in such a systematic study:

Air-stream mechanism

The air-stream mechanism is the basis of the production of speech sounds. The air stream is the movement of air through the speech organs during speech production. An air stream mechanism produces an air stream. In other words, the physiological system involved in the production of speech sounds is known as the air stream mechanism. Lungs, chest muscles, and windpipe make up the respiratory airstream system. One's expiratory air is modified into phonemes as it leaves the lungs. The initiator organ sets the air stream in motion. The three main air-stream mechanisms are:

1. The Pulmonic air-stream mechanism,
2. The Glottalic air-stream mechanism, and
3. The Velaric air-stream mechanism.

When producing speech sounds, the **ingressive** air-stream mechanism pulls air in while the **egressive** air-stream mechanism pushes air out.There are lungs, and respiratory muscles, which make up the **pulmonic air-stream mechanism**. To produce speech sounds, the walls of the lungs act as an initiator, and the **egressive** air stream mechanism (pushing the air out of the mouth) is used. The expansion or contraction of the lungs produces the airstream. All sounds in English and Indian languages (except Sindhi) are produced with a pulmonic egressive airstream mechanism.

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The **glottalic air-stream mechanism** uses the air in the pharynx. So, it is called the pharyngeal airstream mechanism. The glottis initiates speech sounds by using both ingressive and **egressive** air-stream mechanisms. Many African languages and a few Oriental languages like Sindhi use the glottalic air-stream mechanism to produce speech sounds. The air-stream mechanism that uses the back of the tongue as an initiator is known as the **velar air-stream mechanism** or **oral air-stream mechanism**. The velaric ingressive air-stream mechanism utilizes air in the mouth. Several African languages employ this mechanism.

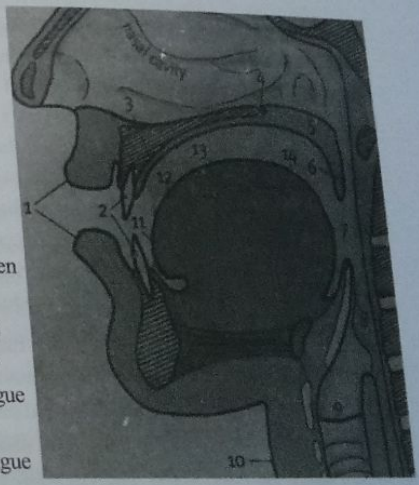
Organs of speech

Several organs participate in the production of phonemes. The lungs, vocal cords, tongue, teeth, and lips are among the organs that contribute to the creation of speech sounds. The organs of the human body that help to produce speech sounds are together called organs of speech. Because of their function, the respiratory system, the phonatory system, and the articulatory system could be used to group the speech organs. The **respiratory system** forms the basis of the production of most speech sounds. The lungs, the muscles of the chest, and the windpipe push the air out and facilitate the production of speech sounds. In this system, the lungs supply the energy needed to produce sounds. The airstream from the lungs moves up through the windpipe and glottis. As a result, this system facilitates speech initiation.

The **phonatory system** with the larynx distinguishes between voiced sounds and voiceless sounds. The larynx is a muscular structure and is situated at the upper part of the trachea. Vocal cords are placed horizontally inside the larynx. Glottis is the space between the vocal cords. When a voiceless sound is produced, the glottis is wide open. The air can pass through it freely without setting the vocal cords into vibration, in such situations. When breathing takes place, the glottis remains opened, which causes these sounds to be called **breathed** sounds. /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /s/ etc. are voiceless sounds in English language. The glottis is closed when it produces voiced sounds. During the production of voiced sounds, the vocal cords are held together loosely, and the pressure of air from the lungs makes the vocal cords vibrate. /b/, /d/, /g/, /v/, /z/ are examples of voiced consonants.

The **articulatory system** comprises the active and passive articulators. The roof of the mouth, tongue, lips, and teeth are the active and passive articulators in the production of speech sounds. The roof of the mouth is made up of the uvula, hard palate, soft palate, and tooth ridge. The teeth-ridge or the alveolar ridge or alveolum is the convex bony portion of the roof of the mouth that is located just behind the upper front teeth. The roof of the mouth becomes concave, hard, and bony right following the teeth-ridge. Hard palate refers to this area of the surface. The roof of the mouth then suddenly becomes soft and fleshy. This soft and fleshy surface of the roof of the mouth is located just behind the hard palate and is known as the soft palate. Velum is another name for the soft palate. The uvula refers to the fleshy structure that hangs loosely at the very end of the roof of the mouth. A sound produced by closing the nasal passage and releasing air only through the mouth is called an oral sound. In the production of nasal sounds, the air passes only through the nose. In the production of nasalized sounds, the air escapes both through the nose and the mouth. The tongue and lips are the active articulators whereas both the upper teeth and lower teeth are the passive articulators in the production of speech sounds. The various speech organs are:

1. lips
2. teeth
3. alveolar ridge
4. hard palate
5. soft palate (velum)
6. uvula
7. pharynx
8. epiglottis
9. glottis – the gap between vocal folds
10. larynx (Adam's apple)
11. tip/apex of the tongue
12. blade/lamina of the tongue
13. front of the tongue
14. back/dorsum of the tongue

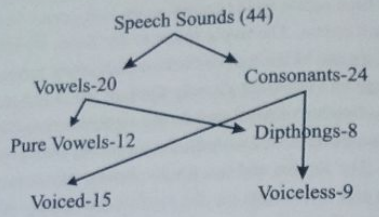


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Speech sounds & classification

In English, there are altogether forty-four speech sounds. These are broadly classified into vowels and consonants. Vowels are twenty in number. The twenty vowels are divided into twelve pure vowels and eight diphthongs. The twenty-four consonants are divided into nine voiceless and fifteen voiced consonants.

Speech Sounds



Vowels are sounds in the pronunciation of which there is no obstruction to the airstream while it passes through the mouth. In the pronunciation of vowels, the airstream passes smoothly through the mouth. There is no friction in the mouth and the air escapes freely. Thus, a vowel is a sound in which air flows out of the mouth relatively freely and the sound is relatively loud and strong. Contrary to this, **Consonant** sounds experience friction during their pronunciation. There may be friction felt on the soft palate or hard palate, in the gums or somewhere else in the mouth. In consonants, air flows out of the mouth less quickly because there is a constriction somewhere in the vocal tract that interferes with the air's flow, thus reducing the sound's energy.

In short, there are forty-four phonemes in English. As we have seen these sounds are produced with the help of the pulmonic airstream that comes out of the lungs through the windpipe (trachea) and passes through the glottis (the upper opening of the windpipe). In the glottis, there are two membranous lips which are called the vocal cords. The vibration and position of vocal cords play an important role in dividing speech sounds into voiced and voiceless

ones. Of the forty-four speech sounds, we say thirty-five are voiced sounds and the rest nine phonemes are voiceless. Those sounds during the pronunciation of which the vocal cords come closer and vibrate are called voiced sounds. All the vowels are voiced sounds. In the category of consonants, fifteen are voiced and nine are voiceless.

There are two practical methods for ascertaining whether a sound is voiced or not.

1. Put your fingers on the Adam's Apple (exterior of the glottis) during the pronunciation of a sound. If the sound is a voiced one, you can feel the vibration of the vocal cords on your finger. There will be no such vibration if the sound is voiceless.
2. You may close your ears with your fingertips while pronouncing sounds. You will feel a buzzing sound if the pronounced sound is a voiced one. And no buzzing will be felt in the case of voiceless sounds.

After passing through the glottis the airstream passes through various speech organs such as velum (soft palate and hard palate), alveoli, teeth ridge, teeth, lips, tongue, etc. According to the speech organ used for pronouncing the sound, a sound may become any one of the following:

(a) Velar sounds
(b) Palatal sounds
(c) Alveolar sounds
(d) Dental sounds and
(e) Labial sounds.

Cardinal Vowels

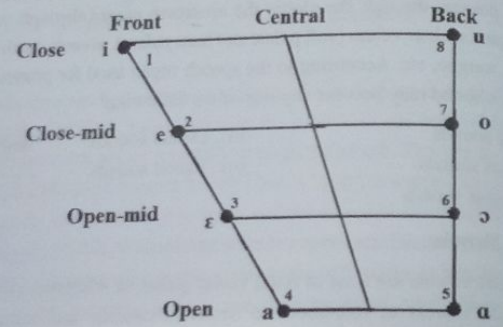
Cardinal vowels are a set of fixed vowel points or references. Linguists use cardinal vowels as references to describe, classify and compare the vowels of any language. Daniel Jones designed eight vowels as cardinal vowels based on tongue height and part of the tongue that is raised during the pronounciation. In other words, depending on the position of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth, how forward or backward the highest point of the tongue is, and the shape of the lips, either rounded or unrounded, cardinal vowels can be classified. A vowel sound can be articulated inside the vowel area of our mouths. In extreme positions, the tongue can produce these sounds, either in front or in back, high, or low. To put it differently, during

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the production of vowels, the cardinal vowel area is felt by the tongue at its highest and lowest levels as well as at its front and back positions. The eight cardinal vowels are described as:

Cardinal vowel	Symbol	Part of the tongue raised	Tongue height	Lip position
Cardinal vowel no:1	i	Front	Close	Unrounded
Cardinal vowel no:2	e	Front	Half-close	Unrounded
Cardinal vowel no:3	ɛ	Front	Half-open	Unrounded
Cardinal vowel no:4	a	Front	Open	Unrounded
Cardinal vowel no:5	ɑ	Back	Open	Unrounded
Cardinal vowel no:6	ɔ	Back	Half-open	Rounded
Cardinal vowel no:7	o	Back	Half-close	Rounded
Cardinal vowel no:8	u	Back	Close	Rounded



Pure vowels, Diphthongs, Semivowels

Vowels may be either long or short. /i/ is a short vowel and /i:/ is a long vowel. Usually, vowels form the nucleus of a syllable. They are soft, voiced and musical. **Pure Vowels** or **monophthongs** are single vowels. They have a single, constant articulatory position. They are fixed as well. **/i/, /a:/, /u:/, /e/, /æ/** are some of the pure vowels. Diphthongs are combinations of two vowels. **/iə/, /uə/, /eə/, /ai/, /ei/, /oi/** are formed by combining two pure

vowels. There must be a single syllable for each diphthong. There are also triphthongs which are combinations of three vowels. In the pronounciation of triphthongs, a vowel glides to another and then further glides to a third vowel.

Eg: Higher- /**haiə**/
Going- /**gəuiŋ**/
Inspire - /**inspaiər**/

Pure Vowels--Monophthongs are twelve in number.

Sl. No	Phonemes	Examples
1	**/i:/**	Seat- /si:t/
2	**/i/**	Big- /big/
3	**/e/**	Let- /let/
4	**/æ/**	Cat- /kæt/
5	**/a:/**	Calm- /ka:m/
6	**/ɒ/**	Got- /gɒt/
7	**/ɔ:/**	Talk- /tɔ:k/
8	**/u/**	Foot- /fut/
9	**/u:/**	Food- /fu:d/
10	**/ʌ/**	But- /bʌt/
11	**/3:/**	Bird- /b3:d/
12	**/ə/**	Alone- /ələʊn/

Diphthongs

Diphthongs are often called *vowel glides* because the tongue glides or travels from one vowel position to another while pronouncing a diphthong. There are eight diphthongs.

Glide towards /i/---------**/ei/** as in eight, great, paste, taste.
/ai/ as in right, eye, cry, my.
/ɒi/ as in boy, oil, coy.
Glide towards /u/--------**/əu/** as in no, go, so, open.
/au/ as in out, house, how, sound
Glide towards /ə/--------**/iə/** as in fear, ear, tear, dear
/uə/ as in sure, tour, cure
/eə/ as in air, share, care, chair.

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Sl. No	Phonemes	Examples
1	/ei/	Make - /meik/
2	/ɒi/	Boy - /bɒi/
3	/ai/	High -/hai/
4	/uə/	Sure - /ʃuə/
5	/iə/	Here -/hiə/
6	/eə/	Care -/keə/
7	/au/	Cow- /kau/
8	/əu/	So- /səu/

Semi vowels are consonants, but they appear to be combinations of vowels. Phonetically, they are like vowels, but phonologically, they are like consonants. In other words, they function like consonants in a syllable. The semi-vowels appear to be consonants because there is some sort of blockage or hindrance in the mouth while pronouncing these sounds. They are preceded by the indefinite article *a* in sentences. For instance, the semivowel /j/ may be understood as a combination of phonemes /i/ and /ʌ/. Likewise, the sound /w/ may be understood as a combination of /u/ and /ʌ/. Often these two sounds are called **approximants** because the pronunciation of these sounds causes a certain amount of approximation of the vocal cords. There is a sufficient gap between the articulators for the air to escape without causing friction between them. Semivowels are called **open approximants** while fricatives are called **closed approximants**.

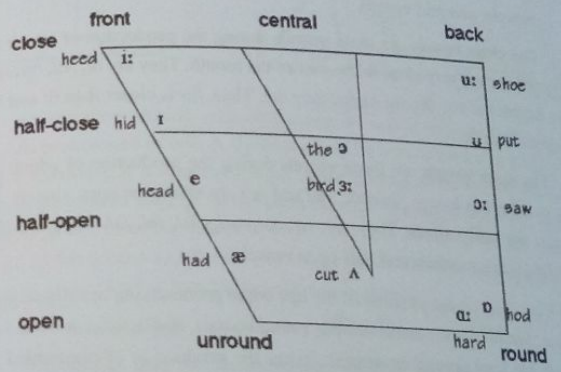
Though /r/ also is a semivowel, it is often known by another name as **trill or roll** as this sound expresses the quality of trill, particularly in the Scottish language. With intermittent closures, trills are produced. Several times, the articulators contact each other, resulting in intermittent tapping. In this way, the tongue tip taps several times against the back of the alveolar ridge, or the uvula taps against the tongue back, so that air can only pass intermittently between the articulators. The /r/ sound in *red* /red/ is an example of a trill sound. On the other hand, the /r/ sound in *very* /veri/ is an example of **tap sound** as it occurs between two vowels. Here the active articulator moves towards the passive articulator to make a momentary contact and gets back

to its initial position of rest. In the case of tap sounds, there is only one tap whereas a series of taps occur in the production of trill /r/. Hence tap sounds are also called **one-tap-trills**.

Classification of Vowels

Vowels may be classified based on three criteria.

1. Depending on the part of the tongue that is raised during the pronunciation of vowels.
2. Depending on the height to which the tongue is raised.
3. Depending on the position of the lips while pronouncing the vowels.



I. Depending on the part of the tongue raised during the vowels' pronunciation, they can be classified into back vowels, front vowels, and central vowels.

Front vowels can be generated by raising the front of the tongue toward the hard palate. In other words, front vowels are those whose creation causes the tongue's front to be lifted toward the hard palate. Front vowels are **/i/, /i: /, /e/, /æ/.**

Back vowels can be generated by raising the back of the tongue toward the soft palate. That indicates that the rear of the tongue is lifted toward the

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soft palate while producing vowels with a back sound. Back vowels include **/ɑ: /, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /u /, /u: /.**

The middle of the tongue can also be raised toward the area of the mouth's roof where the hard palate and soft palate converge to generate vowels. They are known as **central vowels**. In other words, the central vowels are those whose creation causes the tongue's centre to be lifted toward the junction of the hard and soft palates. The core vowels are**/ə/, /3:/, / ʌ /.**

II. Depending on the heights to which the tongue is raised during the pronunciation of vowels, they may be classified into close vowels, open vowels, and mid vowels.

The **close vowels** are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is raised very close to the roof of the mouth. They are **/i/, /i:/, /u/, /u:/.** The longer the vowels, the closer they are. Thus, /i:/ is closer than /i/ and /u:/ is closer than /u/.

The **open vowels** are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is kept as low as possible. **/æ/** and **/ɑ:/** are said to be open vowels. All the rest are **mid vowels**. They are: **/e/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /3:/, /ə/, /ʌ/.** They are also called half-close vowels and half-open vowels.

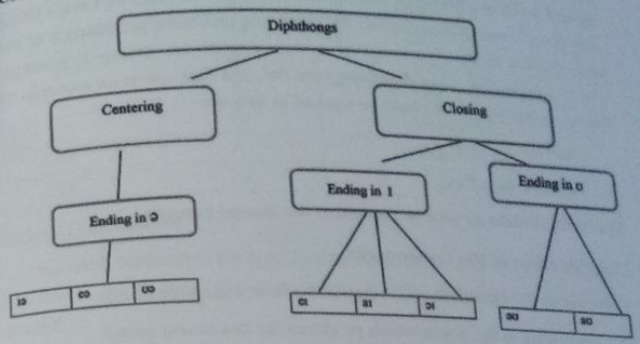
III. Depending on the position of the lips while pronouncing the vowel, they are classified into spread vowels, round vowels, and neutral vowels. The lips are kept spread or neutral during the production of unrounded or spread vowels. The following are examples:

/i:/, /i/, /e/, /æ/, /a:/

They are called spread vowels because they are pronounced with a spreading of the lips. The **round vowels** are **/o/, / ɔ:/, /u/, /u:/.** These are sounds produced by a rounding of the lips.

The remaining three sounds are said to be **neutral vowels** because the lips assume a neutral position during their pronunciation neither spreading nor rounding. They are **/3:/, /ə/, /ʌ/.**

Classification of Diphthongs



As you have already seen diphthongs are combinations of two vowel sounds pronounced as one. A diphthong may be best defined as a glide or to say a diphthong is a sound produced by the gliding of the tongue from one vowel position to another. In the pronunciation of a diphthong like /ai/, the tongue glides from the vowel /a/ to /i/. The first vowel shows the starting point of the tongue and the second vowel shows the direction in which the tongue glides. Diphthongs are therefore indicated by

arrows (——→) and cones (▲).

