



ਜਗਤ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ
ਪੰਜਾਬ ਸਟੇਟ ਓਪਨ ਯੂਨੀਵਰਸਿਟੀ
ਪਟਿਆਲਾ

JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY, PATIALA

(Established by Act No. 19 of 2019 of the Legislature of State of Punjab)

**The Motto of the University
(SEWA)**

SKILL ENHANCEMENT

EMPLOYABILITY

WISDOM

ACCESSIBILITY



**M.A. English
Semester – II**

Course Code: MAEM23204T

**Course Name: Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics and
Communication Skills**

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PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY PATIALA
(Established by Act No.19 of 2019 of Legislature of the State of Punjab)

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Course Code: MAEM23204T

Course: BASICS OF LINGUISTICS, PHONETICS AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Programme Coordinator

Dr. Navleen Multani

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Course Coordinator and Editor

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Course Outcome :

Enhanced understanding about language

Knowledge about language variation

Processes of language acquisition

Importance of pragmatics and Discourse Analysis

Production of Speech Sounds and Pronunciation



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PREFACE

Jagat Guru Nanak Dev Punjab State Open University, Patiala, established in December 2019 by Act 19 of the Legislature of State of Punjab, is the first and only Open University of the State, entrusted with the responsibility of making higher education accessible to all especially to those sections of society who do not have the means, time or opportunity to pursue regular education.

In keeping with the nature of an Open University, this University provides a flexible education system to suit every need. The time given to complete a programme is double the duration of a regular mode programme. Well-designed study material has been prepared in consultation with experts in their respective fields.

The University offers programmes which have been designed to provide relevant, skill-based and employability-enhancing education. The study material provided in this booklet is self-instructional, with self-assessment exercises, and recommendations for further readings. The syllabus has been divided in sections, and provided as units for simplification.

The Learner Support Centres/Study Centres are located in the Government and Government aided colleges of Punjab, to enable students to make use of reading facilities, and for curriculum-based counselling and practicals. We, at the University, welcome you to be a part of this institution of knowledge.

Prof. G. S. Batra,
Dean Academic Affairs

M.A. English
Semester – II
MAEM23204T: Basics Of Linguistics, Phonetics And
Communication Skills

MAX. MARKS: 100
EXTERNAL: 70
INTERNAL: 30
PASS: 40%
Credits: 5

Objective:

The primary objective of this course is to examine the features of language units at phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. Besides, the knowledge and understanding of how a language works and how we communicate, and the skills developed along the way, it will give the learners a solid foundation for a wide range of careers.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE PAPER SETTER/EXAMINER:

1. The syllabus prescribed should be strictly adhered to.
2. The question paper will consist of five sections: A, B, C, D, and E. Sections A, B, C, and D will have two questions from the respective sections of the syllabus and will carry 15 marks each. The candidates will attempt one question from each section.
3. Section E will have four short answer questions covering the entire syllabus. Each question will carry 5 marks. Candidates will attempt any two questions from this section.
4. The examiner shall give a clear instruction to the candidates to attempt questions only at one place and only once. Second or subsequent attempts, unless the earlier ones have been crossed out, shall not be evaluated.
5. The duration of each paper will be three hours.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CANDIDATES:

Candidates are required to attempt any one question each from the sections A, B, C, and D of the question paper and any two short questions from Section E. They have to attempt questions only at one place and only once. Second or subsequent attempts, unless the earlier ones have been crossed out, shall not be evaluated.

Section - A

General Linguistics

What is Language?

Characteristics of Language

Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics

Language Variation

Morphology and Word Formation

Section - B

Applied Linguistics

Introduction to Applied Linguistics

Multilingualism and Language Learning (First Language Acquisition, Second Language Acquisition)

Disabilities

Behaviourism and Language Teaching

Semantics, Pragmatics, and Discourse Analysis

Section - C

Phonetics

Introduction to Phonetics

Speech Mechanism and Organs of Speech

Classification of Speech Sounds

The IPA Symbols

Transcription

Section - D

Communication Skills

Understanding Communication

Principles of Communication

Non-verbal Communication

Listening and Speaking

Reading

Suggested Readings:

1. Jones, Gimson and Ramsaran, English Pronouncing Dictionary, 14th ed. UBS.
2. Sethi, J. and P.V. Dhamija A Course in Phonetics and Spoken English, ND: Prentice Hall of India, 1990.
3. Sethi, J. and D.V. Jindal, a Handbook of Pronunciation of English Words, ND: Prentice Hall of India, 1993.
4. Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison, Spoken English for India, ND: Orient Longman, 1972.
5. O'Connor, J.D. (1980). Better English Pronunciation (2nd ed.), Cambridge: CUP
6. Roach, Peter, English Phonetics and Phonology, Cambridge: CUP, 2000.
7. Jindal, D.V. and Pushpinder Syal, An Introduction to Linguistics, Prentice Hall India Learning Private Limited.

M.A. (English)
Course: Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics
and Communication Skills
Section A
General Linguistics

Unit 1: What is Language? & Characteristics of Language

Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Definitions of Language
- 1.3 Origin of Language
- 1.4 Characteristics of Language
- 1.5 Human and Animal Communication
- 1.6 Let us Sum up
- 1.7 Questions
- 1.8 Suggested Readings

1.0 Objectives

This unit will enable you to understand the following:

- Nature of language
- Analyze definitions of language by linguists
- Theories of origin of language
- Comprehend characteristics of language
- Appreciate uniqueness of human language

1.1 Introduction

Human beings have different requirements at the individual, social, emotional, economic and cultural levels. Language is the medium for expression of human requirements. Language enables us to reflect on the essence of existence and respond to our environment. It is used to convey ideas and reflect on complex social and cultural system. Language not only serves several systems of human relationships but also gets moulded by several operations in the system.

An infant begins communication by expressing biological needs. There is a remarkable growth in usage of language as child matures into an adult. S/he learns to respond to the environment in varying words and sentences. “Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols,” observes Sapir. Language is species-

specific and species-uniform. According to Sapir, language is possessed uniformly by human beings. Though the animals have communication system, it is not much developed.

In the initial stages of human civilization, signs with limited scope were used for communication. The human larynx or voice box and the longer cavity called pharynx along with muscular tongue and upright teeth have enabled human beings to produce numerous sounds. The evolved brain has further enhanced knowledge of human beings about the usage of special features like phonology, morphology and semantics.

1.2 Definitions of Language

Language is related to the ability of human beings to map sounds and meanings. Language cannot be defined in absolute terms. The characteristics of language enhance understanding about language. Leonard Bloomfield defines language as “the totality of utterances made in a speech community.” Language, he observes, constitutes an array of habits for responding to situations with conventional speech sounds. It also includes responses to sounds in the form of action.

William Dwight Whitney considers language “the body of uttered an audible signs” by which thoughts are principally expressed in human society.

Edward Sapir defines language as “a purely non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols.”

“A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates.” Bloch and Trager, 1942

“Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which the members of a society interact in term of their local culture.” G Trager, 1949

Martin Joos holds that languages can differ abitrarily. Every language, he believes, should be studied without preconceptions.

“Language is a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed of a finite set of elements.” Noam Chomsky, 1957

“Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols.” Hall, 1969

“Audible, articulate meaningful sounds are produced by the action of the vocal organs.” Webster’s Dictionary, 1971

“Language is a system of conventional spoken or written symbols by means of which human beings as members of social group and participants in its culture communicate.” Encyclopaedia Britannica

“Languages are the principal systems of communication used by particular groups of human beings within the particular society (linguistic community) of which they are members.” Lyons, 1970

“Language is a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation.” Noam Chomsky, 1983

“Language is a symbol system based on pure or arbitrary conventions infinitely extendable and modifiable according to the changing needs and conditions of the speakers.” Robins, 1985

Language is a system in which sounds join to form syllables and words. Words combine to form sentences. The formation of words is arbitrary and conventions make them part of language system.