Diphthongs may be classified into closing diphthongs and centring diphthongs. Closing diphthongs are those that end in a closed vowel like /i/ or /u/. There are five closing diphthongs as follows:

/ai/, /ei/, /oi/, /au/, /əu/

Centering diphthongs are those diphthongs that end with the central vowel schwa /ə/. There are three centring diphthongs, **/iə/, /uə/, /eə/,**as shown below.

Diphthongs could also be classified into falling diphthongs and rising diphthongs. This is based on the prominence received by the two elements in a diphthong. The greater prominence may be caused either by greater inherent sonority or by the stronger stress received by the two elements in

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the diphthong. When the beginning of a diphthong is more prominent than the end we have a falling diphthong, and in the reverse case, we have a rising diphthong (lesser prominence to the beginning and more prominence to the end). Almost all the diphthongs of modern English are falling diphthongs. The two important rising diphthongs are /iə/, and /uə/. /ai/ is an example of falling diphthong which could be marked as follows:

↘Five- /f↘aiv/

↗Here -/h↗iə/

The rising diphthong may be marked as the second example.

Classification of the Consonants

Consonants are classified according to the three following norms.

1. According to the organ which produces the consonant sound.
2. According to how the organs articulate them or according to how they are made.
3. According to the condition of the vocal cords while pronouncing them.

According to the condition of the vocal cords, they are classified into voiced and voiceless consonants.

Voiced Consonants

If the vocal cords are brought together in such a way that there is a vibration of the vocal cords during the pronunciation of a consonant sound, such a phoneme is called a voiced consonant. The glottis is closed in the production of voiced sounds.

Sl no.	Phonemes	Examples
1	/b/	Bed- /bed/
2	/d/	Dog- /dɒg/
3	/g/	Gun -/gʌn/
4	/dʒ/	Justice- /dʒʌstɪs/
5	/v/	Voice- /vois/
6	/ð/	That- /ðæt/
7	/z/	Zero-/ziərəu/

8	/ʒ/	Measure- /meʒə/
9	/m/	Moon- /mu:n/
10	/n/	Knot- /knot/
11	/ŋ/	King -/kiŋ/
12	/l/	Love -/lʌv/
13	/j/	Young-/jʌŋ/
14	/r/	Rain- /rein/
15	/w/	Won - /wʌn/

Voiceless Consonants

If the vocal cords are wide apart during the pronunciation of a consonant (the glottis is wide open), the consonant is called voiceless or breathed consonant.

A voiceless sound may simply be called breath and a voiced sound a voice. Often there are pairs of English consonants of which one is voiceless, and the other is voiced. But we may note that there are only nine voiceless consonants of which only eight had pairs.

Sl no.	Phonemes	Examples
1	/p/	Pitch- /pɪtʃ/
2	/t/	Tooth- /tu:θ/
3	/k/	Kite - /kait/
4	/tʃ/	Church- /tʃɜ:tʃ/
5	/f/	Fool - /fu:l/
6	/θ/	Think -/θiŋk/
7	/s/	Sea -/si:/
8	/ʃ/	Shampoo- /ʃæmpu:/
9	/h/	Hay - /hei/

Total consonant sounds which have pairs =16

Voiceless	p t k	tʃ	f θ s ʃ h			
Voiced	b d g	dʒ	v ð z ʒ	m n ŋ	l	j r w

As shown in the above picture nine are voiceless and fifteen are voiced consonants.

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Paired voiced sound =8
Paired voiceless sound =8

According to how the speech organs articulate or the manner of articulation the consonants they may be classified into six groups as:

1. Plosives 2. Affricates 3. Fricative
4. Nasal 5. Lateral 6. Semi vowels

Below is a table that will help you understand the details.

	Plosives	Affricates	Fricative	Nasal	Lateral	Semi Vowels
Voiceless	p t k	tʃ	f θ s ʃ h			
Voiced	b d g	dʒ	v ð z ʒ	m n ŋ	l	j r w

Plosives

In the production of plosives, a complete stricture occurs when the active and passive articulators come into contact and the air releases suddenly. In other words, during plosives, there is a stop/blocking of the airflow followed by a release.

Blockage at the lips - **/p/, /b/**
Blockage at the teeth ridge- **/t/, /d/**
Blockage at the velum -**/k/, /g/**

Plosives are also known as stops. Stops means stopped consonants.

Affricates

Affricates are consonant sounds pronounced with complete closure and a slow release. They are, combinations of a plosive and a fricative. In English there are only two affricates: **/tʃ/,** and **/dʒ/.** /tʃ/ is a combination of plosive /t and fricative /ʃ/ whereas /dʒ/ is a combination of plosive /d/ and fricative /ʒ.

Fricatives

Fricatives are sounds in whose pronunciation the articulating organs are brought together in such a way as to cause some sort of friction. There are nine distinct fricatives in English. They are **/f/, /θ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /h/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/.**

Fricatives are also called close approximants because here the articulating organs come near or approximate each other thereby closing the air passage. During the pronunciation of fricatives lower lips are combined with upper teeth.

Nasal

When nasal sounds are pronounced, the nasal passage is open, and the oral passage is blocked. Air, from the lungs, escapes partly through the nasal cavity and partially through the mouth.

Eg: **/n/, /m/, /ŋ/**

Lateral

A lateral is a sound produced with the airstream passing along the sides of the tongue. A Lateral consonant is articulated with a structure or complete closure in the centre of the vocal tracks. The sides of the tongue are lowered and the air escapes along the sides of the tongue without any friction. There is only one lateral consonant in English which is **/l/.**

Semi Vowels

As we have already seen, semi vowels are sounds pronounced with the articulating organs approximating each other (brought very near to each other) with open approximation very much as in the case of the pronunciation of the vowels. They are therefore called open approximants. The air passage remains open as in the case of the vowels. The semivowels are **/j/, /r/, /w/.**

Air may occasionally travel between the active and passive articulators due to the stricture. The active articulator vibrates against the passive in this type of stricture, known as intermittent closure. Trills or rolled consonants are the sounds made during this period. **/r/** is a trill sound.

Thirdly, consonants are classified according to their articulating organs. Below is a table showing how consonants are classified based on their articulating organs.

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Consonants' Classification	Bilabial	Labio Dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post Alveolar	Palato Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosives	p b			t d				k g	
Affricates						tʃ dʒ			
Fricatives		f v	θ ð	s z		ʃ ʒ			h
Nasals	m			n				ŋ	
Laterals				l					
Semi Vowels	w				r		j		

Bilabial

Bilabial consonants are those produced with the help of both lips. They are **/p/, /b/, /m/, /w/**. While pronouncing this, the lower lip is brought close to the upper one.

Labio dental

The labiodental consonants, **/f/** and **/v/** are produced when the lower lip is raised against the upper teeth.

Dental

Dental consonants are those sounds that are pronounced with the tip of the tongue (active articulator) raised against the upper teeth (passive articulator). They are **/θ/** and **/ð/.**

Alveolar

The Latin word 'alveolus' means teeth ridge or gum. The alveolar sounds are those pronounced with the tip of the tongue raiscd against the upper teeth ridge.

Eg: **/t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /n/, /l/.**

Post alveolar

It is that consonant sound pronounced with the tongue raised against that part of the roof of the mouth just behind the teeth ridge. These consonant sounds are produced through the active articulation of the tongue tip and the passive articulation of the teeth ridge. **/r/** is a post alveolar sound.

Palato alveolar

These sounds are pronounced with the tongue raised against that part of the roof of the mouth where the hard palate and the teeth ridge joined together. They are articulated when the tongue tips and blades touch the teeth' ridges.

Eg: **/tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/.**

Palatal

A palatal consonant is the one pronounced with the tongue against the hard palate. The front of the tongue acts as the active articulator and the hard palate is the passive articulator.

Eg: **/j/**

Velar

Velar means soft palate. Velar sounds are those pronounced with the tongue raised towards the velum or soft palate. The back of the tongue is the active articulator, and the soft palate is the passive articulator.

Eg: **/k/, /g/, /ŋ/.**

Glottal

Glottal is a sound that gets pronounced in the glottis. Vocal cords are active articulators. **/h/** is the glottal sound.

Pronunciation of suffixes 's' and 'es'

The plural of a noun or the possessive case of a noun or the third person singular maker of a verb is pronounced as /s/, /z/, /iz/.

The following are a few simple guidelines regarding how the plural makers and the third person singular makers are pronounced.

1. The suffix 's' or 'es' is pronounced /s/ when the root of the word ends in a voiceless consonant other than /s/, /tʃ/, or /ʃ/.

   Eg: Caps – /kæps/
   Cats- /kæts/
   Cooks- /kuks/

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Laughs- /la:fs/
Paths- /pa:θs/

2. The suffix 's' or 'es' is pronounced as /z/ if the root ends in a voiced sound other than /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/.

Eg: Bulbs- /bʌlbz/
Nuns - /nʌnz/
Bags - /bægz/
Boys - /boiz/
Loves - /lʌvz/
Loathes - /ləuðz/
Names - /neimz/
Goes - /gəuz/
Plays - /pleiz/
Keys - /ki:z/

3. The suffix 's' or 'es' is pronounced /iz/ if the root ends in /s/, /ʧ/, /ʃ/, /z/, /ʒ/, and /dʒ/.

Eg: Passes- /pa:siz/
Roses- /rəuziz/
Bushes – /buʃiz/
Benches – /benʧiz/
Edges – /eʤiz/
Rouges - /ru:ʒiz/

Pronunciation of the Past Tense Maker 'd' or 'ed'

The past tense maker 'd' or 'ed' is pronounced as /t/, /d/, and /id/. The choice depends upon the sounds with which the present tense form ends. The following rules are to be remembered in this context.

1. If the present tense ends in a voiceless consonant other than the /t/ sound, the past tense maker 'd' or 'ed' will be pronounced as /t/.

Eg: Capped -/kæpt/
Cooked -/kukt/
Thatched -/θætʃt/
Laughed -/la:ft/

Passed - /pa:st/
Pushed -/puʃt/
Watched -/wɒtʃt/
Clicked - /klikt/

2. If the present tense ends in a voiced sound other than /d/, the past tense maker is pronounced as /d/.

Eg: Rubbed – /rʌbd/
Bagged – /bægd/
Judged – /dʒʌdʒd/
Loved – /lʌvd/
Loathed – /ləuðd/
Pulled – /puld/
Allowed – /əlaud/
Annoyed - /ənoid/

3. When the present tense of a word ends in either /t/ or /d/ sound, its past tense is pronounced as /id/.

Eg: Wanted – /wontid/
Wounded – /wu:ndid/
Mended – /mendid/
Sounded- /saundid/
Instructed- /instrʌktid/
Ill-treated- /iltri:tid/

Linking-r

In our hypothetical speech, the words would be separate units arranged in sequence next to one another. It is common for words to be linked together in connected speech. Most commonly, linking and intrusive 'r's are used to connect words in a sequence. When a word ends with the letter 'r' which is not pronounced when the word is uttered in isolation, and the next word begins with a vowel with no pause in between the two words in the connected speech the final letter 'r' of the first word is pronounced. This is called 'linking-r'.

Eg: The words butter - /bʌtə/
Father - /fa:ðə/
Far - /fa:/

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Near - /niə/ etc. are pronounced as above, which means the final /r/ sound remains silent when these words are pronounced in isolation. But expressions like butter and jam, father and mother, far away and near enough are pronounced as follows.

butter and jam	-/bʌtər ən dʒæm/
father and mother	-/fa:ðər ən mʌðə/
far away and near enough	- /fa:r əwei ən niər inʌf/

In the previous example, the word 'away' ends with a vowel, and the next word begins with a vowel. In other words, two vowel sounds occur together where the final vowel letter of one word is followed by another vowel of the following word. In such cases, an additional 'r' is introduced in between the vowels. This is an example of intrusive-r.

Intrusive-r

In the speech of some people, we might hear an /r/ sound at word boundaries even when there is no 'r' in the spelling; that is if one word ends with a vowel and the next word immediate to that begins with another vowel with no pause in between the two an /r/ sound is introduced between the two words. The use of such an r is called 'intrusive-r'.

Eg: law and order -/lɔ:ɾ ən ɔ:də/
Idea of it - /aidiə ɾ əv it/
Drama and music- /dra:mə r ən mju:zik/

Morphology

'Morph' is a Greek word that means shape. In linguistics, 'morph' refers to 'words and their shapes'. Words change their shapes according to the addition of inflectional morphemes and derivational morphemes (s, es, d, ed, ing), and derivational morphemes (ment, ous, ion, or, er, y, etc.).

A morpheme is a minimal, meaningful unit in the structure of a language. Thus, the word 'cats' contains two such units that are 'cat' and 's'. Here cat is known as a free morpheme because it doesn't depend on any other element for existence. But 's' in this case is said to be a bound morpheme as it is dependent on the free morpheme 'cat' in this context. Some linguists have described morphemes in terms of phonemes. They describe a morpheme as a

meaningful phoneme or a series of phonemes that cannot be further divided without destruction or change of meaning in a particular language.

Eg: Boys -boy +s
Desks- desk +s
Benches- bench +s

The word 'unwisely' consists of three morphemes, un—wise—ly. Here 'un' and 'ly' are bound morphemes and wise is a free morpheme. A morpheme may consist of only a single morpheme but it must have some meaning. For example, /z/ in 'sings' is a morpheme.

Allomorph

It is a contextual or positional variant of a morpheme. The plural morpheme 's' and 'es' have three allomorphs, and three realizations according to different phonetic contexts.

Eg: dogs -/dogz/
Benches- /bentʃiz/
Cats - /kæts/

Similarly, the past tense morpheme 'd' and 'ed' has got three allomorphs namely /t/, /d/, /id/,

Eg: Capped - /kæpt/
Bagged - /bægd/
Wanted -/wɒntid/

Morphology is the study of morphemes and their combinations in words such as inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes, bound morphemes, free morphemes, and alike.

Phoneme, Allophone & Phonology

The phoneme is the minimal and distinct sound unit of a language. It is the most basic and smallest element in the expression system of a language. The term *minimal* means that it cannot be broken down, while *distinctive* means that, when a phoneme is substituted with another, the meaning changes. The word 'phoneme' comes from the Greek word 'phone' which means sound. Every language has many vowel and consonant sounds forming the sound

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system of that language. These sounds can be grouped into a limited number of distinctive sound units and these sound units are called the phonemes of that language. phonemic symbols are enclosed within slant lines.

Eg: /p/, /h/, /m/, /v/.

When /k/ is substituted by /p/ in the word *kin* it becomes *pin*. A different word with a different meaning is formed with this substitution. Thus /p/ and /k/ are phonemes in **contrastive distribution**./k/ and /p/ in *sky* and *spy* are in contrastive distribution. Certain substitutions will not make a meaning change. For instance, in the English language, voiceless plosives occur in both aspirated and unaspirated forms. Aspirated and unaspirated voiceless plosives are said to be in **complementary distributions** as their substitution does not change the meaning. Aspirated voiceless plosives occur first in the words. The meaning will not change if we begin the words with unaspirated sounds, but native speakers will find it strange.Aspirated /ph/ in *pin* and unaspirated /p/ in *spin* are examples. One can substitute the /ph/ with /p/ in *pin* as it does not change the meaning.

The phonemes could also be identified by discovering the number of minimal pairs in a language. a **minimal pair** is a set of two words, which differ from each other in one sound. Sometimes initial sounds may differ as in *seat* /si:t/ and *neat* /ni:t/. *Seat* /si:t/ and *sat* /sæt/ are examples of words where meddle vowel sound is different. *Faith* /feɪθ/ and *fail* /feɪl/ are a set of minimal pair where the last sounds are different.

Allophone is a positional variant of a phoneme. It is a phonemic variation that will not bring a meaning change. The phonemic variation is a result of its position and the phonetic characteristics of neighbouring sounds. For example, consider the words *fill* and *full*. /l/ in *fill* and /l/ in *full* are two different allophones of the phoneme /l/. Similarly, /k/ in *keep* and /k/ in *cook* are two varieties of the phoneme /k/. /k/ sound in *keep* has a front resonance or the front articulation because it stands near the front vowel /i:/. Similarly, /l/ sound in *fill* has a front articulation or front resonance because it is near the front vowel /i/. In *cook* /k/ sound has a back articulation because it is near the back vowel /u/. Similarly, /l/ sound in *full* has a back articulation or back resonance because it stands near the back vowel /u/. Other examples may

have in pairs like root and rat, part and pet, foot and feet etc. In other words, the sounds that can be grouped into a single phoneme are called morphemes of that phoneme or allophones of that phoneme.

Phonology

It is the selection and organization of sounds in a particular language. To put it in simple terms, phonology indicates the study of phonemes.

Morphophoeneme is the study of morphemes and phonemes and their mutual correspondence. It is the study of morphology and phonology together.

Eg:The plural morph 's' or 'es' have different phonetic realizations like /s/, /z/, /iz/. This happens in the field of phonology so morphology and phonology overlap here.

Morphological Conditioning

In linguistics, a certain phenomenon is a conditioned one when it occurs under the fulfillment of certain requirements or certain conditions. We may be able to predict a certain phenomenon when we see that certain conditions are fulfilled. In linguistics, we can identify two types of conditioning namely phonological conditioning and morphological conditioning.

Phonological conditioning

When the form of an allomorph is directly dependent upon an adjacent phoneme that allomorph is said to be phonologically conditioned. The English plural morphemes provide very good examples of phonological conditioning. The phonetic manifestation of the plural morphemes of nouns having regular plurals is determined by the sound that precedes the plural inflection. In other words, the plural phonetic manifestations such as /s/, /z/, and /iz/ are phonetically conditioned allomorphs of the English plural morpheme 's' or 'es'. This phenomenon could be presented as follows.