1.3 Origin of Language

Did you ever think about the connection between activities of chewing and speaking? Mac Neillage (1998) observes “Chewing, licking and sucking are extremely widespread mammalian activities, which, in terms of casual observation, have obvious similarities with speech.” All these activities involve mouth, tongue and lips in some controlled manner. This connection, therefore, is not improbable. There are many speculations about the origin of language. Based on the merits of some speculations, a few theories about origin of language are as follows:

The Divine Source

In most of the religions, there appears to be a divine source providing language to human beings. Language, according to Hindu tradition, came from wife of Brahma (creator of the universe), Saraswati. God, in Biblical tradition, created Adam and “whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof.” Attempts to rediscover original divine language yielded conflicting results. The basic belief was that human infants who grew without hearing any language spontaneously used the original God-given language.

More than 2500 years ago, an Egyptian pharaoh named Psammetichus, tried an experiment with two newborn babies who were left in the company of goats and a mute shepherd. It was observed that children did not utter any Egyptian word but *bekos* (meaning bread), Phrygian word. Several commentators pointed out that they must have heard what the goats were saying. King James the fourth of Scotland carried out a similar experiment. It was reported that the isolated children, with no human contact, started speaking Hebrew. These experiments do not confirm to divine source theory.

The Natural Sound Source

According to another belief, language is based on natural sounds. It is assumed that primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds which early human beings heard around them. Whenever the early man saw an object flying with a Kaka or cuckoo sound, he tried imitating the sound to refer to things associated with the sound. Every modern language has a few words with pronunciations that echo naturally occurring sounds. In addition to cuckoo, we have words like splash, bang, boom, rattle, buzz, his screech in the English language. We also have the forms such as Bow Wow. This kind of opinion about the origin of language is known as the Bow-Wow theory. Many words in the language are onomatopoeic, echoing natural sounds. There are soundless as well as abstract things in the world which have to be referred to in a language.

Natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy are also original sounds. Presumably, Ouch is associated with pain. Interjections, such as a wow or yuck, are produced with sudden intakes of breath. These are opposite to the ordinary talk. Spoken language of human beings is produced on exhaled breath. Emotional reactions are sounds which are not otherwise used in speech production. These noises or words cannot be regarded as source sounds for language.

Another opinion about the origin of language is known as “yo- he-ho” theory. This theory believes that sounds emanate from physical effort in coordinated movements. The grunts, groans and curses early humans might have developed when they were lifting and carrying large logs of trees or lifeless mammoths developed new sounds. According to this theory, human sounds developed in a social context. This is a significant idea that may be related to the users of sounds produced by human beings. This theory also does not ascertain origins of sounds because apes/primates also have grunts and social calls. Primates do not have developed capacity to speak.

The Physical Adaptation Source

Human beings have distinct physical features that support speech production. Besides the physical changes that took place, the vocal tract of Neanderthal also got reconstructed. The partial adaptations of the system for speaking are a part of the evolutionary development of human beings. They are streamlined versions of primates. The upright teeth of human beings are helpful in making sounds such as for *v*. Human lips are flexible to make sounds like *p* or *b*. The human mouth is smaller in comparison to other primates. It can be opened and closed quickly. The mouth contains a small thick muscular tongue which shapes a wide variety of sounds in the oral cavity. The human larynx or voice box is differently placed. Human voice box is different from the larynx of other primates such as monkeys. The upright posture, the dropped larynx and the longer pharynx above the vocal cords which acts as a resonator increases the range and clarity of the sounds produced.

The Human Brain

Human brain has two hemispheres. It controls motor movements in things like speaking and object manipulation. The left hemisphere of brain is responsible for these movements. There seems to be an evolutionary connection between the language using and tool using abilities of human beings as both these involved in the development of speaking brain. Every language has signs that require organisations and combination of sounds or signs in a specific arrangement. We have developed part of a brain that specialises in creating sounds. Human beings may have first developed the ability to name by producing a specific and consistent noise for an object. Addition of another specific noise Anna combination with the first built a complex message. Humans, over the years, have honed this message building capacity.

The Genetic Source

Human beings, as per an investigation, possess language gene. This innateness hypothesis points to the fact that there is an automatic set of development and complexity in language as a child grows. Physical adaptations of species over the time are also a source of the language. Deaf children become fluent sign language users in given circumstances. This indicates that human offsprings are born with the special capacity for language.

1.4 Characteristics of Language

Means of Communication

Human beings communicate ideas, emotions, believes and feelings by the means of language. Gestures, nods, winks, horns, shorthand, mathematical symbols, Morse code, sirens, mimes, dancing, sketches and maps are a few ways to communicate but these are limited in one way or the other. All systems of communication depend on language. Language is an important form of communication between humans as it is flexible, comprehensive, perfect and extensive. Language is common to a specific civilization and culture. Human thoughts and philosophy are conveyed from one generation to the other with the medium of language. Language, being ubiquitous, is present in every activity. Just as it is important for human beings to breathe, it is also necessary for them to talk. Human beings are also called ‘talking animals’ (*Homo loquens*). Human beings are capable of sending infinite number of messages to their speech community. Language, therefore, is a store of knowledge that gets transferred to the next generation. It also yokes the present, past and the future together.

Arbitrariness

The inherent relation between words of a language and their meanings (all the ideas communicated by these words) cannot be determined. It is only in the case of code language that a picture of an object may represent the object. Language is arbitrary as there is no reason why an adult female is called a woman in English, *istree* (Hindi), or *Zen* (Persian), *femine* (French) or *tivvi* (Punjabi). The choice of words is arbitrary.

The selection of words is comparable to the christening of a newborn baby. Why a child is named Lila or Ramesh is just an arbitrary manner. This name remains associated with the child for his entire life. Hence, it becomes an important convention. Similarly, language possesses the same quality. The choice of words selected for a particular object or idea is purely arbitrary. Once a word is selected as particular referent, it continues to be used in the same way. The arbitrary nature of language allows some changes but these changes do not normally take place frequently. Words in the language get hardly changed because the whole society has to accept these. While the arbitrary nature of language permits change, the conventionality gives stability to language.

Though there are a few onomatopoeic words that imitate sounds, it does not rule out the fact that words in a language are arbitrary. The relationship between words and their reference is entirely arbitrary.

System of systems

It is important for us to understand that language is not chaotic combination of sounds. Language is neither amorphous nor disorganised. Just as several bricks are used in an organised manner to construct a building, sounds and graphic symbols are arranged in a systematic order of meaningful units called words. Words, similarly, are arranged in the particular system to frame meaningful sentences. These systems operate at the level of phonology and syntax. The sounds of a language appear in some fixed combinations at the phonological level. For example no word starts with *zl,lr* or *bz* combination. Though there are several English words which have initial consonant cluster with three consonants example *spring slash string*, there are no clusters with four consonants in English. There is no word that begins with a /N/ sound or ends in an/h/sound. Words combine into sentences in accordance with the grammatical or structural rules and conventions of language. The sentence, “the hunter shot the tiger with a gun” is acceptable but “the hunter tiger a shotgun with the” is unacceptable word order. The latter sentence is unacceptable according to the conventions of language.