A. The allomorph /s/ occurs when the singular form of the concerned noun ends in any voiceless sound other than the allomorph appears when the singular form of the concerned noun ends in any voiced sound other than /s/, /ʧ/, /ʃ/.

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B. When the singular of the concerned noun ends in any voiced sound other than the sounds like /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, the allomorph /z/ appears.

C. When the singular of the noun ends in any of the sound as /s/, /tʃ/, /ʃ/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/ the allomorph /ɪz/ appears.

In all the above cases the factors responsible for the proper plural forms are the preceding phonemes. So, we say that the English plural morpheme 's' or 'es' is phonologically conditioned. The same is the case with the English past tense morphemes 'd' or 'ed'.

Morphological or Lexical Conditioning

Some allomorphs are morphologically conditioned. In such cases, the choice of a particular allomorph may be determined by a specific morpheme rather than by a phonetic environment. For example, the plural of the word 'ox' is 'oxen' while plurals of other words that are similar in appearance are formed in the usual manner with phonological conditioning.

Eg: Words like boxes, foxes, axes, etc.

This peculiarity of the word 'ox' is caused by the morphological peculiarity of the morpheme 'ox'. So, the allomorph 'en' is morphologically conditioned whereas in the case of other words like boxes, foxes, taxes, etc. the plural morphemes are phonologically conditioned. There are other examples of similar lexical phenomena which may be explicit in words like children, brethren, etc., and the past tense form of go (went).

The Syllable

In a linguistic system, phoneme forms the basic unit. The combination of phonemes creates the next higher unit in the system. Such units are called syllables. A syllable consists of one or more phonemes and a word is made up of one or more syllables. The syllable is the minimum unit of pronunciation pronounced with a single effort of the lungs. For example, the word *calculation* consists of four syllables which presupposes four efforts of the lungs. A syllable is the minimum rhythmic unit of the spoken language. It often consists of a vowel or a syllabic consonant which may or may not be followed and preceded by a consonant or consonants. The vowel in a syllable is called the **nucleus** or the **central element** of it and the consonants are

known as **optional** elements. The consonant that begins a syllable is called **releasing consonant or onset** and the consonant that ends a syllable is called an **arresting consonant or coda**. A word, which has only one syllable is called a **monosyllabic word**. The words like eye- /aɪ/, am /æm/, cup - /kʌp/, are monosyllabic words. The words with two syllables are called **disyllabic words.** Open - /əʊ-pən/, exam- /ɪg-zæm/, landing - /læn-dɪŋ/, sudden-/sʌ-dn/ are disyllabic words. Minister - /mɪ-nɪ-stə/, examine - /ɪg-ˈzæ-mɪn/, principal - /prɪn-sɪ-pəl-/ are **trisyllabic words** with three syllables. Examination - /ɪg-zæ-mɪ-ˈneɪ-ʃən/ is an example of a **polysyllabic word** which has more than three syllables. Relationship - /rɪ-leɪ-ʃən-ʃɪp/ is another example of it.

If a syllable ends in a vowel, it is called **open syllable**. If a syllable ends in a consonant it is called a **closed syllable**. Eye /aɪ/ and all /ɔːl/ are examples of open and closed syllables, respectively. Sometimes vowel alone can be a syllable. For example, the first syllable in the word *ability* (ə-bi-lə-ti) consists of a vowel alone. While transcribing a word, a syllable division is marked by a hyphen. Often one vowel and one or more consonants together constitute a syllable. For example, take the word *technique* (tek-niːk). Both the syllables in the word have one vowel and two consonants each. But there are instances where syllables are composed only of consonants as well.

Eg: Cotton -/kɒ-tn/
Chasm - /ˈkæ-zm/

In these examples, the second syllables do not have the presence of a vowel in them. The second element in such syllables is called syllabic consonants (/n/ and /m/).

Syllabic Consonants

A syllabic consonant is a voiced consonant that alone makes a syllable without any accompanying vowel. In other words, a syllabic consonant is a voiced consonant that is the nucleus of a syllable constituted only of consonants. Generally, vowels are nuclei because they are essential parts of a syllable. But there are exceptions like syllabic consonants. For the completion of meaning, vowels are essential. If there are no vowels, syllabic consonants are needed. Since a vowel is the nucleus of the syllable, it is also known as the central element. The nucleus is the central obligatory element of a syllable and the releasing and arresting consonants are marginal elements.

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Syllable structure

The nucleus of a syllable is symbolised as 'V' (vowel) and the marginal elements are symbolised as 'C' (consonant). Therefore, the syllable /kæt/ cat- has the structure CVC. The vowel /æ/ is its nucleus and /k/ and /t/ are on either side of the nucleus. There is thus a releasing consonant, the nucleus and an arresting consonant.

Some syllables have only the nucleus.

Eg: I -/aɪ/---V
Eye -/aɪ/---V
Oh! -/əu/---V

The first syllables of words like honest (ɒ-nist), earnest (3:-nist), order (ɔ:də), etc. have only one speech sound and each one of these first syllables has the structure 'V'.

Some syllables have a nucleus and an arresting consonant.

Eg: am- /æm/---VC
All-/ɔ:l/----VC
Up- /ʌp/----VC

Certain syllables have a releasing consonant and a nucleus but no arresting consonant.

Eg: be -/bi:/---CV
She- /ʃi:/---CV
So- /səu/---CV

In most syllables, the nucleus is a vowel, and the marginal elements are consonants. However, there are some syllables in which the nucleus is a consonant. Consider the following words:

Kettle -/ke-tl/
Cotton -/ kɒ-tn/
Sudden -/sʌ-dn/
Ridden -/ri-dn/

The second syllables of these words have two sounds each, the voiceless or voiced alveolar plosives and the /n/ or /l/. These are examples of consonants

occupying the central nucleus positions of syllables. As we have already noted, these phonemes are called syllabic consonants and while marking their syllabic structure they need to be represented as 'V'. Therefore, the structure of the second syllable of each of the words listed above is CV.

Consonant Cluster

A sequence of consonants occur at the beginning or the end of a syllable is called a consonant cluster. English phonology permits up to three consonants to start a syllable and up to four consonants to end the syllable.

Texts- /teksts/
Spleen- /spli:n/

In the word spleen, we have only one syllable and has three consonants to begin it. Similarly, in the word texts, we have one syllable which has four consonants to end it. Such a group of consonants coming together is called a consonant cluster. Given below are some other examples:

Bands - /bændz/ CVCCC
Tempts - /tempts/ CVCCCC

Consonant Cluster and Abutting Consonants

Consider the word *remember*. The phonemes /m/ and /b/ of the word remember are not a consonant cluster because these two speech sounds belong to two different syllables. Such a sequence of consonants that do not form a consonant cluster is called abutting consonants. Usually, syllable division is marked with a hyphen (-). But it is not always possible to mark syllable division in orthographic representations, and in such cases, phonetic representation is needed.

Suprasegmental Features

Vowels and consonants are the **segmental phonemes** or **primary phonemes** of a language. The combination of phonemes produces syllables, words, phrases, and sentences. A speaker makes use of a wide range of tones and voices during the speech. Such speech features are higher than sound segments and are known as **suprasegmental features**. Stress, pitch, intonation, rhythm, and juncture are suprasegmental features or **secondary**

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in English in which word accents depend upon whether the words are used as nouns or adjectives or as verbs. If these words are used as nouns or adjectives their accent will fall on the first syllable and if they are used as verbs the stress may fall on the second syllable. The following table illustrates it.

Words	*Noun/Adjective*	*Verb*
Absent	ˈæbsənt	æbˈsent
Concert	ˈkɒnsət	kənˈsɜːt
Conduct	ˈkɒndʌkt	kənˈdʌkt
Contract	ˈkɒntrækt	kənˈtrækt
Desert	ˈdezət	diˈzɜːt
Digest	ˈ daɪdʒest	daɪˈdʒest
Import	ˈɪmpɔːt	ɪmˈpɔːt
Permit	ˈpɜːmɪt	pəˈmɪt
Present	ˈprez(ə)nt	priˈzent
Produce	ˈprɒdjuːs	prəˈdjuːs
Convict	ˈkɒnvikt	kənˈvɪkt
Project	ˈprɒdʒekt	prəˈdʒekt

Accent on compound words

By a compound word we mean a word composed of two separable words. There may or may not be a hyphen in between the two elements forming the compound word. In English, the primary accent falls on one of the two elements in most compound words. The most common type in English is the first of the two elements receiving the primary accent.

Eg: Air-raid - /ˈeə-reid/
Black bird - /ˈblæk bɜːd/
Lifeboat - /ˈlaifbəut/
Card board - /ˈkɑːdbɔːd/
Hair brush - /ˈheəbrʌʃ/
Coal man - /ˈkəulmən/
Foot Print - /ˈfʊtprɪnt/
Blackberry - /ˈblækb(ə)rɪ/
Teapot - /ˈtiːpɒt/
Mailbag -/ˈmeɪlbæg/

However, there are a few compound words with 'ever' and 'self' as the second element in which the second element receives the primary accent.

Eg: Herself -/hɜːˈself/
Myself - /maiˈself/
Himself - /hɪmˈself /
Whatever -/wɒtˈevə/
Whoever -/huːˈevə/
Whenever-/wenˈevə/

There are other compound words in which both the elements are accented, but the primary accent falls on the second element.

Eg: Afternoon - /ˌɑːftəˈnuːn/
Bad-tempered -/ˌbædˈtempəd/
Country-house -/ˌkʌntrɪˈhaʊs/
Good-looking -/ ˌgʊdˈlʊkɪŋ/

ə (Schwa)

Unaccented syllables in a word often get a vague sound, some sort of an indeterminate sound, and that sound is pronounced as a schwa.

Eg: Ago - /əgəu/
Bishop - /biʃəp/
Mother - /mʌðə/
Literature - /litrətʃə/
Ability - /əbiləti/

3: (Schwa Long)

Orthographic ir-er- ur-or is often pronounced with a long Schwa sound.

Eg: bird - /bɜːd/
Term -/tɜːm/
Turn - /tɜːn/
Word - /wɜːd/

There are a few useful rules or practical guidelines for word accentual patterns in English as follows.

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I. Words with weak prefixes always take their accent on the root.

II. Inflectional suffixes like 'es' 'ed' and 'ing' does not affect the accent.

III. The derivational affixes like 'age', 'ance', 'en', 'er', 'ess', 'ful', 'hood', 'ice', 'ish', 'ive', 'ment', 'ly', 'less', 'ness', 'or', 'ship', 'ter', 'zen' do not normally affect the accent.

IV. The words ending in 'ion' take the primary accent on the penultimate syllable.

V. The words ending in 'ic', 'ical', 'ically', 'ious', 'ial', and 'ially' take the primary accent on the syllable preceding the suffix.

VI. The words ending in 'ity' take the primary accent on the antepenultimate syllable which is the third syllable from the end.

Strong and weak forms

Certain words in connected speech will become more prominent than the rest. Often these words with greater prominence or emphasis are the **form class words** or **content words**. They are also called full words. Nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs are the bony parts of a sentence, and they form elements in the composition of an utterance. Those words which often become unimportant or unstressed in a sentence are the function words or structure words. Articles (a, an, the), conjunctions (and, as, but), prepositions (at, for, from, to, of, etc.) pronouns (he, she, her, his, we, our, it), auxiliaries (am, is, are, have, has, do, does, did, shall, will, was, were, etc.) come under function words.

Many words in English have two or more quantitative and qualitative patterns depending upon whether they are accented or not. When these words are accented or when they are pronounced in isolation, strong forms of these words are used. When they are unaccented the weak forms are used. The following are the weak and strong forms of the popular structure words or function words.

Orthography	Strong form(s)	Weak form(s)
the	ðiː	ðɪ, ðə
a/an	eɪ, an	ə, ən
his	hɪz	ɪz

her	hɜː	hɜ, ɜ, ɜ
you	juː	jʊ, jə
she	ʃiː	ʃi
them	ðem	ðəm, əm
us	ʌs	əs, s
from	frɒm	frəm, fəm, fm
there	ðeə	ðə
and	ænd	ənd, ən, nd, n
that	ðæt	ðət
Do	duː	də, d
does	dʌz	dəz, z

The combination words often get their stress on the first element and therefore the second element assumes weak forms. Very often, contracted forms occur in connected speech. Following are some such forms that might often come in connected speech.

As a side effect of word stress and sentence stress, the neighbouring words and syllables may often suffer:

(a) Weakening
(b) Elision and
(c) Attrition

By weakening, words assume weak forms and the syllables become weak with the weak phoneme /ə/

Eg: Opportunity -/ˌɒpəˈtjuːnəti/

Words may suffer elision or disappearance. In the following words /e/ sound gets disappeared.

Eg: Different -/difrənt/
Every -/evri/

Words may also suffer attrition or a sort of wearing away.

Eg: interest - /intrəst/

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Rhythm

Rhythm is an important feature of English-connected speech. In the English language, we have a stress-timed rhythm. Stressed words are occurring at regular time intervals. Rhythm in a language refers to the periodic recurrence of sound patterns at roughly regular intervals of time in connected speech. The aspect of keeping regular time intervals is called *isochrony*. So, we can conclude that English is an **isochronous** language. Most Indian languages have a syllable-timed rhythm where the syllables whether stressed or unstressed tend to occur at regular time intervals. In the following sentence,

'This is the 'letter that 'Mary has 'written.

In this sentence, the accented syllables *this, letter, Mary,* and *written* occur at regular time intervals irrespective of the number of unaccented syllables between them. The unaccented syllables include *is, the, that,* and *has* in the above sentence.

Intonation

The variation which takes place in the pitch of the voice is known as intonation. **Pitch** is the various levels of speech. Sometimes there is a rise in pitch and sometimes there is a fall in pitch. It may also remain level, high, or low at other times. The vibration frequency of the vocal cords decides the pitch of the voice. In other words, the Pitch of a voice is the rate of vibration of the vocal cords during the pronunciation of a sound. The higher pitch variation is directly proportional to the fast vibration of vocal cords. In short, intonation is the change of pitch and stress in the utterances of speakers. Thus, an utterance-bound pitch is called Intonation. The change in pitch is called **tone**. There is a **static tone** for syllables that have a level tone, such as high or low, and a **kinetic tone** for ones with a change in pitch. Hence, static tone indicates an accented syllable on a level pitch and kinetic tone refers to the accented syllable on which a pitch change takes place.

In connected speech, words get divided into different groups. During the speech, one makes pauses that produce manageable groups of words. Such groups of words that get uttered in a single breath are called a **breath**

group.The breath group may or may not correspond to written phrases and sentences and may include several further groups of words uttered with the same tone. Such a further group is called a **tone group** or **sense group**. The sentence *I am a student* is an example for the breath group because it will be said without any pause in between. At the same time, the sentence *the person whom I met, is a doctor* has a pause in the middle of the sentence. This is an example of a sense group. **Tonality** is the feature of dividing the sentence into groups based on importance. The most prominent syllable in a tone group is called the **tonic syllable** or **nucleus**.Tonicity is the choice of a syllable on which there is a pitch variation. Using the speaker's tone, one can determine whether the utterance is a statement, a question, a command, or a request. The first accented syllable in a tone group is called the **head** of the tone group. The syllable or syllables preceding the head is known as **pre-head**, and the syllables between the head and the nucleus are **body** of the sentence. The term **tail** is used to indicate the syllables after the nucleus.

There are four major pitch changes in English-connected speech.

1. **The Falling tone—A falling tone occurs when the pitch drops from an upper plane to a lower one. It is used in the following situations:**

In ordinary statements

I am a ↘ student.

She is ↘ dancing.

In Wh-questions

How old are↘ you?

Where is your↘ mother?

In emphatic Yes/No questions

Jenni eats cheese, doesn't ↘ she?

The bus stop's over there, isn't ↘it?

In commands

Clean your ↘room.

Complete these by ↘tomorrow.

In exclamations

We ↘won!

You are ↘adorable!

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II. **The Rising tone- Rising tone occurs when the pitch moves from a lower to higher level. It is used in the following situations:**

In incomplete utterances

If u ↗come,

I could not do ↗homework

In requests

Could I ask you to take me↗ home?

Can you tell me what ↗happened?

In polite expressions

Could you please switch off the ↗phone?

Would you mind opening the ↗door ?

In non-emphatic Yes/No questions

Can you ↗ come?

Has she↗ arrived?

In listing out various things

She practices dance on ↗Tuesdays, ↗Thursdays, ↗Fridays and ↗Sundays.

III. **The Fall-Rise tone-There is a movement from a higher pitch to a lower pitch, then back again.Usually, this tone conveys an implied meaning. When we are unsure of something, we use it at the end of our statements. It is used**

In requesting information

Could you help me find out the methods to solve↘↗ this issue?

In contradictions

He is ↘↗ smart. (I: implies that though he is smart, he is not dependable or he is not right or something.)

IV. **The Rise-Fall tone-There is a movement from a lower pitch to a higher pitch, then back again. It is used**

In emphatic statements

You're in a tough spot↗↘ here.

I can feel the pain you ↗↘ feel.

In disagreements

I don't think ↗↘so.

I am afraid I ↗↘disagree.

Intonation has two functions. it helps us to understand the grammatical structure of a sentence. To distinguish between types of sentences (statements, questions, commands, requests), and to divide sentences into sense groups, intonation is essential. This is known as the **grammatical function** of intonation. The **attitudinal function** of intonation further helps the listener to understand the mood of the speaker, i.e if s/he is excited, arrogant, disinterested, annoyed, impatient, or concerned. A speaker's attitude towards a specific situation and toward a listener or other interlocutor is expressible through intonation's attitudinal function.The third function, viz, the **accentual function** will focus mainly on the location of the tonic syllable. By shifting the accent in a sentence, a speaker can change the sentence's meaning.

Juncture and Transition- a pause to make meaning, it does not occur in the same word but from one word to another.

e.g.: /pi:sto:ks/ and /aiskri:m/.

Assimilation

It refers to the process in which sounds influence one another. It is the preceding and succeeding sounds that determine the precise phonetic quality of a sound segment in connected speech. The sounds in speech may change due to several factors; neighbouring sounds may influence a sound, and certain sounds may be modified or added, or even lost entirely. This is a morpho-phonemic process in which neighbouring phonemes become more similar when combined. It is more common in rapid speech. For example, in the word *incomplete*, voiceless velar plosive /k/ influences the replacement of voiced alveolar nasal /n/ by voiced velar nasal /ŋ/. So, in rapid speech, it is heard as /iŋkəmpli:t/. The voiced alveolar fricative sound /z/ changes to voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ under the influence of voiceless bilabial plosive /p/ in the word newspaper (/nju:z/ and /peipə/ gives /nju:speipə/.

There are three types of assimilatory changes- **regressive, progressive, and reciprocal**. If the phoneme affects the sound preceding it, then it is known as regressive assimilation and if the phoneme is changed due to the preceding sound it is known as progressive assimilation. The process of regression assimilation is also known as anticipatory assimilation, since the features of one phoneme may affect the features of the phoneme preceding

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it. Progressive assimilation occurs when the features of one phoneme affect those of the following phoneme. In reciprocal assimilation, the adjacent phonemes affect mutually. The following are examples of assimilations.

e.g.:1) /ki:p/ is different from /ku:l/. – /k/ is changed due to the following sound. In the first word /k/ sound has a front resonance and in *cool* /k/ sound has a back resonance.

2) In pancake /n/ changes to /ŋ/ and becomes /pæŋkeik/ under the influence of following /k/.

3) In bags /bags/--/bægz/ /s/ is changed due to the preceding sound.

4) In watched -/wɒtʃt/, the /d/ changes to /t/ under the influence of /tʃ/.

5) In the word twice /t is rounded under the influence of /w/ and /w/ is partly devoiced under the influence of the voiceless /t/.

Elision

As we have seen already, elision may be described as the omission of a sound segment, which would be present in the pronunciation of a word in isolation. In course of time certain weak forms of phonemes are dropped or replaced by another sound. The sounds may occur in isolation, but they may be elided in connected speech. An omission is the act of omitting a sound or syllable from a speech. Syllables without accents are usually elided in speech.The word them /ðem/ may be heard /ðm/ as in connected speech, the elision of the vowel sound /e/ occurs here. The other examples are

/ə/ in get another -/get nʌðə/
/d/ in bedtime-/betaim/
/t/ in left turn- /left3:n/
/h/ in tell her- /telə/
/d/ in freiendship /frenʃɪp/, and
/t/ in last time--/la:staim/

There are two types of elision. **Historical** elision results in omitting a sound from the latter form of a word that existed in its earlier form. The absence of /l/ sound in calm is an example: /Ka:m/. A contextual elision is the disappearance of a sound from a word in a compound or in a connected sentence. Take care /teikə́/ is an example.

Transcription

The English language has forty-four phonemes. There are specific sounds associated with each letter in the language. Occasionally, the same letter can represent different sounds. Or, to put it another way, a letter of the English alphabet may represent several sounds. For example, the letter 's' represents different sounds in words like sea /si:/, and ship /ʃip/. Another example is the letter 'c' which produces three different sounds in cat /kæt/, peace /pi:s/, and church /tʃɜ:tʃ/. Thus one could estimate that in English, sounds and spelling do not correspond one to one. Consequently, English is an unphonetic language because spelling and pronunciation are incongruous. The learners, however, face a great deal of difficulty. Thus, linguists developed the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) to reduce communication problems resulting from this mismatch. An **IPA** code can represent all sounds, words, phrases, and sentences of any language. It is called transcription when the sounds get represented graphically. **The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** is an alphabetic system of phonetic notation based primarily on Latin script that was developed by the International Phonetic Association in the late 19th century for standardized representations of speech sounds. Lexicographers, foreign language students and teachers, linguists, speech-language pathologists, singers, actors, and creators of constructed languages use the IPA. It represents lexical (and, to a limited extent, prosodic) sounds in oral language: phones, phonemes, intonation, and word and syllable separations. The extended set of symbols can represent additional aspects of speech, including gnashing of the teeth, lisping, and sounds produced by cleft lip and palate.

Transcription is a process where conventional symbols are used to represent speech in written form. Since the conventional system is inadequate enough to represent speech explicitly, phoneticians and linguists have invented two types of transcription that indicate pronunciation. They are phonetic and phonemic transcription. Phonetic transcription is the transcription of all distinguishable segments of speech sounds in an utterance. It records the physical properties of speech sounds and is always enclosed in brackets. For example the word 'please' would be phonetically transcribed as [phli:z] wherein 'h' indicates the aspirated aspect of the plosive /p/. The

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aspirated plosive /p/ indicates that the adjacent lateral /l/ sound is voiceless. On the other hand, phonemic transcription aims to transcribe the phonemes, the basic sound units of a language and is enclosed in phoneme slashes. It is called a broad transcription. The word 'please' is phonemically represented as /pliːz/.

Transcribe the following words and mark the stress.

Academy-/əˈkædəmi/
Achievement -/əˈtʃiːvmənt/
Aesthetic - /iːsˈθetɪk/
Afterwards - /ˈɑːftə(r)wə(r)dz/
Bamboo - /ˌbæmˈbuː/
Battle- /ˈbæt(ə)l/
Becoming - /bɪˈkʌmɪŋ/
Brother- /ˈbrʌðə/
Anvil- /ˈænvɪl/
Opportunity- /ˌɒpə(r)ˈtjuːnəti/
Calculation-/ˌkælkjʊˈleɪʃ(ə)n/
Habitation-/ˌhæbɪˈteɪʃ(ə)n/
Opposition -/ˌɒpəˈzɪʃ(ə)n/
Sympathetic-/ˌsɪmpəˈθetɪk/
Ultimate- /ˈʌltɪmət/
Intimate- /ˈɪntɪmət/
Separate- /ˈseprət/
Record- /ˈrekɔːd/
Politics- /ˈpɒlətɪks/
Photograph- /ˈfəʊtəˌgrɑːf/
Tombs- /tuːm/
Vehicle- /ˈviːɪkl/
Yourself- /jə(r)ˈself/
Subsidiary- /səbˈsɪdiəri/
Trouble- /ˈtrʌb(ə)l/
University- /ˌjuːnɪˈvɜː(r)səti/
Responsible- /rɪˈspɒnsəbl/
Education- /ˌedjʊˈkeɪʃn/
Forgive-/fəˈgɪv/
Government- /ˈgʌvənmənt/
History- /ˈhɪst(ə)ri/
Exercise- /ˈeksə(r)saɪz/
Difficult- /ˈdɪfɪk(ə)lt/
Curiosity- /ˌkjʊəriˈɒsəti/
Cultivation- /ˌkʌltɪˈveɪʃn/
Invitation- /ˌɪnvɪˈteɪʃn/
Always- /ˈɔːlweɪz/
Confidential- /ˌkɒnfɪˈdenʃl/
Church- /tʃɜːtʃ/
Comfortable- /ˈkʌmftəb(ə)l/
Circus- /ˈsɜːkəs/
Above- /əˈbʌv/
Dichotomy- /daɪˈkɒtəmi/
Sabotage- /ˈsæbətɑːʒ/
Tube- /tjuːb/
Poetic- /pəʊˈetɪk/
Customs- /ˈkʌstəmz/
Renaissance- /rɪˈneɪsns/
Pinch-/pɪntʃ/
Silence-/ˈsaɪləns/

Usually, syllable division is marked with (-).

Eg: Tailor - /tei-lə/
Cucumber- /kjuː-kʌm-bə/
Remark - /rɪː -maːk/ etc.

But it is always not possible to mark syllable division in orthographic representation, and in such cases, phonetic representation is needed.

Eg: Take the word *example* /ig-zæm-pl/. In this word, the letter 'x' represents two sounds /g/ and /z/. Of these /g/ is part of the first syllable and /z/ is part of the second syllable. In other words, the syllable division could only be affected by the phonetic representations.

Transcribe the following sentences.

1. How old are you?
   /haʊəʊld ə jʊ/
2. I live in Spain.
   /aɪlɪvɪnspeɪn/
3. She is my sister.
   /ʃiː ɪzmaɪ ˈsɪstə/
4. Do you speak English?
   /duː jʊspiːk ˈɪŋglɪʃ/
5. We have two dogs.
   /wihəvtuː dɒgz/
6. Can you drive a car?
   /kænjʊdraɪv ə kɑː/
7. Do you like football?
   /duː jʊlaɪk ˈfʊtbɔːl/
8. Where does he live?
   /weədʌz hiː lɪv/
9. She has green eyes.
   /ʃiː həzgriːn ˈaɪz/
10. I always get up early

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/aɪ ˈɔːlwəz get ʌp ˈɜːlɪ/

11. My name is Peter
/maɪneɪmɪz ˈpiːtə/

12. Where is your pencil?
/weəɪzjə ˈpensl/

13. My favourite colour is blue.
/maɪ ˈfeɪvərɪt ˈkʌləɪzbluː/

14. My dad watered the plants
/maɪdæd ˈwɔːtədəplɑːnts/

15. He sometimes cooks lunch.
/hiː ˈsʌmtaɪmzkʊkslʌnʧ/

16. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
/ə bɜːd in hændiz wɜːθ tuː in ðəbuʃ/

17. I wonder if it'll rain tonight.
/aiwʌndə if itl rein tənait/

18. Phonetics is a fascinating subject.
/fənetiksiz ə fæsineitiŋsʌbdʒikt/

19. Can you direct me to the College of Education?
/kənju direct mi tədəkɒlidʒəvedjʊkeɪʃn/

20. What an absolutely delightful day!
/wɒtənæbsəluːtlidilaitfldei/

Transcribe the following passages.

A: Can I help you?
B: Yes, please. I need your assistance.
A: What can I do for you?
B: Please drop me at the pharmacy.
A: With pleasure. Hop in.
B: It's very kind of you.
A: You're most welcome, my dear.
/ei/ /kən ai help juː/
/bi/ /jespliːz/ /ai niːdjɔːrəsistəns/

/ei/ /wɒtkən ai duː fəju/
/bɔː/ /plːzdrɒp mi ətðəfaːməsi/
/ei/ /wiðpleʒə/ /hɒp in/
/bɔː/ /its verikaindəvjuː/
/ei/ /juəməustwelkəmmaidiə//

About a month later, a man with a huge box and a strong net, came to the forest where the lion lived. He was from a circus,and he wanted to catch a lion,and take it to the circus. He spread the net near the lion's den, and went away. Soon the lion came there, and was caught in the net. The lion struggled hard to escape,but the more it tried, the tighter the net became. The lion started roaring angrily. The little mouse heard the noise made by the lion.

//əbautəmʌnθleitəəmænwiðəhjuːdʒbɒksən(d) əstrɒŋ net/ keimtəðəforist-teik it təðə sɜːkəs// //hiː spredðə net niəðəlaiənz den/ ən(d) went əwei// || suːnðəlaiənkeimðeə/ ən(d) wəzkɔːt in ðənetl/ //ðəlaiənstrʌgldhaːdtuiskeɪp/ bətðəmɔːr it traid/ ðətaitəðə net bikeim// //ðəlaiənstaːtidrɔːrinjæŋgrili// |
ðəlitlmaus hɜːd ðənɒismeid bai ðəlaiən//

Questions

I. Answer the following in a word or sentence. (1 mark each)

1. Define phonetics.
2. What do you mean by a phoneme?
3. _____ deals with the reception and perception of speech sounds.
4. The glottalic air-stream mechanism uses the air in the ___.
5. The ____ system forms the basis of the production of most speech sounds.
6. The articulatory system comprises the ____ and ____ articulators.
7. The ___ and _____ are the active articulators.
8. Distinguish between a vowel and a consonant.
9. How many monophthongs are there in the English language?
10. Semi vowels.
11. Give two examples of back vowels and front vowels.
12. Fricatives.
13. Lateral sound.

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14. Oral sound.
15. Intrusive 'r'.
16. ə (Schwa)
17. Morpheme and allomorph.
18. Morphophoneme.
19. Allophone.
20. Syllable.
21. Cotton -/kɒ-tn/ is an example of ____.
22. Open and closed syllables.
23. How will you mark the syllabic structure of the word 'teacher'?
24. Intonation.
25. Write any two compound words and mark stress.
26. /v/ is a _____ sound.
27. English has a _____ rhythm.
28. Differentiate between ˈprɒdʒekt and prəˈdʒekt.
29. The strong form of *she* is ____.
30. Elision.
31. *example* /ig-zæm-pl/ is an example of ____ word.
32. Tonic syllable.
33. The nucleus of the word 'am' is ___.
34. What is the common factor of words like eight, great, paste, taste?
35. /k/ and /g/ sounds are called ____.
36. Give an example of front resonance.

II. Answer the following in a short paragraph not exceeding 50 words. (2 marks each)

1. Different types of phonetics.
2. How will you explain the speech mechanism?
3. Velar sounds.
4. How would you distinguish between a voiced and a voiceless sound?
5. Cardinal Vowels.
6. Write a note on Diphthongs.
7. Distinguish between open approximants and close approximants.
8. Explain central vowels with examples.
9. What are the various groups of consonants according to the manner of articulation?

10. Linking 'r'.
11. Morphology and phonology.
12. Minimal pair.
13. Morphological conditioning.
14. Components of a syllable.
15. Syllabic divisions.
16. Syllabic consonants.
17. Word stress and sentence stress.
18. What are the consequences or side effects of sentence stress?
19. Juncture.
20. Rhythm.

III. Answer the following in a paragraph not exceeding 100 words. (4 marks each)

1. Draw the diagram and explain cardinal vowels.
2. Explain organs of speech with the help of a diagram.
3. /r/ is used as both as a 'tap' and 'trill' sound. Explain.
4. The classification of diphthongs.
5. Pronunciation of plural maker.
6. Explain the pronunciation of 'e' or 'es'.
7. Consonant cluster and abutting consonants.
8. Complementary and contrastive distributions.
9. Write a note on the rules governing the accentual patterns of the English language.
10. Explain the stress on disyllabic words.
11. Assimilation and its various types.
12. Phonetic transcription.

IV. Answer the following essay in about 300 words. (15 marks each)

1. English speech sounds.
2. Classification of vowels.
3. Explain the classification of diphthongs.
4. Phonological conditioning with special emphasis to pronunciation of plural maker and past tense maker.

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5. **Transcribe the following sentences:**
   (a) Do you think I can make an appointment to meet the principal next Monday?
   (b) I shall be aways the whole of the day.
   (c) An apple a day keeps the doctor away.
   (d) A stitch in time saves nine.
   (e) However hard I try, I just can't get this sum right.
   (f) My uncle is a teacher.
   (g) What have you done?
   (h) Her magnanimity is well known.
   (i) When will she come?
   (j) Can you suggest the name of a doctor?

6. Transcribe the following passage.

   Teacher: The test announced for next week…
   Student: Has been cancelled, professor?
   Teacher: Yes. We can do it after two weeks, as teachers are busy with admission now.
   Student: Will there be a change in syllabus?
   Teacher: Of course. You may have to study the completed portions.
   Student:Ok, thank you.

7. Suprasegmental features.
8. Transcribe the following words:

   Statement, shut, burden, while, spoon, soft, tongue, speech, inspiration, students.

9. Explain Intonation with its various pitch changes and functions.
10. Write an essay on IPA.

MODULE III
Morphology and Syntax

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Morphology

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words. Modern linguistics does not consider words as the smallest meaningful unit in the structure of a language. To enable a better understanding, let us look at the word "regain". It consists of two units – "re" and "gain". These two segments are called **morphemes** and form the smallest meaningful unit in a language. Not every word could be broken further into morphemes. For example, "travel" is a single morpheme and cannot be broken further into smaller meaningful units. A morpheme is a word or a part of a word and cannot be divided further into smaller meaningful units. A morpheme repeats in various verbal conditions without undergoing much change in meaning. A systematic study of the internal organization of morphemes and word formation in a language is known as **Morphology.**

The morphemes that have different forms but serves the same purpose or meaning are known as **allomorphs** (or morpheme alternates). For example, the final 's' in books, films, jokes, oranges, and twigs are used to denote plurals. But while in books and jokes, it appears as /s/, in the other three words, it appears as /z/. /ez/ is yet another realization of the "plural" morpheme 's'. This same variation can be seen in the case of the '-ed' morpheme, as /t/ in jumped, /d/ in loved, and /id/ in wanted. These various phonemic manifestations of a morpheme are called the allomorphs of the morpheme.