Language is called a system of systems because it functions on two levels. This characteristic of language is also known as duality. The duality of language makes it a complex phenomena. Every human child has to learn the conventions of language to converse and understand utterances of members in social group.

Primarily vocal

Language originates from vocal sounds produced by physiological articulatory mechanism in the human body. There were only vocal sounds in language in the beginning. Writing emerged later. Writing attempts to represent the vocal sounds. Writing is also a graphic representation of sounds of language. There are a number of languages which still exist in the spoken form only and have no written form. An infant learns to speak first and writing comes later. It is also quite noticeable that a human being speaks more than

he writes during his lifetime. The quantum of speech hence is much larger than the quantum of written material. It is because of these reasons that speech is considered to be primary and writing is secondary.

Form of Social Behaviour

By now we know that language is learnt. An infant learns to speak the language of the community or group. Or Japanese infant, if placed in an Indian family, will easily learn to speak the Indian language. He or she learns the language of the social set up in which he or she grows. Language does become a form of social behaviour.

Symbol System

We all know that symbol denotes a concrete object or event. It stands for something relatively abstract. Many times a speaker or writer communicates with others with the help of messages in the form of symbols (in speech or writing). Any receiver of the message sharing a common code with the sender of the message decodes this message clearly. The sent message in the form of symbol is interpreted as a certain meaning. Though different languages use different symbols, language is definitely a symbol system. The cross (+), for example, is a symbol signifying great sacrifice of Jesus Christ, his suffering and death on the cross. It is also a symbol of Christian. Similarly, many words stand for objects. The symbol /teibl/ stands for a wooden board with four legs.

Productivity

The grammar and syntax of the language enables human beings to create language. Men can always produce new sentences, compose new poems or produce many kinds of literature. An infinite number of sentences can be produced with the help of finite words and the framework of grammar of the language. This property or characteristic of language is known as productivity.

Interchangeability

For a proper communication of ideas, it is necessary that a speaker becomes listener and vice versa. This does not impair the functioning of language. This property of language with the help of which turn taking takes place and speaker becomes a listener or vice versa is referred to as interchangeability or reciprocity.

1.5 Human and Animal Communication

Language is primarily human, species-specific and species-uniform. All human beings, except a few deaf or dumb, uniformly possess language. Human communication is quite different from animal communication. We know that language can communicate infinite set of messages but animal communication is limited.

Animals can convey to their fellow animals if they are hungry or scared. With the use of its dance, a bee can convey the distance or direction of the source of nectar. It cannot convey the quality of the honey that is lying in this direction. A bee cannot tell another bee whether anything regarding the source of honey is 10 metres to the left or 20 metres to the right.

Human language uses distinguishable discrete and identifiable symbols but animal communication system is non-discrete. Human communication system is open. Animal communication system is closed and exists in the form of symbols. Animal communication systems permit no change, modification or addition. A cock's crow or a bee's dance is the same today as it was 2000 years ago. In the case of language new words like Sputnik, laser, software, artificial intelligence and robotics have been added making language modifiable and extendable.

Human language is structurally complex having 44 sounds which can form thousands of words. These words can be arranged in two different sentences. Every sentence has its own internal structure. On the contrary there is no structural complexity in bleating of a lamb or the cry of a monkey.

Every human child has to learn language from his elders or peers in the society. Human language is non-instinctive but the process of learning plays an important role in the acquisition of language. Bees, on the other hand, acquire the skill in dancing as human beings acquire the skill to walk. Bees do not learn any geometry: their knowledge is inbuilt and inherited. It is not so in the case of human beings who have to possess an ability to learn a language.

Animal communication is limited or related to the immediate time and place. It does not have any information about the past or the future. Animals have no pattern of multi-dimensional communication. Any pet can understand the message as related to the present but it cannot communicate what happened last evening or would take place in the next few minutes. Human languages are capable of producing messages related to present, past or future common near or distant places in a multidimensional setting. This characteristic of languages is known as displacement. Displacement allows the language users to talk about things and events which are not present in the immediate environment. Animal communication totally lacks this property. A honey bee cannot tell another bee the directions or the quality of the nectar present nearby. Language user in the human world can talk about nonexistent or imaginary things like Superman, test tube babies, cyborgs, fairies, angels, aliens and Santa Claus. This property of language allows human beings to create literature fiction, fantasy or the stream of consciousness stories.

Uses of studying language

An outline of the various characteristics of language and theories of language reveal that the entire progress of humanity depends on language. Language separates humans from animals. Language is a medium of literature, science, technology, computers, cultural exchanges between social groups. It is

ubiquitous, present everywhere in all human activities, thoughts, prayers, dreams, meditations and relations. All knowledge is transferred and stored in the form of language.

1.6 Let us Sum up

Language is a medium of communication. It cannot be understood in absolute terms. Just as we cannot define life, we cannot define language. Several definitions and characteristics of language enable us to understand the meaning and function of language. Language is an inseparable part of human society. From Stone Age to the 21st century, humanities and technology express their developments in the form of language. Human language is a form of social behaviour and a symbol system which is discrete, modifiable and extendable. It is structurally more complex than the animal communication system. Language is primarily vocal, arbitrary and a system of systems.

1.7 Questions

Q1. What is language?

Q2. Explain productivity of language?

Q3. Speech is primary and writing is secondary. Why?

Q4. Language is arbitrary. Discuss

Q5. How is human language different from animal communication?

1.8 Suggested Readings

Syal, Pushpinder and D.V. Jindal. *An Introduction to Linguistics: Language, Grammar and Semantics*. New Delhi: PHI Learning, 2012.

Yule, George. *The Study of Language*. Cambridge University Press, 2011.

**Course: Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics
and Communication Skills**
Section A
General Linguistics

Unit II: Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics

Structure

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Introduction to Linguistics

2.2 Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics

2.2.1 Langue/Parole and Competence/Performance

2.2.2 Linguistic Sign and Symbol

2.2.3 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic

2.2.4 Substance and Form

2.2.5 Diachronic and Synchronic Approaches

2.3 Language Variation

2.3.1 Diachronic Variations

2.3.2. Synchronic Variations

2.4 Let us Sum up

2.5 Questions

2.6 Suggested Readings

2.0 Objectives

This unit will build your understanding about the following:

- Linguistics
- Phenomena of language
- Approaches to language
- Variation of language in society

2.1 Introduction to Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It does not study any specific language but language in general. Linguists study language with the help of examples from particular languages. Their concern is to study ways in which language is organised to fulfill requirements of communication. It can be said linguistics is learning about language rather than learning a language. Just as a person who wants to learn about working of a cycle is different from the one who wants to learn cycling, linguistics investigates the mechanism of language. In order to be an efficient cyclist, one needs to learn about the mechanism of the

cycle also. The working of language in human life and the mechanisms of language become important for understanding because these enable us to use the language properly.

Linguistics is an empirical and objective explanation of language. Just as the scientists or biologists examine objects under a microscope, the linguist studies the components of language. Linguists observe the occurrence of speech sounds or the way in which words begin or end. Like all other phenomena language is objective as it is observable with the senses. Language can be heard with the ear and vocal organs can be seen in movement when one reads words on a page. Linguist, like chemists and biologists, classify sounds and words on basis of similarity and difference.

Linguistics is a distinct discipline that studies the language system with depth and exhaustiveness. Descriptive linguistics emphasizes on the fundamental aspects of language. According to Robins, it is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given set of speakers at a given time. Descriptive linguistics is based on the structural approach to language. It describes language systematically at all levels, phonology, grammar and semantics. Historical linguistics studies development of language in a period and causes of such changes. It describes two or more stages in the development of language. Saussure, a linguist, distinguishes stage of development of language into synchronic and diachronic changes. Lyons observes that synchronic description is non-historical and diachronic description traces historical development of language. Comparative linguistics compares historical relationship between languages. As modern languages have developed from proto-language or a parent language, comparative and historical approach of studying language discovers relationship. Though it is difficult to reconstruct proto-language, linguists compare sound similarities and occurrence of sound.

Language possesses a hierarchical structure. Each unit has small distinguishable components that combine together to form larger units of sound. The smallest distinguishable unit is called phoneme. Phonemes combine to form morphemes. Morphemes combine to form larger words. Words combine into sentences. Several sentences connect to constitute a unified piece of speech or writing known as discourse. The levels of analysis of language are: Phonetics and Phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and discourse. Phonetics studies sounds, human speech mechanism and articulation of sounds. Phonology deals with the combination of sounds into syllables and larger units.

Morphology is a combination of sounds into minimal distinctive units of meaning called morphemes. For example a morpheme 'bat' is made up of three sounds: /b/ /æ/ and /t/. It is not possible to split the morphemes as the meaning gets remove. Morphology studies rules of formation of word, as suffixes or prefixes. It also studies the changes in words at the structural level. Such changes signify a change in tense. For the example the morphemes 'take' changes to 'took' and 'taken'.

On one hand morphology is linked to phonology and on the other hand it is connected to semantics. Syntax is that level of language that studies phrases, clauses and sentences. It attempts to describe to function and role of an elements. For example:

(a) The **girl** likes ice cream.

(b) The old woman loved the **girl**.

In sentence (a) girl functions as a subject.

In sentence (b) it functions as an Object.

Sentences have to be grammatical and meaningful.

'Colourless green ideas sleep furiously' is a grammatical correct sentence but has no meaning.

Semantics is that level of language which deals with meaning. It analyses structure of meaning in a language. It shows inter-relationship between similar and different words. It is generally noticed that defining an object is simple but understanding the abstract meaning is difficult. Pragmatics is the extension of the study of meaning. It deals with contextual in particular situations. Discourse studies inter-sentential links. Cohesion and coherent are better understood with the help of discourse analysis.

Psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics and literary stylistics are different branches linguistics.

2.2 Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics

Some fundamental concepts in linguistics have been expounded by linguists in twentieth century. They try to understand language in a more systematic manner with the help of distinctions or dichotomies.

2.2.1 Langue/Parole and Competence/Performance

Two aspects of language studied by Saussure are Langue and Parole. Langue refers to rules and conventions of language which enable combination of sound, formation of words and sentence, pronunciation and meaning. Conventions are the product of social agreement. There is a similarity of sounds, words and meaning among native speaker of language.

Saussure observes:

If we embrace the sum of word-images stored in the mind of all individuals we could identify the social bond that constitutes language. It is a storehouse filled by the members of a given community through their active use, a grammatical system that has a potential existence in each brain, or more specifically, in the brains of a group of individuals.

Langue is social, set of conventions common to speakers of a language. Langue is abstract. Particular conventions in the minds of speakers of societies create the language.

Parole refers to sounds produced by individual speakers or writer. It is the physical manifestation of the abstract langue. Individual performance is equivalent to parole. Parole is concrete and makes use of physiological mechanism such as speech organs while uttering words and sentences. Langue is the legislative side of language or the law of language. Just as law maintains order, langue retains the social order and homogeneity of the language. It is relatively fixed and does not change with each individual. Parole is the executive aspect of language. It uses the law or langue for individual ends. It executes langue through individual acts of speaking and writing.

According to Saussure, langue is well-defined and can be studied. Parole is heterogeneous, unpredictable mass of speech acts that cannot be studied. Collective approval and psychological associations of signs and images seated in brain constitute langue. Parole is constituted by individual acts of speaking vary and cannot be accurately represented.

American Linguist Noam Chomsky made a similar distinction by using the terms competence and performance. A native speaker's knowledge about his language and mastery of the system of rules is referred to as competence. On the contrary, performance is the production of actual sentences in use in real life situation. Linguistic competence is speaker's knowledge of structure of language. It is a set of principles used by speaker for performance. It is a kind of code that is decoded in an individual performance. The internal grammar and ability to understand infinite number of utterances is a speaker's competence. Competence is free from interference of lapses of attention and slips of memory. Performance reflects many such lapses. Competence is ideal and gives coherent picture of language. It is difficult to get a coherent record of performance.

Saussure (1916) observe: "Speech has both an individual and a social side, and we cannot conceive of one without the other." Therefore, langue and parole enable a systematic understanding of the language.

2.2.2 Linguistic Sign and Symbol

Sign is a physical marker which carries information. It gives direct, brief and precise information. It contains more information. It is opposed to symbol which is merely and indignation. For example: the gesture of waving one's hand is a sign, but can be interpreted variously as symbolic of farewell or dismissal. Entire culture consists of sign that have special significance. The study of operation of signs in culture and society is called semiotics.

"The linguistic sign consists of two parts. The signifier and the signified or the word which signifies and the object that is signified as

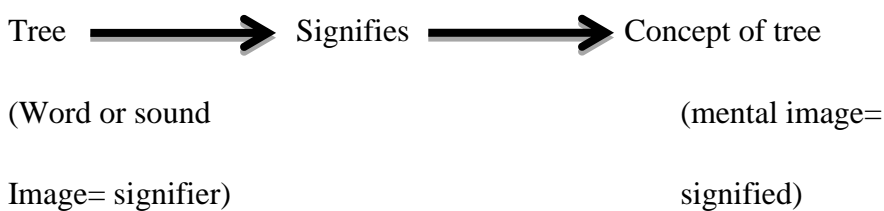
Signifies



Tree →

But the word 'tree' does not signify the actual object that is, the tree. If it did, the word for this object in all languages would have been the same, i.e. 'tree'. But we know that this object is called by different names in different languages. This means that the word 'tree' does not represent the actual object in real life. It represents the concept or the image or the object that we have in our minds. We see an object in the real world and form a concept of it in our minds. We invent a word consisting of some sound-images which we then use to represent the concept that exists in our minds. There is no logical reason why we choose a certain combination of sounds to represent the concept. So we say that the relationship between the sounds (& words) and the concept they signify is an arbitrary one.

Let us therefore modify the earlier diagram regarding sign in the following manner:



Signs exist in relation to each other and enter into complex relationship to constitute system of language. A symbol is a sign that signifies several concepts on the basis of primary relationship between signifier and signified.