The morphemes that are represented by various phonetic symbols, as per the situation, are said to represent **alteration.** In other words, those morphemes stand in alternation with each other but since these occur in the

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same particular context, these are said to be **distributed non-contrastively**. This is also called **complementary distribution**. Though allomorphs cannot be used interchangeably, non-native speakers are prone to such a mistake. For eg, /s/ could be substituted with /z/ or /ez/ even without altering the meaning. Such cases where various allomorphs appear in the same condition are known as **free alternation.**

The conditional variation among allomorphs is called conditioning. For a better understanding, let's take the example of the plural morpheme and its various manifestations. As seen earlier, the "plural" morpheme appears as /s/, /z/, and /iz/ under various conditions. /s/ appears if the preceding sound is a voiceless consonant other than /s/, /ʧ/, and /ʃ/. /z/ appears if the preceding sound is voiced other than /ʒ/, /ʤ/, and /z/. But /iz/ appears when preceded by /s/, /ʧ/, /ʃ/, /z/, /ʒ/, and /ʤ/. In this case, the preceding phoneme is the reason for such variation. Thus, these allomorphs are called **phonologically conditioned.** On the other hand, some allomorphs are **morphologically conditioned**. The plural forms of words like ox and child are examples. For the native speaker, it is not difficult to use oxen and children as plurals. There is no phonological conditioning involved in such cases. The case under consideration solely depends upon the respective morphemes ox /ɒks/ and child /ʧaɪld/. Thus, these allomorphs are called morphologically conditioned.

Classification of morphemes is, broadly, done in three ways **- a)lexical and grammatical morphemes, b)free and bound morphemes, and c)roots and affixes**. Morphemes that have meaning and existence of their own are known as **lexical morphemes.** Examples are nouns, verbs, and adjectives. While morphemes that specify the relationship between lexical morphemes are called **grammatical morphemes.** Prepositions, articles, and conjunctions are examples. In the sentence, "Ria is a master in planning events", "Ria", "master", "plan" and "event" are lexical morphemes while "is", "a", "in" "-ing", and "-s" are grammatical morphemes. To understand **free and bound morphemes**, let's take the word "planning". It can be divided into "plan" and "-ing". While the former can stand on its own, the latter cannot. The morphemes that can exist independently are called free morphemes and those that need the free morphemes to exist are called bound morphemes. Here, "plan" is the free morpheme and "-ing" is a bound morpheme.

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To test whether a morpheme is bound or free, it should be seen if it exists freely in the language or not. Most lexical morphemes are free morphemes. The word "love" cannot be broken down further into morphemes but it could be combined with other forms into a wide range of words like lovely, loveless, loveliness, lover, loving, and lovable. In this case, "love" is a free morpheme and "-ly", "-less", "-liness", "-r", "-ing", and "-able" are bound morphemes. The word "indigestible" could be broken, first, into two units, that is, "in-", and "digestible". The latter could further be divided into "digest" and "-ible". While "digest" is a free morpheme, "in-" and "-ible" are bound morphemes. The free morphemes form the core of the word and are responsible for the meaning. These are called **roots,** while the bound morphemes that can be added to roots are called **affixes.** In the above examples, "love" and "digest" are roots while the other morphemes are affixes. The free form without an affix is called a **simple free form** and that derived by adding affixes is called a **complex form**. The unit made of two or more free forms is called a **compound form.**

Affixes are attached to and are subsidiary to roots. These roots or forms to which affixes are attached to are called **stems.** In the word "unequal", "equal" is the stem and "un-" is the affix. But if a word like "engagements" is taken, then the stem is "engagement" and the affix is "-s". This stem could be further broken down into the affix "-ment" and the stem "engage". Thus, it could be seen that a stem may be composed of yet another stem and affix. A stem that cannot be divided further is called roots or base, here, "engage". A stem that consists of more than one morpheme, as in the case of "engagement", is known as a **derived stem**. Stems that consist of a single morpheme is known as **simple stems.**

In English, based on the position, there are two types of affixes – one added before the stem and the other added after the stem. Affixes that come before the stem are called **prefixes** and those that come after the stem are called **suffixes.** Given below, is the structure of a word. For example, "unknowingly".

Bound form (prefix)	Free form (stem)	Bound Form (suffix)
Un-	know	-ingly

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There are two classes of affixes, based on the function they serve – **Derivational or lexical affixes and Inflectional or grammatical affixes**. Derivational affixes derive new words from roots and change words from one type to another. They create new words. Prefixes in English, usually, bring modifications to the base of the form and are derivational affixes. Inflectional affixes serve grammatical functions and change the form of a word but not the class. For example, change, changes, changed, changing. Suffixes can be both derivational or inflectional but prefixes are only derivational, in English. Inflectional suffixes are used in the following cases in English.

1. Plural suffixes in nouns: the plural allomorphs. For example, /s/, /z/, /əz/.
2. Case suffixes in nouns: the possessive. For example, Devi's, boy's.
3. Present tense suffixes in verbs: inflected form of verb. For example, gives, looks.
4. Present participle (-ing suffix) in verbs: accepting, looking.
5. Past tense and past participle suffixes in verbs: "-ed", "-en". For example, sounded, spoken.
6. Degree suffixes in adjectives and adverbs: comparative and superlative degrees by adding suffixes "-er" and "-est". For example, prettier, youngest, simpler.

Affixes:

Dis	Disable
De	decentralize
Bi	Bipolar
Em	Empanel
Equi	equidistant
Il	Illogical
Mis	Misbehave
Post	Postgraduate
Re	Regain
Un	Unusual
Under	underestimate

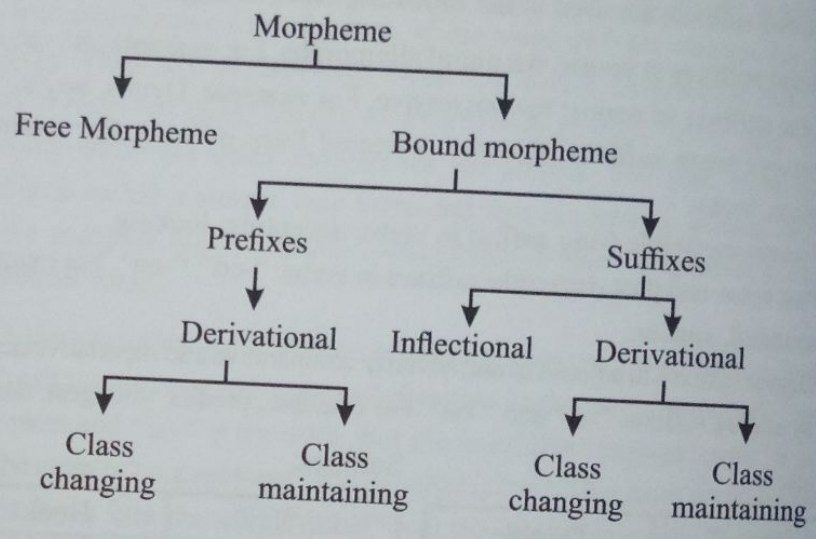
Suffixes:

S	Books
Ing	Seeing
Ed	Booked
Er	Longer
Est	Simplest
Able	Workable
Ette	Kitchenette
Ment	Enactment
Ish	Childish
Ling	Starling
Ness	Darkness
Ical	heroical

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Derivational affixes are of two types – **class changing and class maintaining.** Class maintaining affixes are those that do not bring any changes to the class of the word. For example, the suffix "-ship" does not change the class of the stem "kin" when it becomes "kinship". Both "kin" and "kinship" are nouns. Class changing affixes provide the derived form in another class. "-ish", and "-er" are class changing affixes. The noun "child" becomes the adjective "childish" and the verb "teach" becomes the noun "teacher".



As mentioned earlier, words are divided into three, based on the morphemic elements – Simple, Complex and Compound. A simple word consists of a single free morpheme or is followed by an inflectional suffix. For example, girls, and eagles. A complex word is a simple word with one or more derivational affixes. Greatness, repair, and rejuvenation are examples. A word derived by combining two or more free forms – simple or complex, is called a compound word. It is written using a hyphen in between words or by writing the free forms as a single word. Aircraft, finger-print, ice-cream (icecream, ice cream), and bed-side (bed side) are examples.

The way in which words are formed is called word-formation (which is an example of a compound word). Word formation can never be a closed process because as society evolves, newer words are created and this process

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differs from language to language. Given below are the important methods of word formation in English.

1. Compounding: As seen above, this is a process of word-formation by adding a base form to another. The words thus, formed are called compound words.

2. Derivation: This process is also called affixation and has already been discussed. As already discussed, prefixing and suffixing are the two methods of derivation.

3. Conversion: When the same word is used as different classes (parts of speech) without adding derivational affixes, but through changes in word stress, inflectional suffix and other syntactical devices, it is known as conversion. In the sentence, "The child dirtied its dress", "dirtied is changed from an adjective to a verb. Another example is "Simon is a fraud". In this, "fraud" is used as a noun and not a verb.

4. Echoing or Onomatopoeia: This is a process of imitating the sounds of the referents and using it as a word to represent them. "murmur", "roar", "hiss", and "quack" are a few examples.

5. Clipping: When a word is shortened by clipping off either from its beginning or end, or both, the resultant clipped word is used to stand for the whole. This process is known as clipping. "Maths for Mathematics", "disco for discotheque", "van for caravan", and "lab for laboratory" are examples.

6. Reduplicatives: Compound words with two or more identical/slightly identical parts are reduplicatives. The difference between the two words, mostly, is the initial consonants or the final vowels. For example, "see-saw" and "tip-toe".

7. Acronymy: This is a process of forming a new word by selecting the first alphabets (one or two from a word) from a phrase. In certain cases, the alphabets are pronounced individually as initials (like in MP for Member of Parliament) and in some other cases, it is pronounced as a new word (like RADAR from Radio Detecting and Ranging).

8. Blending: When parts of two words are fused into one to make a single word, the process is called blending. Usually, blends use the first part of

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the first word and the last part of the second word. These are also known as portmanteau words. For example, "splatter" is created out of "splash and spatter" and "infotainment" is made of "information" and "entertainment".

9. Back-formation: In this process, the word is formed by the analogy of one word from another in cases where the original word would seem to be a derivative. For example, "emote" from "emotion", "edit" from "editor", "greed" from "greedy" and "televise" from "television".

10. Autonomasia: This is a process where a common noun, a verb, or an adjective, is formed from the name of a person or a place. For example, "platonic" from Plato, "malapropism" from Mr Malaprop, "quixotic" from Don Quixote, and "boycott" from Captain Boycott.

Words are divided into classes based on form and function and are named **form class** and **function class,** respectively. The phonological, morphological and syntactic properties of words are also considered while classifying words into "parts of speech". Phonology becomes the criteria when words are classified on basis of the stress and intonation. When inflectional and derivational affixes are used, words are classified under morphological forms. Syntactic forms are employed while classifying words under the syntactic category. **Form class** words are semantically relevant and meaningful. That is why they are also known as content words, lexical items and full words. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs belong to this category. For example, bat, eye, sharp, game, flower, child. **Function class** words are grammatically relevant but do not contain meanings like the form class words. They are known as empty words, structure words and functors. These words give grammatical shape to syntactic constructions. Function class words are important in identifying form class words. Articles, demonstratives, prepositions, auxiliaries and conjunctions, like, on, the, in, by, and of are examples of function class words.

The form class words are abundant and unlimited. Newer form class words could be created by adding new nouns and verbs. Thus, form class is also called open class or open set words. On the other hand, function class words are limited and are called closed set words. One major reason is that function class words do not take inflectional or derivational affixes. They

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do not have affixes like "-s", "-ed", "-est", etcetera. Form class words can be classified using the class markers. Function class words appear more frequently in usage than form class words.

Most nouns can take plural form by suffixing "-s", possessive form by taking "'s" and many nouns can be derived by derivational affixes like "-er", "-ment", "-ship", etcetera. Nouns take determiners before them, like "a girl", "the fish", and "an owl". Moreover, nouns have heavier stress on the first syllable. Verbs are usually preceded by "to". For example, "to walk", "to dance", and "to travel". Verbs have four inflected forms. When "-ize" is suffixed to verbs, they generate adjectives. For example, "mobilize". Prefixing "en-" to verbs results in the formation of nouns, for example, "enroute". Verbs are usually preceded and followed by nouns. The stress in verbs, usually, fall upon the second syllable or on the syllable before the suffix.

Adjectives take comparative inflections, like "-er" and "-est". The addition of derivational affixes to nouns results in adjectives, as in, painless, mindful, and vicious. Intensifiers could be used before adjectives. For example, very intense. Nouns could be preceded by adjectives, as in bright student. The primary stress of adjectives is on the first syllable. Most of these characteristics are shared by adverbs. Periphrastic comparison is used by adverbs to form comparative and superlative forms. Adverbs, mostly, take intensifiers before them, as in, very cleverly. When adjectives are suffixed with "-ly", adverbs are derived. Adverbs, mostly, specify time, place and manner. An adverb may function as an adverbial, further categorized into adjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts. Adverbs may modify an adjective, as in a deeply painful story. An adverb may premodify another adverb. For example, Deepa is singing very melodiously. Adverbs premodify prepositions, as in "She appears right from nowhere". Adverbs can, also, premodify indefinite prenouns, pre-determiners and cardinal numerals. For example, nearly everyone was shocked.

Function class words or closed words are limited and do not take affixes. Pronouns, prepositions, determiners, conjunctions, and auxiliary verbs form some of the function class word categories. Pronouns are personal (I, we, he, she, and it), indefinite (each, every, and nobody), and interrogative pronouns (who, what, and whom). Prepositions are single words and indicate place,

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and position. Articles (a, an, the), ordinals (third, last, first), quantifiers (few, much, many) and demonstratives (those, these, this) are types of determiners. Conjunctions are of two types – co-ordinating conjunctions (and, but, or) and subordinating conjunctions (if, since, until).

The way in which words are organized in a language to make meaningful utterances is governed by a set of rules. These rules are specific to each language and are known as the **syntax.** In other words, syntax is the branch of linguistics that studies the structure of phrases and sentences with reference to words or the study of how words combine into such units as a phrase, clause and sentence. The resultant product of these combinations is known as syntactic structures. The syntactic descriptions are limited to the level of sentences. Syntax (the study of sentence structure) and morphology (the study of word structure) together constitute the two parts of the linguistic study of grammar. Some linguistics consider syntax and morphology as undistinguishable categories. Grammar is a scientific and prescriptive study of the rules that decide the possible patterns in any language. The syntax of any language could be analyzed in the same manner in which phonological or morphological patterns have been studied in previous sections and chapters.

The form and function class words, to make sense, appear in particular patterns. When arranged in their patterns to serve the function, sentences could be broadly divided into three – simple, compound and complex. A simple sentence consists of an independent clause and has a subject and a verb. For example, "They are dancers". Compound sentences consist of two independent clauses connected by conjunctions like "for", "and", "nor", "but", and "so". For example, I wrote a letter to the editor but there was no result. "I wrote a letter to the editor" and "there was no result" are both independent clauses. A complex sentence contains a dependent clause and an independent clause connected by subordinating conjunctions like "while", "since", "however", and "which". For example, "My parents were ecstatic when I got the job". "My parents were ecstatic" is an independent clause, while "when I got the job" is dependent. The compound-complex sentences contain at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

A phrase is a group of words but does not contain a combination of subject-predicate like a sentence. Thus, it cannot exist independently like a

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sentence. The central element of a phrase is called the "head". There are different types of phrases. The Noun Phrase has a noun or pronoun as the head word and might begin with a determiner. Eg, "a green jacket" in "Rony wears a green jacket". The Verb Phrase consists of the main verb and an auxiliary verb. Eg, "is going" in "It is going to be a long way". In an Adjective Phrase, an adjective is the head of the phrase. Eg, In an "She has a beautiful mind", "beautiful" describes "mind". An Adverb Phrase, the adverb is the head of the phrase and described an adjective or the main verb or another verb. Eg, "rhythmically" in "They dance rhythmically" modifies the verb "dance". The prepositional phrase consists of a preposition. "to travel" in "My neighbours are leaving to travel to the USA". In a Participle phrase, the participle functions as an adjective. In the sentence, "Flooded with water, the city was abandoned", "flooded" describes "the city". An infinitive phrase consists of an infinitive that serves as a noun when added with "to". For example, "To litter around is the habit of many".

A clause is a group of words with a subject and a predicate. Clauses can be a part of a compound or a complex sentence, and be a complete sentence, as well. It can contain a main clause (that is a complete utterance) and a subordinate clause (that cannot stand alone as a meaningful unit). For example, "though he is not brilliant", in "Though he is not brilliant, he will write the exam". There are three important clause types. An adjective clause is a dependent clause that begins with relative pronouns or relative adverbs like "where", "that", "who", "whom", "which", etcetera. These contain a subject and a verb but cannot stand alone. In "these leeches are found in the West, where brown woods are common", "where brown woods are common" is the adjective clause. A Noun clause is a dependent clause that takes the place of a noun. For example, "whenever I take the lift" in "My heart beats fast, whenever I take the lift". An adverbial clause is a dependent clause that begins with an adverb. "When the power goes off" in "when the power goes off, the child starts crying", is an adverbial clause.

The study of grammar has always had a unique and respectable position across civilizations, like the ancient Greek, Roman and medieval cultures, including in Asian and Arab languages. Grammar is studied variedly across different languages. In the twentieth century, huge changes occurred in the

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way grammar was studied, especially due to the influence of Structuralism. The approaches used before twentieth century in the perspective are known as **traditional grammar** and refer to the grammatical studies conducted in Europe and America before. The eight parts of speech were established by traditional grammarians and form the background of linguistic studies.

The Structuralists questioned Traditional Grammar and identified some shortcomings. The biggest **drawback of traditional grammar** is that it is prescriptive in nature, that is, it prescribes rules for linguistic creations. Their focus was on the written language and they ignored the spoken form. This is a huge drawback in understanding and creating further constructions. Since Latin was normative in England, English grammar was analyzed based on the rules of Latin grammar. This was faulty because of the difference between the languages. This is known as the Latinate fallacy of traditional grammar. Another weakness of traditional grammar was its perspective of not understanding the individuality of separate languages and proposing universal grammar rules. This is known as the logical fallacy. The grammar rules of one language might not apply to another. Likewise, regional and dialectic variations within the same language were also ignored which is a huge mistake.