2.2.3 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic

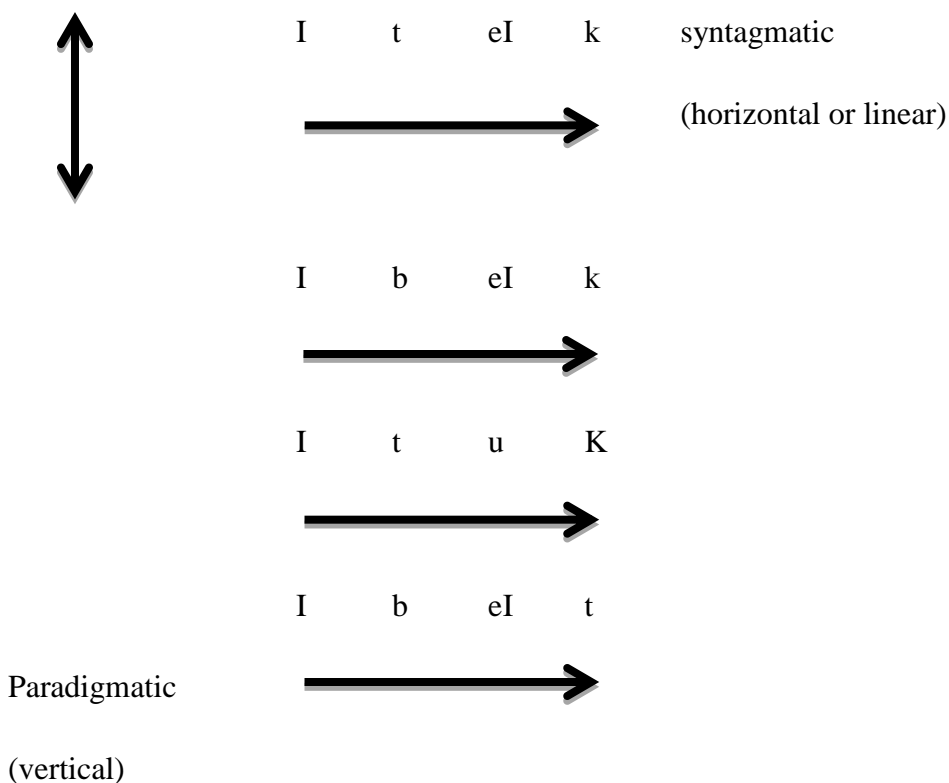
Language is structured. It is a system of systems. Sounds are interrelated to form phonological system. Words connect to form morphological system. Word classes combine to form syntactic system. Robins compares structure of language to an orchestra. Specific roles of orchestra players relate the members in and orchestra as a whole and also as smaller group within the orchestra. (e.g. group of violinists, group of bass players). Without changing the Quality of orchestra, each member performs his function by virtue of his place in relation to other players. Every member is a part of the whole and constitutes system. Every element in language combines to build up a structure. Several sounds combine in particular order according to certain rule. The relationship between these similar elements and belong to the same class in known as paradigmatic relationship. In addition to the similarity and class of the elements, a particular sequence is followed. Three elements that follow one another in a particular sequence are related in a syntagmatic relationship. This is a linear order by which a word or sentence is built up.

Paradigmatic relationship = between elements in a class or system,

Only one can operate at a time.

Syntagmatic relationship = between elements in a linear sequence, structural

Or to illustrate with an example:



In the paradigmatic relationship, /t/ can be replaced by /b/, /eI/ can be replaced by /u/, /k/ can be replaced by /t/. Each can be replaced by another element from within the same system and class. A consonant cannot be put in place of the vowel or vice versa. Rules of selection and combination operate on basis of Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relationships. These relationships are intersecting threads that build up the fabric of language. We can construct a large number of combinations with a limited number of elements.

| | | | |
|-----|------|------|-----------|
| The | boy | went | to school |
| A | boy | went | to school |
| The | boy | went | home |
| The | boy | ran | home |
| The | girl | went | to school |
| A | girl | ran | home |

Selection (paradigmatic) and combination (syntagmatic) processes enable us to construct different sentences.

2.2.4 Substance and Form

The sounds and symbols that are used for speaking and writing are known as substance of the language. They have no meaning in isolation. They acquire meaning in a particular order. Cluster of sound is

noise and has no meaning. When sounds get together to produce meaning, they are referred to as form. Substance and form impart quality to language.

2.2.5 Diachronic and Synchronic Approaches

'Chronos' stands for 'time. Diachronic and synchronic approaches study language. Language is an accumulation of linguistic activities of a language community in a specific period. The diachronic approach traces the historical development of language and records changes that have taken place at successive points in time. The synchronic approaches see language as a whole at one particular time.

2.3 Language Variation

Language manifests human behavior. It cannot remain fixed for all times. As language cannot be static, change takes place. Many a times these changes go unnoticed and gain prominence over paired of time. Change in language is a slow process. These changes in language are also linked to major political and social events. Wars, invasions and upheavals bring drastic changes in the life style and language of communities. Language remains in a state of continuous transition because of cultural transmission from one generation to another. Every generation learns language of the previous generation and finds new way of using the language.

Variations in language are studied along two dimensions: Diachronic (or historical) and synchronic (at a particular period of time). There is a difference in the English used by Chaucer, by Milton and by T.S. Eliot. There is a remarkable difference between old English (Anglo-Saxon), Middle English and Modern English. These three varieties illustrate the changes in English during the course of history. Such changes are considered to be diachronic variations. Synchronic variations in language are changes in a given period of time.

2.3.1 Diachronic Variations

(a) Spelling: Several conventions result in variety of English spelling. Example, Mouse is native spelling, Mice is a French spelling. This has been made possible by the fact that in old French (s) became (c). Under French influence, old English spellings change.

Example: myhte (might,) wys (wise)

Dropping of the final *e* in many words, spellings in Modern English changed.

(b) Silent Letters in Old English (OE).

| Old English | Modern English |
|-------------|-------------------|
| Cnight | Knight (K Silent) |

(c)Syntax: Old English has undisciplined pattern of prose. Modern English has different construction of sentence of more logical. It gives more importance to word order.

(d) Extension: A number of words in English have undergone extension. Example, journey originally meant a "day's walk/ride", and a journal was a periodical that appeared "every day". In present times, journey is a week journey and journal is half yearly or quarterly journal.

(e) Transition: Proper names got converted to common words.

Example, the word 'boycott' is derived from Captain Charles C. Boycott. He was a land agent of Lord Erne's estate, who was so treated in an attempt to get rents reduced. The word 'dunce' originated from name of a medieval writer, Duns Scotus who fell into disrepute.

(f) Euphemism: This kind of word change enables to disguise the real nature of an unpleasant idea by giving it an inoffensive name. Example, bathroom or restroom for "toilet", stout for "fat", visually challenged for blind.

(g) Change in Meaning: The meaning of a word may be changed because of repeated use in particular context. The meaning changes because the object it stood for has changed. Example, originally 'pen' stood for feather; feathers were later used for writing. Thus pen acquired a new meaning.

(h) Metathesis: Change in order of letters in a word.

| Old English | Middle English |
|-------------|----------------|
| Brid | bird |

2.3.2. Synchronic Variations

These are categorised as following:

- Varieties due to language contact
- Varieties of dialect
- Varieties of register

(a) Varieties due to language contact:

i) When a language comes in contact with another language, it gives rise to new variety of language. This new variety of language continues to co-exist along with original languages. Sociolinguistics labels these variety as 'transplanted', 'nativized' or 'indigenized'. These variety included Indian English and British English.

| Indian English | British English |
|-----------------------|------------------|
| Bed tea | Morning tea |
| Hill station | hill resort |
| Bus stop | bus station |
| Cousin brother/sister | cousin |
| Biodata | curriculum vitae |

Indian English also includes hybrid compounds like *policewallah* and *brahminhood*.

ii) **Pidgin Language:** this is a special language with very limited vocabulary and structure. Pidgin language is used for trade purposes. It is used by people who have no language in common. Example, fish traders of Indian and Sri Lanka, inhabitants of West Indies and Pacific Islands.