Traditional grammar lacked clear and precise descriptions and thus evaded testing and verification. The semantic fallacy is another drawback of traditional grammar that brought in classifications based on semantics, that is, meaning. One such mistake is defining a noun as the name of a person, place, or thing. "equality" and "fear" are exceptions. Traditional grammar, also, contains normative fallacy – the mistake of listing out what is and what is not allowed as a linguistic construction. This limits any language and was contested by the Structuralists.

The prescriptive set of rules laid by traditional grammar resulted in correct and incorrect language constructions. In this context, **grammaticality and acceptability** are two distinct yet, inter-related concepts to understand. An utterance is grammatical if it is used formally by a group of native speakers. A grammatical sentence might not always be acceptable. Noam Chomsky gives an example to testify this – "Colourless green ideas sleep furiously". This sentence abides by grammar rules but does not convey any meaning.

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Acceptability, also known as appropriateness depends upon the context in which the sentence is made. Informal and friendly constructions used among friends and family are unacceptable in formal and official contexts. In the same manner, addressing people at home or friends with formal salutations used in official letters or interviews is also unacceptable. Acceptability is determined by linguistic, situational and psychological factors. Popularly, ungrammatical sentences are labelled as unacceptable while the structuralists do not completely abide by that.

Unlike traditional **prescriptive grammar**, **descriptive grammar** studies language, its structure, and its rules as used in everyday life by native speakers. This includes variations in class and dialect. Descriptive grammar focuses on language as it is used. For example, "I am taller than her" will be considered incorrect as per the prescriptive grammar which suggests the use of "I am taller than she". Both descriptive and prescriptive grammars are bound by rules in different ways. While prescriptive grammar helps in formal language use, descriptive grammar helps non-native speakers learn the language better. Though there was a deviation from the traditional patterns of studying grammar, it still formed the foundation of modern grammar studies. Many minor but significant changes have been made in the traditional pattern. The Structural approach was followed by the Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG), and then the Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG).

The limitations of traditional grammar paved way for the birth of **Structural/ Descriptive Grammar,** which began in the early twentieth century and lasted till the mid-twenties. The study of some tribal languages of North America by Franz Boas initiated structural grammar. But an extensive study was introduced by Leonald Bloomfield. While traditional grammar focussed on semantics, Structuralists discarded the importance of meaning and considered the "form" to be important. They evolved theories and statements that could be tested and proved. Unlike the traditionalists, the Structuralists did not formulate any rules for grammatical constructions. They believed that grammarians were supposed to observe society and its language and find explanations for those behaviours, rather than formulating rules. The Structuralists positioned speech over writing and gave secondary status to the latter.

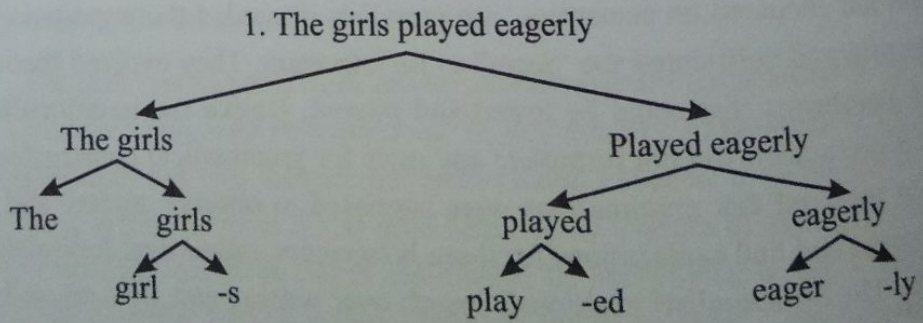
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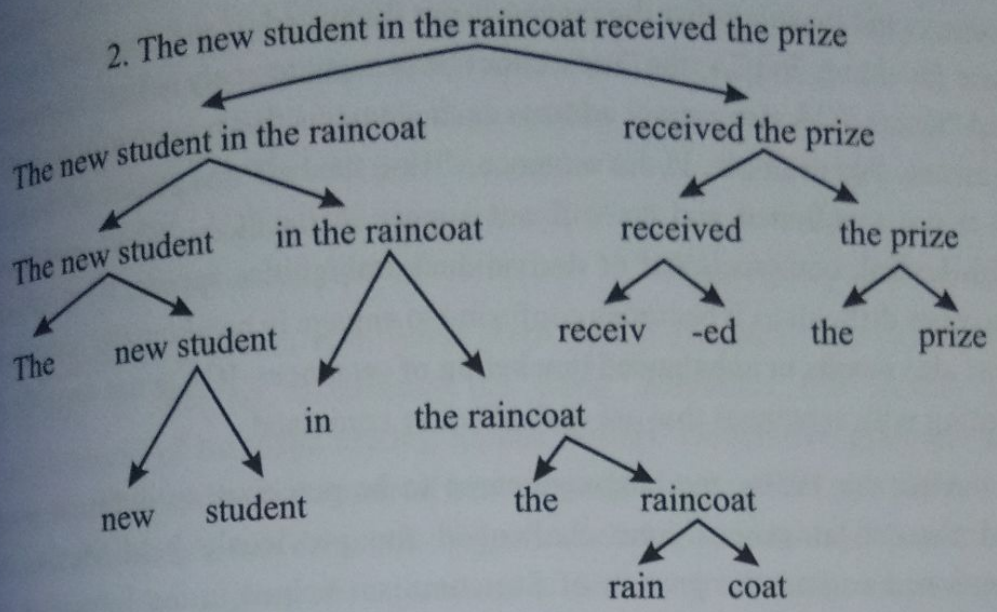
Structuralists believed that no language was superior or inferior and each language possesses an ingrained grammatical structure. They gave importance to synchronic studies of language and perceived language as "a system of systems". Structuralists believed that language is constituted of smaller units interwoven or layered into each other. The duty of a grammarian was to look into the relationship between the various smaller and larger units, starting from phonetics to semantics.

The Structuralist school provided explanations for many instances of language utterances that the traditionalists failed to explain. For example, Structuralists explained the ending of sentences, in English, in prepositions. This was considered to be incorrect by the traditionalists. Unlike the traditionalists, the Structuralists discarded rules and regulations that stunt the growth of any language. They perceived language as fluid and capable of growth. While traditionalists preferred the inflected languages of Greek and Latin, Structuralists discarded them. The linguists associated with this group are Ferdinand de Saussure, Franz Boas, Edward Sapir, and Leonard Bloomfield. Studies in Structuralist grammar virtually ended by the 1950s.

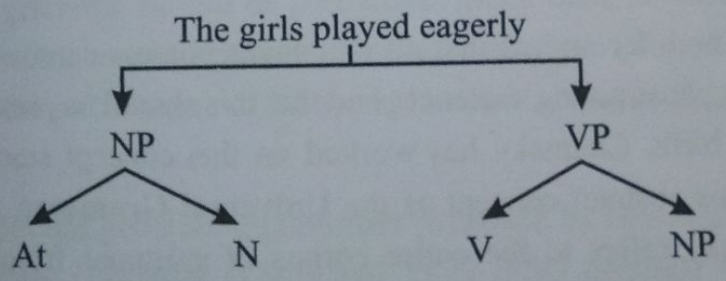
As mentioned above, structural linguists tried to comprehend language in terms of structure, based on the rules and patterns. So, they divided a sentence into its "immediate constituents", to understand the structure. This is known as the **Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICA)**. ICA hierarchically divides sentences into immediate constituents through a tree-like structure in binaries. So, each sentence is divided into two and later into further parts of two till the smallest meaningful unit (the morpheme) is reached. ICA is applied to phrases, as well. Each part is called the immediate constituent. For example,



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The final constituents are called the ultimate constituents of the sentence. In the first example, "girl", "-s", "play", "-ed", "eager", and "-ly" are the ultimate constituents. Categorically, the sentence could be broken into immediate constituents as follows:



NP – Noun Phrase, VP – Verb Phrase, At – Article, N – Noun, NP – Noun Phrase

The ICA does not prescribe any set rules but depends upon the native speaker's attitude. The ultimate purpose is to compare and understand the constituents. ICA could be done using tree diagrams or by using vertical lines or brackets.

IC Analysis helps in showing the hierarchical organization of sentences by graphically breaking them into c· nstituent parts. ICA can also enable an understanding of certain types of complexities in sentences. On the other hand, the limitations of IC Analysis include the problems caused by

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overlapping ICs. For example, "She has no interest in, or taste for, skiing" conveys the meaning that the person is not interested in and does not have a taste for skiing. In ICA, the "no" cannot be brought to apply to both "interest" and "taste". ICA also cannot address such elements that remain unstated in a sentence. For example, in the sentence, "Ring the bell" the person addressed to is not mentioned and so will not appear in the ICA. When sentences with lexical, constructional or derivational ambiguities appear, IC Analysis becomes difficult as it becomes confusing to engage in breaking the sentence. This also results in unbalanced bracketing of sentences. ICA is not capable of dealing with sentences that are embedded or conjoined.

After the 1950s, the language came to be perceived in different ways and theoretical propositions challenged the previously held views. As mentioned earlier, the growth of Structuralism helped in the formation of linguistics as a branch of study. The contributions of Leonald Bloomfield gave a new perspective to morphology in the 1930s and 1940s. But the more formal approaches in linguistics occurred from the 1950s. These are known as the "themes of grammar". Noam Chomsky's contribution to syntax was instrumental in linguistics and the formation of the concept of "generative grammar".

Noam Chomsky argued that all languages possess certain fundamental principles for constructing sentences and that this should be present in human beings from birth. Chomsky has worked on this concept since the 1980s. He termed this abstract concept as the **Universal Grammar.** On the other hand, Chomsky refers to the entire corpus of grammar from Europe and America that existed before linguistics appeared in the twentieth century, as **Traditional Grammar**. Though linguistics does not blindly adhere to the concepts of traditional grammar, it still forms the foundation of later theories. The limitations of traditional grammar were addressed by **Generative Grammar.** It is a concept put forward by Noam Chomsky and refers to a grammar of a specific language that is capable of defining all grammatical constructions of that language. This grammar is also specific to that language.

The concept of generative grammar was introduced by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s and since has been highly influential in the study of grammar. This grammar looked beyond the limitations of traditional grammar in not

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being capable of introducing further changes and extensions in grammatical constructions. The "generative" was a concept taken from Mathematics. Generative grammar upholds the idea that human language is shaped by a set of basic principles, that is Universal Grammar. Generative grammar is a set of rules that indicates the structure and can be used to build the grammatical sentences of the language that it generates. The sentences thus created are accepted by the native speakers of a language as belonging to their language.

Generative grammar is different from both prescriptive and descriptive grammar. It tries to understand the basic principles that enable the manifestation of language among human beings. Generative grammar not only distinguishes the grammatical sentence of a language but also provides a structural description of syntactic analysis of each grammatical construction. The set of rules in generative grammar is derived from the grammaticality and acceptability of a language understood by its native speakers.

Noam Chomsky, as mentioned above, threw a new streak of light in the field of linguistics and replaced the mechanistic and behaviourist view of language through his concept of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG). The publication of *Syntactic Structures* in 1957 introduced the concept that grammar should be predictive. Since then, continuous changes and studies took place in this field. The second phase of these studies was heralded by the publication of Chomsky's *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* in 1965.

Two important generative grammars proposed by Noam Chomsky were Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) and TGG. PSG contains a set of rules known as the Phrase Structure Rules. These are also known as rewrite rules and are capable of generating strings of linguistic elements. The PS rules are capable of providing constituent analysis of the string. These rules are directions to generate the total framework of the basic sentences in English.

There is a way to write the PS rules. The symbol to the left of the arrow is replaced by the expanded form written to the right of the arrow. For example, S (Subject) → NP (Noun phrase) + VP (verb phrase). These symbols are known as nodes and are expandable. Every node with a branch is called a branching node and the one without a branch is called a non-branching

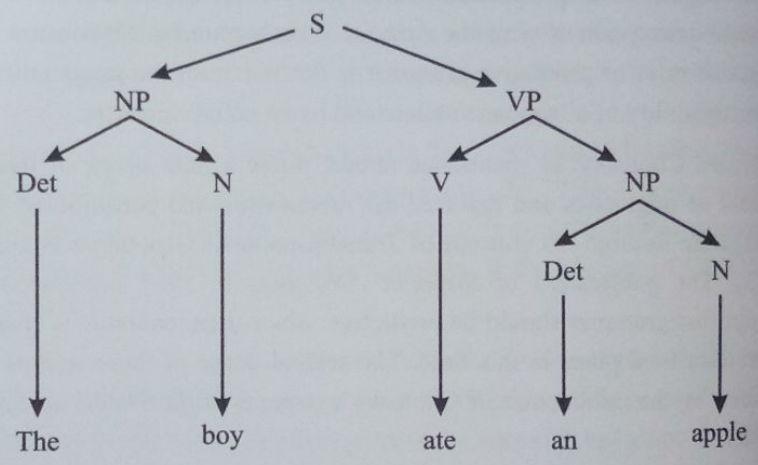
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node. The individual components of NP and VP are further expandable. For example. VP → Verb + NP; NP →Determiner + N. The sentence "the boy ate an apple" can be analyzed as per this system of breaking into constituent parts or as a tree diagram.

S → NP + VP
NP → Determiner + N
VP → V + NP
N → boy, apple
Determiner → the, an

Tree diagram:



When the final string does not take further ahead, it is known as a terminal string. The higher nodes of the tree dominate the lower nodes and this dominance is by virtue of possessing constituent elements into which it could be broken. PS trees give information regarding sentence structure. It also shows how new sentences can be generated.

PSG has a few drawbacks. It cannot account for the intentions of many native constructions in the language. PSG fails to address sentences with ambiguities and also is incapable of understanding synonyms. The inter-relationships between sentences like active-passive and affirmative-negative could not be explained by PSG. Stylistic variations of sentences are also not

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comprehended by PSG. Phrase Structure Grammar concentrates only on identifying the phrases and other constituents of a sentence and does not deal with transformation.

Another relevant branch of generative grammar is **Transformational Generative Grammar**. The seeds of TGG were taken from basic concepts that existed in grammar studies. The transformational rules show the change of one structure into another by deleting, inserting or replacing items. The merit of TGG over previous systems of grammar, especially PSG, is that it showed the inter-relatedness between sentences.

TG grammar consists of three components – syntactical, semantical and phonological. It defines two levels of syntactic structures, namely, the deep structure and the surface structure. In TGG, the structure of a sentence is built using general rules. The resultant structure is called the deep structure of the sentence. These structures change due to transformations. After all the transformations have been applied, the resulting structure is called the surface structure. It could be seen that TG holds the view that a sentence has more than one level of structure.

The abstract representation of the structure of a sentence used by linguists for the study is called the deep structure. It contains the basic units of meaning of a sentence. Deep structure refers to concepts, thoughts, and ideas, while surface structure refers to the words used to represent the deep structure. The alternation of the normal subject-verb order shows that the surface structure of "It is there" is different from "Is it there?" Both these sentences have the same order in deep structure. The syntactic component generates deep structures which undergo certain transformations. The transformational surface structure gets phonetic representation from the phonological component and semantic representation from the semantic component and becomes sentences. It is from these concepts that Chomsky derived his concepts of competence and performance (discussed in the II module).

The transformational generative theory makes use of evaluation procedures to evaluate alternative grammar for the same language and select the best, capable of explaining existing data and also predicting possibilities.

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It draws relations between different types of sentences such as active-passive, affirmative-negative, unlike PSG. It shows the generation or derivation of different types of sentences from a basic sentence type, called the kernel sentence, by the application of Transformational rules. The kernel sentences are simple, affirmative, active, and declarative sentences. Sentences derived from kernel forms by bringing transformations are called non-kernel sentences. Interrogative, negative, passive, complex and compound sentences are transformed into non-kernel sentences.

TG grammar consists of three components – the basic component/ constituent structure /Phase structure, the transformational component, and the morphophonemic component. The first and third components are obligatory ones. But the transformational component is optional. Thus, in the kernel sentences, no transformation is involved. There are five transformational rules. Interrogative rule, affix switch rule, do-support rule, negation rule, and passivisation rule.

The major contribution of TGG attempts to describe a speaker's competence in the light of transformational and generative grammar. This enables producing and understanding of an infinite number of sentences, understanding the internal structure of sentences, detecting ambiguity, detecting meanings, and informing why and when the sentence is ungrammatical. TG grammar is one of the most complicated and effective grammars to date. But it is not without limitations. There are new theories like the Montaigue Grammar, Fillmore's Case Grammar, and Scale and Category Grammar that provides more insights into language.

Questions

I. Answer the following in a word or sentence. (1 mark each)

1. Define morpheme.
2. What is complimentary distribution?
3. Give two examples of a phonologically conditioned allomorph.
4. What is a root?
5. What is an affix?
6. What is a compound form?
7. What is a stem?

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8. What is a class changing affix?
9. What is compounding?
10. Give two examples of function class words.
11. What is a head?
12. Name the three components of TGG.

II. Answer the following in a short paragraph not exceeding 50 words. (2 marks each)

1. What is a morphologically conditioned allomorph?
2. What is a free morpheme?
3. Define a bound morpheme.
4. What are the different types of derivational affixes?
5. Define Conversion method of word formation.
6. What is syntax?
7. What are the different types of phrases?
8. Define IC Analysis.
9. What is Universal Grammar?
10. Linking 'r'.
11. Morphology and phonology.
12. Minimal pair.
13. Morphological conditioning.
14. Deep structure.
15. Surface structure.

III. Answer the following in a paragraph not exceeding 100 words. (4 marks each)

1. How are morphemes classified?
2. Explain stems.
3. What is an affix? What are the two classes?
4. Word formation.
5. Traditional grammar.
6. Grammaticality and acceptability.
7. Prescriptive and descriptive grammar.
8. Structural grammar.
9. Immediate Constituent Analysis.
10. Phrase Structure Grammar.