Pidgin language is also known as *bazaar* language. Example, 'I go go market' (Cameroon pidgin). 'I chowchow' for 'I eat' (Chinese pidgin), 'plenty man' for 'many men' (Melanesian pidgin).

iii) **Creole:** When pidgin language is used for a long period by a community, it develops its own vocabulary and structures. This developed language is known as Creole. Creole is the product of two different languages originally used by the speaker. Due to wide range of communicative functions, pidgin is restructured as Creole. Example, 'zozo' for 'bird', 'fingafoot' for 'toe', 'pikin' for 'child'.

iv) **Esperanto:** this is a theoretical language used by people all over the world. Attempts to evolve a world language based on vocabulary and codes of important languages in the world are going on. However, the attempts have not been successful.

(b) **Varieties of Dialect:** Language can vary according to the user. The variety of language determined by a speaker's social and geographical background is called a dialect. British English has numerous dialects. Example, the Lancashire dialect, the Scottish dialect, the Yorkshire dialect. Dialectical variations of language are also a consequence of social hierarchy and social class. In London, aristocrats use one variety of English and the lower class uses another variety. The Received Pronunciation (RP) is the dialect of the upper class society of England. Religion and caste, at times, conditions the dialects. Example, there is dialectal difference generated by caste in the Namboodri (the highest Hindu Brahmin of Kerala)

Phonological level differences

| | RP | General American |
|------|----------|------------------|
| Last | /lɑ :st/ | /læst/ |

| | | |
|---------|------------|-----------|
| Dance | /da : ns/ | /dæns/ |
| Missile | /'mɪsdɪl/ | /'mɪsɪl/ |
| Class | /kla:s/ | /klæs/ |
| Vitamin | /vɪtəˈmɪn/ | vɪtəˈmɪn/ |

Differences at the level of syntax

| | |
|------------------------|---------------------|
| Us | British |
| Different than | different from |
| Check that out | check up on that |
| To talk with some body | to talk to somebody |

Lexical differences

| | |
|----------|-----------|
| Gas | Petrol |
| Candy | Chocolate |
| Elevator | Lift |
| Jelly | Jam |

Morphology

| | |
|-----------|------------|
| Dive-dove | Dive-dived |
| (past) | (past) |

Graphology (spelling)

| | |
|---------|-----------|
| Program | Programme |
| Color | colour |
| Realize | realise |

Sociolect: Social Dialect is used by members of particular group of a speech community. It is concern with speaker in towns and cities.

Diglossia: Many times a speech community uses two dialects. One dialect is used for special, prestigious or formal occasions. This prestigious dialect is called the high language. Another form of dialect used for

informal purposes is referred to as lower language. The high and low languages are not allowed to intermingle. Two forms of the same dialect are known as diglossia.

Idiolect: Differences of speech between individual in a given dialect create an idiolect. No two speakers of a language speak alike. The term idiolect indicates idiosyncrasies of an individual speaker. Example, Uriah Heep in Dicken's David Copperfield repeatedly uses the word 'umble'. This is idiolect of the character.

Accent: We all speak with an accent. A few speakers have distinct or easily recognizable type of accent. Accent is restricted to the description of pronunciation. It is different from dialect which is used to describe grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of a language.

Slang: Slang is a colloquial speech. It consists of word and phrases for everyday terms used by young speaker and other groups. The word *bucks* (for dollar or money) is a slang expression.

Jargon: Jargon is special technical vocabulary specific to an area of work. Jargon maintains connections among member of a professional group (insiders). This exclusive vocabulary is essential for professionals.

(c) Varieties of Register

The variation of language that arises because of the individual's use of language depending upon the situation is called register. Register can be formal, informal, casual, frozen and static. The language used by a person in office, at home, in a party and with friends varies according to the situation. This register of language can be classified according to:

i. Field of discourse

Register of science, register of law, register journalism are variations of language according to discourse.

Example, Register of science: Equal volumes of all gases, under similar conditions of temperature and pressure, contain equal number of molecules.

Register of religion: O lord our heavenly Father! We pray to thee to have mercy on thy people.

ii. Mode of discourse

The medium, spoken or written, determines the variation of language. Telephonic conversation, mobile message, radio, television or newspaper illustrate different modes of language.

Example (Taken from Stevens)

Frozen style: Those seeking an interview should make their way at once to the upper floor by way of the staircase.

Formal style: Interview seekers should go up the stairs at once.

Casual: time you all went upstairs, now.

Intimate: Up you go, chaps.

Martin Joos (1961) give five registers of language, viz., frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate.

2.4 Let us Sum up

Langue and parole, sign and symbol, substance and form, syntagmatic and paradigmatic, synchronic and diachronic approach enable us to understand language in a better way. The same individual can make use of different variety of language depending on the situation. The study of language variation is essential for developing communicative ability of learners. The word formation processes enable learners to make use of appropriate words while communicating.

2.5 Questions

1. Define langue and differentiate between langue and parole?
2. What are diachronic changes?
3. What is Register?
4. What is the difference between register and jargon?

2.6 Suggested Readings

Syal, Pushpinder and D.V. Jindal. *An Introduction to Linguistics: Language, Grammar and Semantics*. New Delhi: PHI Learning, 2012.

Yule, George. *The Study of Language*. Cambridge University Press, 2011.

**Course: Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics
and Communication Skills
Section A
General Linguistics**

Unit III: Morphology and Word Formation

Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction to Morphology
- 3.2 Segmentation
- 3.3 Free and Bound Morphemes
- 3.4 Morphological Analysis of Words
- 3.5 Word Formation
- 3.6 Let us Sum up
- 3.7 Questions
- 3.8 Suggested Readings

3.0 Objectives

- To understand units of writing
- To know about determinate and indeterminate words
- To study relationship between morph, allomorph and morpheme
- To analyze words morphologically
- To know myriad ways to form words and improve communication skills

3.1 Introduction to Morphology

Morphology is the study of word structure and word formation. The word morphology originates from Greek word 'morph' which means form or shape and 'ology', study of something. According to Bauer,

morphology is the study of the form of words. McCharty states that area of grammar involving morphemes is called morphology. Aronoff calls morphology a mental system that deals with internal structure of words. Leiber believes that morphology is about word formation processes and ways of coining new words. Hence, morphology studies both structure of words and processes of word formation.

Word and sentence are two important units in the writing systems of a language. Word, unit of language that is spoken or written, is constituted by smaller elements. The word 'lovely' is made of two units: 'love' and 'ly'. These minimal units cannot be sub-divided into any meaningful units. The minimal meaningful unit is referred to as a morpheme. The word **unconditional** has three morphemes. The word **carpet** is a single morpheme. The units **car** and **pet** are independent morphemes but the word **carpet** has no relation with meanings of **car** and **pet**. **Carpet** is a minimal meaningful unit.

3.2 Segmentation

Systematic study of morphemes and combination of words is known as Morphology. Morpheme is short segment of language that meets three criteria:

1. It is a word or a part of a word that has meaning.
2. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.
3. It recurs in differing verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning.

Example:-

The Police reopened the investigation.

The word reopen consists of three morphemes- open (minimal unit of meaning), re- (meaning again), -ed (indicating past tense).

In the word tourists, there are three morphemes. Tour is one minimal unit of meaning, another unit is -ist (marking 'person who does something') and -s (indicating plural) is a unit of grammatical function. Many words can be divided into segments. Examples:

| | |
|-----------|-------------|
| girls | girl-s |
| cleaning | clean-ing |
| asked | ask-ed |
| unkind | un-kind |
| mangoes | mango-es |
| triweekly | tri-week-ly |

These segments are determinate. But there can also be several words which cannot be segmented. Such segments are indeterminate. Partially determinate segments also exist. Examples: children, went sang, better, worst. When a word is segmented into parts, each part is called a morph. Each morph represents a morpheme. The terms morpheme and morph are comparable to Saussure's terms form and substance. Morphemes are represented between braces. The word **went** cannot be segmented into morphs. It represents combination of two morphemes: **go** and **past**. When a particular morpheme is represented by different morphs in different environments, it is called an allomorph ('allo' means closely related). The plural morpheme in English (a combination of noun morpheme to form a plural) is represented as three allomorphs /s/, /z/, /Iz/ in different environments.