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11. Transformational Generative Grammar.
12. What are the limitations of PSG?

IV. Answer the following essay in about 300 words. (15 marks each)

1. Write an essay on word formation and enumerate the different methods of word formation in English.
2. Define traditional grammar. What are the drawbacks of traditional grammar?
3. Trace the evolution of studies in grammar in English.
4. What are Noam Chomsky's contribution in grammar?

MODULE IV
Linguistics in Ancient India

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Linguistics in Ancient India

The study of language has ancient precedence in India. Greek and Indian cultures were two prominent civilizations that studied the theory of language. While Greek scholarship shows a lack of systematization and continuity, Ancient Indian engagement with linguistics shows consistency and systematic development for over more than 3000 years. Ancient India is a period roughly calculated from about 800 BC to about 100 BC. Sanskrit, Tamil and Tibet are languages that engaged in a linguistic study during ancient times. Both the nature and structure of language were the concerns of ancient Indian linguists and extends across phonetics to philosophy.

The primary focus and concern of the linguistic enquiries of these languages pertained to the accurate study and preservation of the scriptures/ *Vedas*. Thus, the basic aim was religious. The traditional focus was on the development of a system that could maintain the purity (as conceived by the practitioners) of the religious (*Vedic)* texts. The scriptures were taught through hereditary priesthood in a highly controlled manner in order to avoid errors. Orality and performativity were important elements in preserving the authority of words. The primary notion held by these practices was the purity and eternal nature of language. The hierarchy of the scriptural language was kept by separating it from the vernacular which was considered inferior to the former.

Linguistic features were studied as *Vaiyyakaranas* (grammar). To provide a proper understanding of the *Vedas*, six systems were in place and were together called the *Vedangas*. These were meant to help in the proper articulation and performance of the rituals. They are listed below:

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1. *Siksa* – guidelines for correct pronunciation of the *vedas*.
2. *Kalpa* – helps to understand how to follow the ritualistic aspect of the *vedas*.
3. *Vyakarana* – provided guidelines to understand the language of the *vedas*.
4. *Nirukta* – rules to understand the meaning of the *vedic* words.
5. *Chandas*– guidelines to understand the metrical composition of the *vedas*.
6. *Jyotisa*– helps in understanding the proper time or positions of planets, and constellations.

The ancient Indian linguists upheld three basic postulates of language. First, that language is speech and not writing (script). *Bhasa, vak* and *vani* are the three words used for language by ancient scholars. All these three words refer to language as speech. *Sandhi* - a coalescence of sounds in context is considered one of the most important aspects of ancient Indian grammar. Western grammar does not deal extensively with this concept. The speech is positioned as subjective. The source of speech is located in individual consciousness. This concept perceives language in relation to reality and thought and connects to the second postulate, that is, language is cognition and not a mere mechanism for communication. Ancient Indian discourse on language was focussed on the expression and understanding of the self.

Finally, language is considered a constructivist system and not a representational system. This concept could be derived from the second postulate. Ancient Indian linguistics believed that language constructs the reality of our world. They asserted that since all knowledge is linguistic in essence, knowledge is a construction. These concepts inspired discourses on Structuralism that gave a new direction to language studies in the West. As mentioned in the fourth module, the emergence of linguistics as a discipline in the West springs from the studies of Ferdinand de Saussure. He was a French scholar of Sanskrit grammar at Geneva University and his studies in ancient Indian linguistics set the trajectory of language studies in the West by introducing the linguistic turn.

The ancient Indian scholars were aware of the sound patterning and articulatory characteristics of those sounds. Formal phoneme-based alphabets, distinguished as vowels and consonants, were standardized in Sanskrit around 700 BCE. The consonants were divided into three

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categories – stops, approximants and voiceless fricatives. Various scholars gave various terminology and analysis and thus different schools emerged in Indian linguistics. Sanskrit was the most prominent ancient language with a systematic study of words and grammar. The growth of Sanskrit could be seen through the various phases including the Padapāṭha versions of Vedic texts before Pāṇini, Aṣṭādhyāyī of Pāṇini, Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali,Bhartṛhari's contributions, Siddhāntakaumudī of BhaṭṭojiDīkṣita, and Nāgeśa's works. Among these, Pāṇini is a Sanskrit scholar whose contribution is a milestone in the development of linguistics in India. The study of linguistics in India is divided into Pre-Pāṇini (from the *Rigveda* to Pāṇini) and Post-Pāṇini phases.

Panini - Ashtadhyayi – Karaka theory

The **Pāṇini** school of grammar is the longest-standing school in Indian linguistics. Pāṇini, along with Kātyāyana and Patañjali are known as the "holy trio" of Sanskrit grammar, also called the *trimunivyakaranam*, It includes the *Ashtadhyayi* of Pāṇini, *Va:rttika*of Kātyāyana, and *Mahābhāṣya* of Patañjali. Nothing much is known about the personal details of Pāṇini. His major work is usually referred to as his ***Ashtadhyayi***, (Sanskrit *Aṣṭādhyāyī*) and refers to eight chapters on Sanskrit Grammar.

Despite being one of the earliest grammars of Sanskrit, *Ashtadhyayi* is sophisticated and scholarly. Both phonetics and phonology are with in this work. *Ashtadhyayi* contains around 4000 rules (*sutras*) of phonetics and grammar that evolved during the Vedic period. The eight chapters are divided into four sections (padas) and define the morphology and syntax of the Sanskrit language. The book also contains and differentiates the language used in the scriptures and the vernacular. It is believed that Pāṇini wrote this work when Hinduism was being questioned by Buddhism and Jainism. Therefore, *Ashtadhyayi* serves the purpose of restricting and thus preserving the Sanskrit language.

Pāṇini's magnum opus contains *Aksharasamamnaya* (containing 14 *sutras*), *Sutrapatha* (containing 4000 *sutras*), *Dhatupatha* (containing 1967 verb roots), and *Ganapatha* (containing other pertinent items like primitive nominal bases). The *Sutrapatha* is the comprehensive rule base for Sanskrit, as proposed by Pāṇini. The other three are properly structured and are the

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basic databases of Pāṇini's system. *Aksharasamamnaya* contains the sound directory with 14 classes of sounds differentiated on the basis of their phonological properties, that is, phoneme class, features of length, nasality and accents (rising, falling and level).

The *Sutrapatha* contains about 4000 *sutras* and is arranged in *adhyaya* (chapters) and *pada* (sub-chapters). It could be divided into four parts, for convenience of understanding – the first section (chapters 1 and 2) deals with the classification and enumeration of bases and their categories; the second section (chapters 3 -5) deals with the derivation of bases; the third section (chapter 6 -8.1) deal with the base-prefix enumeration and derivation of bases; the fourth section (chapters 8.1 – 8.4) deals with the rules of morphophonemics.

Pāṇini framed the *sutras* to organize words by formulating different techniques in about 4000 *sutras* which are verb-less sentences and appear like codes. Pāṇini developed an artificial system to analyse Sanskrit and compose its grammar. The *sutras* or the rule types are of the following seven types:

1. *Vidhi* deals with the operation or provision. One example is that simple vowels will be lengthened if they are followed by a similar vowel.
2. *Samjna* introduces class and conventions.
3. *Adhikara* deals with headings.
4. *Atidesha* refers to extensions.
5. *Niyama* enumerates the restrictions, even of other rules.
6. *Nishedha* is negation.
7. *Paribhasa* is metarule.

Dhatupatha provides the list of about 1967 verb roots that are distributed in 10 conjugations classes to undergo peculiar operations. The position of the root in the *dhatupatha* is the morphological processing. *Ganapatha* contains the primitive nominal bases, including 23 pronouns. Pāṇini employs the derivational process to generate complete syntactic words called *padas*. The *Aṣṭādhyāyī* of Pāṇini is the first attempt at a complete description of a language. The crux of Pāṇini's grammar is concerned with the derivation of words in the context of a sentence. It was for the first time in history that explicit conventions and rules were laid out for language.

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Ashtadhyayi is a complex and difficult book that was taught orally. This explains the focus on brevity over clarity. It is a system of linguistic descriptions, including metarules, lexical lists, a phonological list, and a list of additional affixes. These reveal the rules that govern the syntax and principles that decide the rules. Many rules in the *Ashtadhyayi* explicitly establish conventions of speech-form reference used throughout the grammar. The rules in *Ashtadhyayi* are complicated. The ideas in one rule can carry over to the next or to many others. Some words used in the work have specialized meanings. Moreover, one rule might control other rules. Sound classes, rule-base and lexicons are components of Ashtadhyayi.

Ashtadhyayi is generative (refer to module III) in its approach as much as it is descriptive. Two reasons make this work important for linguistic computation. First that it gives a detailed and rule-based detail of Sanskrit and second that the grammatical model provided by this book explains a functional Natural Language Processing system. The analysis of pronunciation dealt with by Pāṇini is comparable to twentieth-century Western linguistics. The complex metarules, transformations, and recursions mentioned in *Ashtadhyayi* makes it analogous to the Turing machine which is an idealized Mathematical model and reduces the logical structure of any computing device to its essentials.

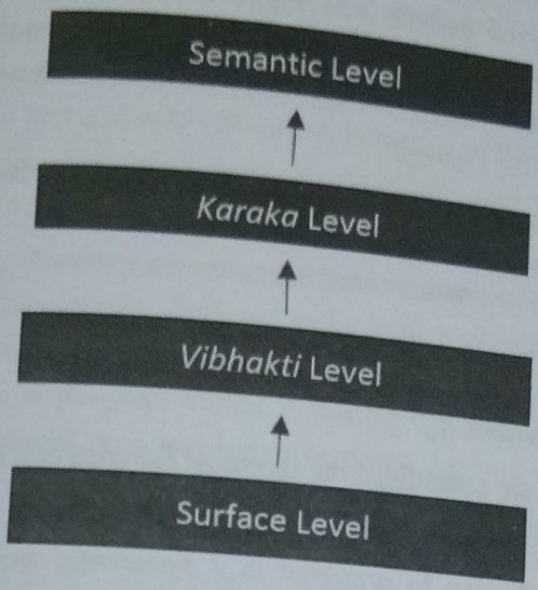
As mentioned above, Pāṇini provides detailed interpretations of Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, and Semantics. His work provides scientific analysis and description of Sanskrit. Pāṇini's grammar observes language from the perspective of the speaker and the listener. Pāṇini proposes that the listener comprehends the entire sentence in the first place and positions the meaning of the word in the context only later. This perspective argues that only when words come together through a formal process, do they generate the meaning of the sentence. Thereby, it is said that sentences carry the real syntactic meaning and not individual words. And in the comprehension of the meaning of the sentence involves both its semantic and syntactic aspects.

Pāṇini brings in sentence analysis on various levels to provide interpretation. The superficial construction of a sentence is termed the surface level while the intentions of the speaker in uttering the sentence are known as the semantic level. While the former is purely dependent on morphology,

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the latter is semantic. Between these two levels of sentence analysis, Pāṇini considers two more levels – ***Karaka*** and *Vibhakti*.



The various levels of sentence processing, according to Pāṇini.

In Sanskrit grammar, *Vibhakti* is a word suffix that helps in identifying the participants, gender and form of the word. For verbs, *Vibhakti* includes verb form and auxiliary verbs. At the next level, that is, the *Karaka* level the relation of the participant noun in the action to the verb is analysed. The *Karaka* relations are established between the verb and other constituent nouns in the sentence. The semantics of the language is processed at the *Karaka* level and it is represented at the syntactic level.

The verb is central to Pāṇini's grammar and is considered the binding element of the sentence. In the *sutra* P.1.4.23 of *Ashtadhyayi,* Pāṇin mentions the theory of ***Karaka.*** It defines a sentence in terms of the *kriya* (action/ verb) and *karaka* (factor/action) and their relations (*anvaya/samsarga).* The etymological meaning of the word *Karaka* is "one who does something" or one who performs. The one who is related to the action (performer, receiver or aid to the performance) is the *karaka. Kriya* and *karaka* are mutually exclusive as one call for the existence of the other. *Karakas* are intermediate

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syntactic structures. Thus, this theory explains the situation in terms of action and factors that result in the action.

Pāṇini's theory of *karaka* was supported by another great linguist Patanjali, who came after him. Based on the direct and continuous relationship between the verb and the nominal, Sanskrit has six different types of *Karaka* relations.

1. *Karta/ Karttr*(used to perform action independently on its own).
2. *Karmma/Karma* (is the locus of the result)
3. *Karana*
4. *Sampradana*
5. *Apadana*
6. *Adhara/Adhikarana.*

The first three are considered the foremost *Karakas* and the last three are known as the influenced *Karakas.*

Pāṇini's contribution to grammar is a systematic work and employs generalization to capture general and specific details of the language. Along with the general rules, exceptions in the language are also mentioned. *Ashtadhyayi* presupposes an analysis of utterances into constituent words/ *padas*, words into stems and affixes, and derivable stems into their components. It could be clearly seen that when linguistic constructions are broken into constituent parts, a hierarchy could be seen. *Ashtadhyayi* is generative (refer to module III) in its approach as much as it is descriptive. Two reasons make this work important for linguistic computation. First that it gives a detailed and rule-based detail of Sanskrit and second that the grammatical model provided by this book explains a functional Natural Language Processing system. The analysis of pronunciation dealt with by Pāṇini is comparable to twentieth-century Western linguistics.

The complex metarules, transformations, and recursions mentioned in *Ashtadhyayi* makes it analogous to the Turing machine which is an idealized Mathematical model and reduces the logical structure of any computing device to its essentials. Pāṇini had formulated certain rules in such a manner that the resultant grammar is open to further generations and is open to new possibilities.

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Katyayana – Va:rttika

Kātyāyana (also spelled as Katyayana) was an Indian grammarian, a Vedic priest, and a mathematician who is believed to have lived in the fourth or third century BCE. As per the writings of Patañjali, Kātyāyana was Vararuci Kātyāyana and lived to the South of the Vindhya mountains, in India. Kātyāyana is the first and only extant commentator of Pāṇini's *Ashtadhyayi.* Bharadvaja, Krostr, Vadava, Sunaga, Vyaghrabhuti, and Vaiyaghrapada are others who wrote about Pāṇini's grammar.

Kātyāyana's observations and comments on a few of Pāṇini's *sutras* are documented as the *va:rttika.* Believed to be written around the third century BCE, this contains approximately 4300 brief statements (*va:rttikas*) to 1245 of Pāṇini's rules. A *va:rttika* means a treatise that ponders over what has been stated, not stated or is ambiguously stated. As seen in the case of the *Ashtadhyayi,* the *va:rttikas* were also composed in brief aphorisms to provide brevity for the oral teaching-learning process. The use of phonetic segments as markers attests to the aural transmission. The works of Kātyāyana have reached posterity through *Mahābhāṣya* of Patañjali.

Kātyāyana analyses the *sutras* in relation to other rules and proposes modifications. Since there was a gap of two hundred years, Kātyāyana did it to explain Pāṇini's grammar in the new context, especially when the language had undergone a natural evolution and so many of the rules seemed archaic and out of context. Moreover, many new expressions came into vogue that was not covered by Pāṇini. Thus, the *va:rttikas* provide commentaries to the *Ashtadhyayi* by explaining, criticizing and supporting. Thereby providing a new dimension according to his understanding. There are instances where Kātyāyana rectifies those *sutras* that he felt were either *anukta* (unsaid) or *durukta* (badly-said). Towards the end of the *va:rttikas*, Kātyāyana offers a humble submission to Pāṇini.

The *va:rttikas* have to be read in the context of the *sutras* since the former are written based upon the latter. The *va:rttikas* could be seen as concise notes on the *sutras.* Some scholars believe that the *va:rttikas* were written to explain the *sutras* in a better manner. *Vakyaparisamapti* is a concept that Kātyāyana introduces in his work. It means that there is an interdependency

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of the sentences in a given context and that if it is removed from the context, it will become meaningless. While some *vtts* reveal the significance of certain words in the *sutras,* some other *vtts* investigate the purpose behind the formation of the *sutras*.

Certain scholars who believe that the *va:rttikas* were written to find fault with the concepts of Pāṇini. But this claim is refuted by most scholars with the explanation that Kātyāyana's interpretations or the omissions and additions should be read in the light of the change in the language. Some constructions which were valid in the times of Pāṇini could not be accepted in the times of Kātyāyana due to the evolution of the language.

Kātyāyana's contribution to the grammatical tradition is noteworthy.

1. The *va:rttikas* brought a milestone change in grammar by emphasising the role of grammar to instruct. He said that grammar should be *dharmaniyama*, that is, the grammar that instructs certain words to be spoken due to religious merit. This concept introduced the canon of the "grammar-sanctioned words" and grammar became a sanctioning authority.
2. The view of grammar proposed by Kātyāyana positions it both as the targeted language and the rules that govern it. He added that a grammar can exist only if it considers the spoken language. This implies the changes that occur in any language. As per this particular *vrtt,* grammar is *lakshana.* It means that grammar should both describe the language and define it.
3. The third point to be noted is that the *va:rttikas* are the first treatise that introduced debate and dialogue as patterns of commentary. The *vrtts* are bigger than the *sutras* but the explanatory tone and metrical composition make it easier to learn.
4. This leads to the fourth merit. The commentarial merit of the *vrtt* lies in the justifications it provides to the *sutras*.
5. Kātyāyana, then, provided some new methods for interpreting the *sutras* by the method of *yogavibhaga*, that is, splitting a rule.
6. The way in which Kātyāyana extended the scope of the *sutras* to cover contemporary usages is highly relevant. This is a very pertinent contribution to grammar.