Examples: Plural morpheme, {e(s)}

/Iz/ buses, vases, bushes

/s/ maps, rats, caps

/z/ bags, boys

Another allomorph of plural in English is zero-morph. Examples: plural of sheep is sheep+ ϕ . Similarly, the present tense morpheme has three allomorphs /s/, /z/, /Iz/. Examples: Packs/s/, digs/z/, washes /Iz/. The past tense morpheme {-e(d)} has three phonologically conditioned allomorphs /t/, /d/ and /Id/.

Examples: Past morpheme {-e(d)}

/t/ booked

/d/ loved

/Id/ wanted

The term morph refers to a shape. Morph is a minimal phonetic form that has meaning. Morphs belonging to same morpheme are called allomorphs of that morpheme. The relationship of morph, allomorph and morpheme is similar to that of phone, allophone and phoneme. Through this relationship one can understand the grammatical similarity and the functional difference in a word.

Examples:

Caught = {catch}+{ed}

worse = {bad}+ {er}

3.3 Free and Bound Morphemes

There are two types of morphemes: free morphemes and bound morphemes. Free morphemes are nouns, adjectives, verbs.

Free morphemes stand on their own as independent words. Bound morphemes cannot stand alone and are attached to another form. Example, *re-*, *-ist*, *-ed*, *-s*.

| | | | | | |
|------------|------------------|------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|
| | <i>Undressed</i> | | <i>carelessness</i> | | |
| <i>Un-</i> | <i>dress</i> | <i>-ed</i> | <i>care</i> | <i>-less</i> | <i>-ness</i> |
| Prefix | stem | suffix | stem | suffix | suffix |
| (bound) | (free) | (bound) | (free) | (bound) | (bound) |

When free morpheme is used with bound morpheme, the basic word is known as stem. In many words *re-* is not a bound morpheme. Example, receive, reduce and repeat.

Free morphemes can be classified as lexical morphemes and functional morphemes. Lexical morphemes carry content. These are set of noun, adjective and verbs. Example, girl, man, tiger, look, follow, break.

Functional morphemes consist of functional words such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. Example, and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, that.

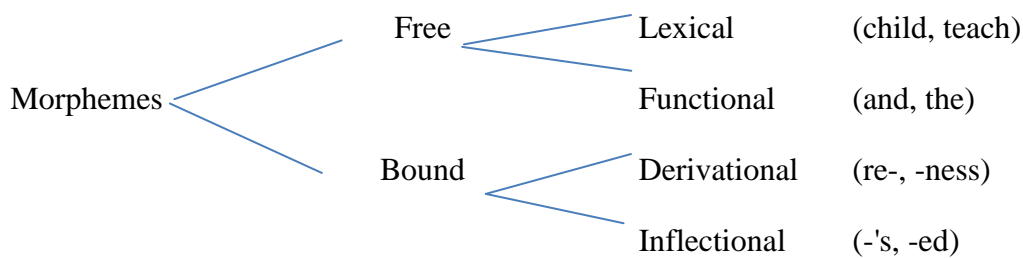
Bound morphemes can be divided into types. These are derivational morphemes and inflectional morphemes. Addition of a derivational morpheme forms a new word. The addition of derivational morpheme *-ness* to the adjective *good* forms a new word (noun) *goodness*. Inflectional morphemes do not produce new words but indicate the grammatical function of a word. They indicate number, tense, comparison and possessive form of the lexical item.