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7. On the other hand, the *vrtts* also have restricted the scope of the words from the *sutras* by virtue of their meaning.
8. Kātyāyana brings proper definitions to certain *sutras*.
9. The definition of *vakya*as a group of words containing one finite verbal form was brought in the *vrtts*.
10. The *va:rttikas*gave validity or grammatical correctness (*sadhutva)* to certain forms that were not mentioned by Pāṇini.
11. Certain *vrtts* enable a better understanding of the *sutras*. They are called the *paribhasavtts*.

Kātyāyana's*va:rttikas* stated that a word (*sabda)*, its meaning (*artha*), and their relationship is not produced by any agency like the speech community or grammar. He proposed that these are implicit and eternal. Grammatical correctness was associated with the purity of *dharma*. One major highlight of Kātyāyana's concept was his proposition on long vowels. He said that, though long vowels appear to be like a cluster of two short ones, they should be seen as separate integral entities and not as a cluster. He stated that although a syllable is meaningless in itself, when it appears in a sequence, and is recognised as a root or stem or suffix, it bears meaning.

The contribution of Kātyāyana's *va:rttikas* is in promoting three different viewpoints – the language, grammar, and philosophy. From the perspective of language, it vouched for the authenticity of the words beings used. The introduction of new suffixes is the contribution to grammar. The most revolutionary point of view is the philosophical one that the *vtts* have stated. It says that the word is eternal in its meaning and relationship.

Patanjali - Mahabhasya

Patañjali(also known as Gonardiya or Gonikaputra) is the third sage in the "holy trinity" of Sanskrit grammar. His *Mahabhashya* is written as a commentary on select rules of grammar in the works of Pāṇini and Kātyāyana – the two other grammarians. The work is a wide and lasting influence and thus, with Patañjali the Indian linguistic tradition reached a definite form. Patañjali is believed to have lived and written in the second century BCE. Patañjali is also credited with the *Yogasutras* or the Yoga thought.

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The original title of his most important work is *Vyakaranamahabhashya* and is popularly known as ***Mahabhashya***. *Bhashya*means commentary, and thus the title refers to "a commentary on the analysis of words". Its relevance in the history of Indian linguistics makes it the "grand commentary". The *Mahabhashya*is written in the form of a conversation between a student (*sisya)*, a master who knows only a part of the topics that are being discussed (*acaryadesiya*), and a master who established the ultimate true perspective (*acarya, siddhantin*). It is an important dialectic instrument written in powerful yet simple prose.

*Mahabhashya*deals, in detail, with *shiksha* (phonology, including accent), and *vyakarana* (grammar and morphology). Patañjali engages in providing semantic explanations by discussing the *niruka*, that is, the etymology. His enunciation of grammar is achieved by examining both the works of Pāṇini and Kātyāyana. Patañjali debates the matter and authenticity of the *sutras* and the *va:rttikas.* To illustrate these, he gave examples and counter-examples, as needed. He elaborated upon the semantic discourse in grammar as presented by Kātyāyana, thereby, combining the philosophy of grammar with his studies. At the same time, *Mahabhashya* addresses questions concerning the engagement of language in the past, and looks forward to the future by discussing imminent linguistic concerns.

Mahabhashya, in its present form, is divided into eighty-five sections called *ahnika* that are documented as daily study matter. The book deals with 1228 of the 3981 *sutras* of Pāṇini's famous treatise, which are divided into thirty-two *padas*. It begins with the statement – "now commences the science of grammar". This testifies that Patañjali has provided a critical and scientific treatment to Sanskrit grammar. The science of grammar developed by Patañjali could be seen divided into three different branches – formation of words, determination of meaning, and the connection between word and meaning.

Patañjali's comments on the previous testaments on grammar are known as *isti*. The language of *Mahabhashya* is replete with many maxims of interpretation and is known as *paribhasas.* There are many illustrative maxims, as well, which are known as *Laukikanyayas.* The scholarly interpretations and studies of Patañjali are included in separate categories

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called *Ahnikas*. These possess great semantic relevance and are constituted of the *Pratipdikasamajnahnika*, the *ekasahnika*, the *karakahnika*, the *samarthahnika*, and the *lakararthahnika*.

As mentioned above, Patañjali discusses the problems of grammar in a conversational, yet contained manner. *Mahabhashya*takes from Kātyāyana's semantic discourse on grammar and brings in a philosophical perspective of grammar. The way in which Patañjali formulated his treatise has secured it a commanding position in Indian linguistics and has not been refuted to date.

Bharthruhari – *Vakyapadiya* – *Sphota* theory

Bharthruhari was an ancient poet, grammarian and philosopher who is believed to have lived in the fifth century in Ujjain. The two prominent works ascribed to him are *Vakyapadiya* and *Mahabhasyadipika*. Etymologically the former means "Work dealing with sentences and words", and the latter means "Light on the Great commentary". Bharthruhari's works are the earliest works written as commentaries to Patanjali's *Mahabhasya*. As mentioned earlier in this module, ancient Indian linguistics was based on the *Vedas* and Bharthruhari's philosophy is based upon the same and suggests that the study of grammar is a path to salvation. The metaphysical conceptualization of grammar by Bharthruhari takes from many disciplines and has a lasting influence on thinkers who came after him.

Vakyapadiya addresses both general linguistics and pure Sanskrit grammar. The host of topics on linguistics includes the concept of sentence, word, action, tense, gender, and number; the ways of understanding meaning, the meaning of linguistic units, and the phenomenon of autonymy. Bharthruhari wrote in the perspective of other schools of thought and tried to accommodate those theories with respect to his own concepts.

Bharthruhari discusses both the grammatical and philosophical problems of language, especially sentences and words. He argued that grammar can be considered a *darshana* (philosophy). Bharthruhari said that the fundamental essence of all things (*artha*) was formed by the word (*sabda*). He, further, proposed that any whole is more real than its constituents. Linguistically, he positioned the sentence (*Vakya)* above the constituents – phoneme (*Varna)* and word (*pada)*.

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Vakyapadiya is structured into three chapters/*khanda* and is known as *Trikhandi*. The first one is *Bhrahmakanda* and deals with the *Brahman*, that is, the Ultimate Reality, as per the *Vedas*. Here, he discusses the nature of Creation. The second chapter is the *Vakyakanda* which elaborates on *Vakya-sphota*. This chapter deals with the unitary meaning of the sentence, while the differentiation of the sentence and the words. Bharthruhari has written *Tika* (description of the first two *Kandas*) to explain his ideas related to *sabda Brahman* and *Sphota* theory. The third chapter deals with the analysis of words (that is, parts of speech) and their differentiation.

Bharthruhari's philosophy of language is based on a monistic and idealistic metaphysical theory. The *Brhaminic*view of the cosmos believes that the *Vedas* possess the quality of constant and cyclic creation and dissolution. The divine word (*Vak*) is believed to be the beginning point of each cycle. Bharthruhari considers *Brahman* as the basis of reality and something without a beginning or an end, that is *anadinidhanam*. It is termed as a concept beyond temporal sequences of events. Bharthruhari applies it to the word-principle and formulates his concept of the phonemes as eternally possible elements that can be combined in infinite ways to express the multiplicity of nature.

Bharthruhari, further, connects this with the plurality of creation. The different levels that he enumerates are that of consciousness, cognition, sensation, language use, cognitive and experiential aspects of the world. These external realities are all interlinked through words. Bharthruhari says that without words nothing is identifiable or knowable and thus, the word principle causes the world. It is only through a proper understanding of speech that conventional or spiritual understandings are possible. He defines this concept on four levels – sentences and words; meanings of sentences and words; compatibility between sound and sense; spiritual merit through correct language.

It is from this concept that Bharthruhari positions the word as the *Brahman*. He said that *Sabdatattva* (transcendental word-essence) is the first principle of the Universe and it does not change and is eternal. This ultimate reality is termed *Sabda Brahman*. He further said that the *Sabdatattva* creates the phenomenal world by the power of *Kadasakti*. In alignment with the

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Vedas, Bharthruhari says that the *Akasa* evolved from the *Sabdatattva* and later came the *panchabhutas*(the five elements) from the *Akasa*. Finally, he proposed that the *sabda Brahman* creates the whole Universe.

*Sabda*or *Veda* is positioned as the highest valid knowledge by Bharthruhari. He said that a word can carry multiple meanings and it is the duty of the grammarian to explain it. He classified the process of understanding into three. First, a word has an intrinsic power to convey one or more meanings (*abhidha*). Second, it is the intention of the speaker which determines the particular meaning (*abhisamdhana*) in a given context. Third, the actual manifestation (*viniyoga)* of the word and its utterance. Bharthruhari added that in the case of many meanings, the one in common usage (*prasiddhi*) had to be considered as the primary meaning.

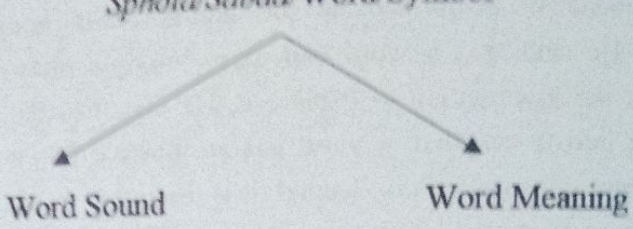
Bharthruhari divided speech into three stages: *Pashyanti, Madhyama,* and *Vaikhari. Pashyanti* refers to the visual image of the word and precedes mental and verbal expression. It is termed the first moment of cognition when there is a desire to know. In this stage, there is no difference between the object/*vachya* and the word/*vachaka*. *Madhyama* is an intellectual process wherein the speaker becomes aware of the word as it arises within and leads to grasping. It is the intermediate stage of thinking. *Sabda* appears in a subtle manner in this stage. In this stage, the word and meaning are grasped in a subject-object relationship.

Vaikhari is the final and articulated phase of speech. The *vac* receives subtler expressions when the sound/*nada* is received in the intellect and is comprehended by the listener. In this stage, the word is rendered into audible sounds. As per this theory, *vac* takes birth in consciousness and then moves on to cognizable forms by passing through different stages.

The greatest contribution of Bharthruhari was the concept of ***Sphota.*** This is the most advanced among the various theories in linguistics. The concept of *sphota* holds an important position in the grammatical tradition of *Vyakarana*. It has been dealt with by many grammarians before Bharthruhari. Pāṇini refers to *sphotayana* but was dealt with more by Patañjali. For him, *sphota* signifies spoken language. Bharthruhari modified Patañjali's concept and proposed that linguistic units can be conceived of as different from the

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sounds that expose them. For Bharthruhari, meaning is conveyed by the sentence. He labelled these sounds as the meaning-bearers and called them *sphota*.



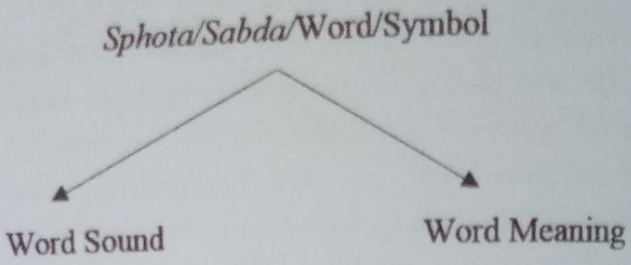
Sphota is derived from the Sanskrit word *Sphut* which means "to burst forth or disclose". Traditionally. *Sphota* is believed to be manifested by the word sound and to be revealed by the word meaning. It is in the first *khanda* of *Vakyapadia* that Bharthruhari introduces the concept of *sabdasphota* – the inner unity of *sabda* (word/sentence) that conveys the meaning - *artha*. He said that *sphota* originates in the mind of the speaker and re-manifests in the mind of the listener. *Sphota* is denoted as the meaning-bearing aspect of the language, through which the *artha* (meaning) of the sentence emerges in its fullness.

Bharthruhari defines *sphota* as the internal aspect and true intent/purpose of the sentence/*sabda*. He envisages *dhvani* only as the articulated sound pattern and the instrument through which the inner essence, that is, the *sphota* is communicated. Moreover, it is only through the cognition of the *sphota* that anyone can achieve a perfect understanding of the complete and true meaning of a sentence. Like the *brahman, sphota* is indivisible and does not vary. The variations of speed or accent do not alter the *sphota* of a word.

To explain the relation and difference between the sphota and nada, Bharthruhari uses the example of the moon and its reflection on the surface of the water. The object (moon) and its image (reflection) are related by virtue of the reflective surface (water). And the movement of the reflection does not strictly mean the reflection of the moon. It could mean that there is movement in the water. But as the movement of the image gives an impression of the movement of the moon, *sphota* acquires the properties of uttered speech. It is through the properties like sequence, or loudness that speech is manifested.

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sounds that expose them. For Bharthruhari, meaning is conveyed by the sentence. He labelled these sounds as the meaning-bearers and called them *sphota.*



Sphota is derived from the Sanskrit word *Sphut* which means "to burst forth or disclose". Traditionally. *Sphota* is believed to be manifested by the word sound and to be revealed by the word meaning. It is in the first *khanda* of *Vakyapadia* that Bharthruhari introduces the concept of *sabdasphota* – the inner unity of *sabda* (word/sentence) that conveys the meaning - *artha*. He said that *sphota* originates in the mind of the speaker and re-manifests in the mind of the listener. *Sphota* is denoted as the meaning-bearing aspect of the language, through which the *artha* (meaning) of the sentence emerges in its fullness.

Bharthruhari defines *sphota* as the internal aspect and true intent/purpose of the sentence/*sabda*. He envisages *dhvani* only as the articulated sound pattern and the instrument through which the inner essence, that is, the *sphota* is communicated. Moreover, it is only through the cognition of the *sphota* that anyone can achieve a perfect understanding of the complete and true meaning of a sentence. Like the *brahman, sphota* is indivisible and does not vary. The variations of speed or accent do not alter the *sphota* of a word.

To explain the relation and difference between the sphota and nada, Bharthruhari uses the example of the moon and its reflection on the surface of the water. The object (moon) and its image (reflection) are related by virtue of the reflective surface (water). And the movement of the reflection does not strictly mean the reflection of the moon. It could mean that there is movement in the water. But as the movement of the image gives an impression of the movement of the moon, *sphota* acquires the properties of uttered speech. It is through the properties like sequence, or loudness that speech is manifested.

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Sphota is an important term in Indian linguistic tradition and cannot easily be translated into English. It has two-fold manifestation – as something that expresses a meaning (word) and as something that is made explicit by letters or sounds (meaning). Thus, *sphota* is manifested by the word sound and also, reveals the word meaning. It is both the word and its meaning, thereby, possessing both external and internal qualities.

Influence on Modern Linguistics

As mentioned in the third module, linguistics as a branch developed in the West only in the twentieth century. It was the studies of Ferdinand de Saussure that revolutionised the study of language. Saussure was greatly influenced by the study of Sanskrit grammar and based most of his concepts on ancient Indian linguistics. The *Vedas* were considered sacred in the Indian system and were transmitted orally. As the purity of the *Vedas* had to be maintained, great importance was given to the accurate description of the sounds. This was the major concern of the phoneticians, while the grammarians created systematic grammar for the language.

The system of memorising sacred texts was instrumental in the growth of a strong linguistical study. As seen above, a sophisticated system of phonetics was developed to uphold the relevance of the Vedic ritual. There was proper development of sounds into phonemes. Grammar was well developed and an extensive branch of study. The language was studied against literary as well as philosophical backgrounds.

The widely developed system of Indian linguistics comprised of phonetics, phonology and morphology. Noam Chomsky's generative grammar is inspired by the Indian linguistic tradition which had a semantic study of words as well as sentences. The sentence as a unit of analysis in Chomsky owes greatly to the Indian tradition. *Sandhi* a term that means "joining together" forms part of the Indian linguistic enquiry where the phonological and phonetic study of words as isolated entities and parts of the sentence are considered is another concept that had inspired Western linguistics.

In Western linguistics, there is a difference between phonetics and phonology, which is inspired by the concepts of *dhvani* and *sphota*. This deals with the relation between perceived utterance and meaningful articulated

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language. The segmental phonemic lines seen in the Sanskrit alphabet existed much before the corresponding growth in the West. Generative grammar is indebted to the Indian linguistic tradition where the verb was the core of a sentence and other words were in relation to it.

Indian linguistics had well-developed studies in phonetics, phonology and morphology. The theories of Saussure, Leonard Bloomfield and Roman Jakobson were influenced by various grammarians including Panini, Patanjali, and Bharthruhari. Important concepts like *sphota* had a direct influence on Saussure's concepts of sign, signifier, and signified. The metaphysical view of language is also indebted to ancient Indian linguistics. The analysis of the sentence into various parts was an important aspect of Indian linguistics and contributed to the generative view of Western linguistics. Even the study of grammar in Western linguistics grew beyond conventional rigid rules only after the influence of the ancient system of Indian linguistics.

Questions

I. Answer the following in a word or sentence. (1 mark each)

1. Primary concern of linguistic studies in ancient India aimed at ..... the vedas.
2. ..... and ..... were important elements in preserving the authority of words.
3. Which language was considered higher by the scriptures?
4. Linguistic features were studied as ..... in ancient India.
5. Guidelines for correct pronunciation were included in .....
6. Coalescence of sounds in context is known as .....
7. Ferdinand de Saussure was a scholar of .....
8. Study of linguistics in India is divided into ..... and ..... phases.
9. ..... is the most important work by Panini.
10. How many rules are contained in *Ashtadhyayi*?
11. The *sutras* are of ..... types.
12. *Ashtadhyayi* was taught .....
13. *Vibhakti* is a ..... that helps in identifying the participants, gender, and form of the word.
14. There are ..... different *karaka* relations in Sanskrit.

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