Inflectional Morphemes

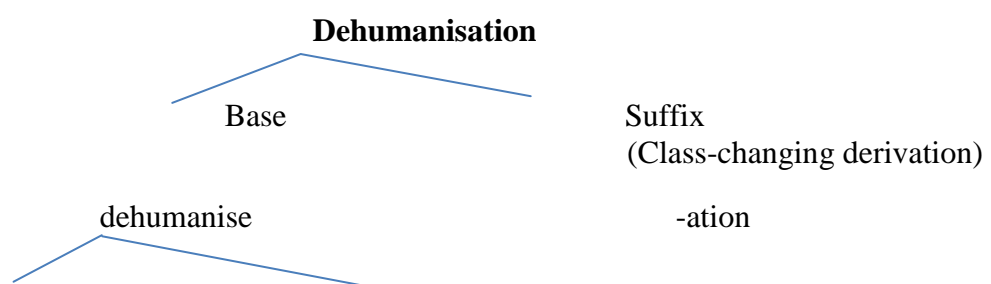
Noun + *-s, -es*

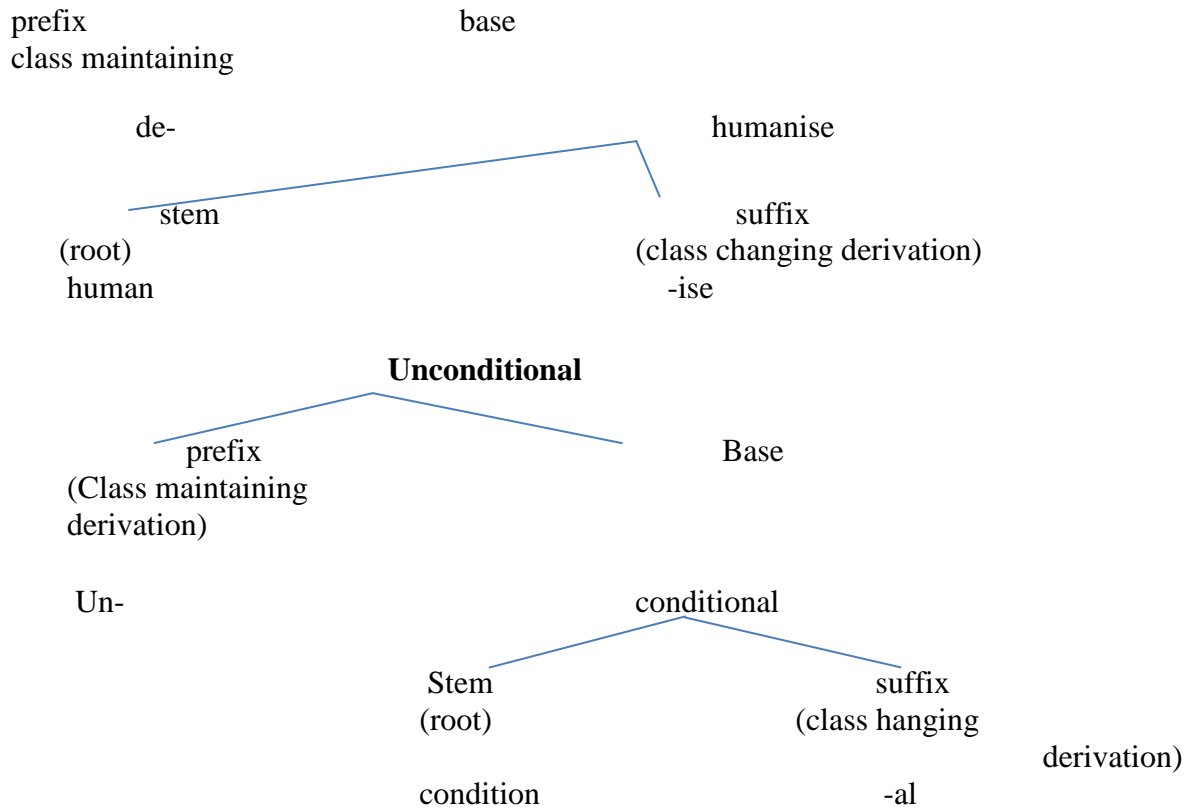
Verb + *-s, -ing, -ed, -en*

Adjective + *-est, -er*



3.4 Morphological Analysis of Words





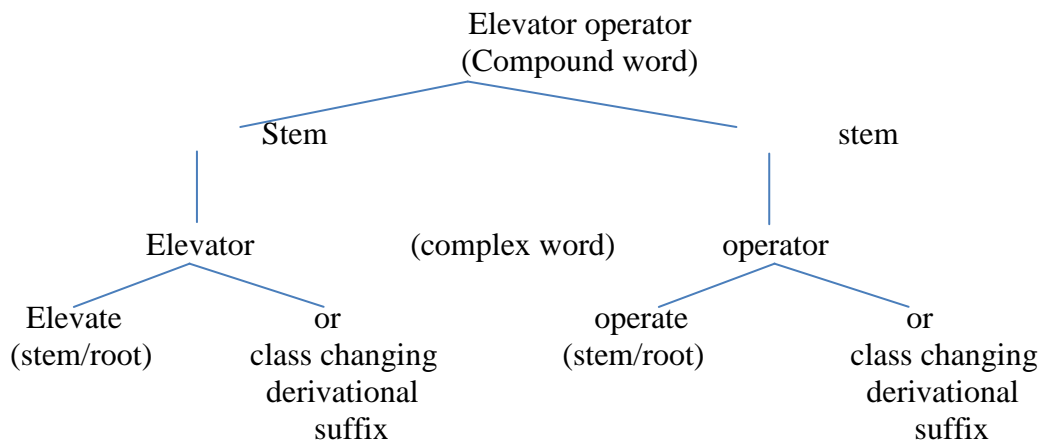
Structure of Word

Based on the morpheme constituents, words can be categorised as simple, compound and complex.

Simple words consist of single free morpheme followed, or not, by inflectional suffix. Examples: play, plays

Complex words consist of a base and derivational affix. Examples: goodness, determination, enlightenment, respectively

Compound words consist of two or more free stems which are independent words. Examples: elevator-operator



3.5 Word Formation

New words regularly emerge in language due to word formation processes. Following are the word formation processes.

Etymology: The study of origin and history of a word is known as etymology. Many words originate in other languages like Greek, Latin and French. A close look at the etymology of technical words reveals that new words can enter language in many different ways. There has been constant evolution of new words and new uses of old words that reassures vitality and creativity of language.

Coinage: New words in language are also based on person or a place. These are called eponyms. Example, Hoover, sandwich, jeans, Fahrenheit. A few words are formed after the invention or commercial products. Example, aspirin, nylon, Vaseline, Xerox, Kleenex and Teflon.

Borrowing: A special type of word formation in language take place through borrowing. Many words are borrowed from other languages. Example, croissant (French), dope (Dutch), lilac (Persian), piano (Italian), pretzel (German), sofa (Arabic), tattoo (Tahitian), tycoon (Japanese), yogurt (Turkish) and zebra (Bantu).

Compounding: A few words combine through the process of compounding to form new words. Common English compounds are bookcase, doorknob, fingerprint, sunburn, textbook, wallpaper, wastebasket and waterbed.

Blending: The Beginning of one word is joint to the end of other word to form a new word. This process is known as blending.

Smoke / fog smog; motor/hotel motel; television/broadcast telecast; breakfast/lunch brunch.

Clipping: When a word of more than one syllable is reduced to shorter form, the process of word formation known as clipping. Example, flu (influenza), perm (permanent wave), phone (telephone), chem (chemistry), examination (exam).

Backformation: A special type of reduction process to form new word is known as backformation. Example, the noun *television* can be reduced to *televise* which is a verb. Donate (from donation), emote (from emotion) enthuse (from enthusiasm).

Conversion: When a noun is used as a verb without any reduction but a change in the function of the word, it is known conversion. Example, Bottle, butter chair and vacation have can be used as noun and verb.

This is a bottle. Noun

We bottled the home brew last night. Verb

Acronyms: Initial letter of a set of other word get together to form a new word known as acronym. Example, laser ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), radar ('radio detecting and ranging') and zip ('zone improvement plan')

Derivation: Many words are formed by the process of derivation. Prefixes and suffixes are attached to form a new word.

Prefixes and suffixes:

Use of Prefixes: Prefixes are used to coin new words of various types:

(a) Negative Prefixes:

| Prefix | Base word | New word |
|---------------|------------------|---------------------|
| Im- | possible/mortal | impossible/immortal |
| In- | evitable | inevitable |
| | Sensitive | insensitive |
| Un- | stable | unstable |
| | Like | unlike |

(b) Prefixes of number:

| | | |
|-------|----------|--------------|
| Mono- | syllabic | monosyllabic |
| | Logue | monologue |
| Uni- | lateral | unilateral |
| | Cellular | unicellular |
| Bi- | lingual | bilingual |
| | Lateral | bilateral |

(c) Prefixes of time and order:

| | | |
|-------|-----------|----------------|
| Re- | evaluate | re-evaluate |
| | Examine | re-examine |
| Ante- | chamber | antechamber |
| Fore- | knowledge | fore-knowledge |
| | Tell | foretell |
| Pre- | natal | prenatal |

| | |
|--------|-----------|
| Mature | premature |
|--------|-----------|

(d) Prefixes of location:

| | | |
|---------------|-----------|----------------|
| Sub- | way | subway |
| | Terranean | subterranean |
| Inter-/intra- | national | international |
| | Class | interclass |
| Trans- | plant | transplant |
| | Migration | transmigration |

(e) Prefixes of degree or size:

| | | |
|--------|---------|--------------|
| Super- | man | superman |
| | Natural | supernatural |
| Out- | run | outrun |
| | Live | outlive |
| Under- | state | understate |
| | Cooked | undercooked |

(f) Prefixes of attitude:

| | | |
|-------|-----------|---------------|
| Pro- | congress | pro-congress |
| | Democracy | pro-democracy |
| Anti- | hindu | anti-hindu |
| | Social | anti-social |
| Co- | operate | cooperate |
| | Sponsor | cosponsor |

(g) Other prefixes

| | | |
|-------|-----------|---------------|
| Auto- | biography | autobiography |
| | Start | auto-start |
| Neo- | rich | neo-rich |
| | Classical | neoclassical |
| Semi- | circle | semi-circle |
| | Nude | semi-nude |

(h) Class-changing prefixes

| Prefix | Word | Class | New Word | Class |
|--------|------|-------|----------|-------|
| Be- | head | noun | behead | verb |

| | | | | |
|----------|--------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | Friend | noun | befriend | verb |
| En- | able | adjective | enable | verb |
| | Trust | noun | entrust | verb |
| a- Float | verb | | afloat | adjective |
| | Head | noun | ahead | adjective |

Use of Suffixes

(a) Class-maintaining suffixes

| Suffix | Word | Class | New Word | Class |
|--------|--------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| -ship | friend | noun | friendship | noun |
| -hood | boy | noun | boyhood | noun |
| It | hindu | adjective | hinduite | adjective |

(b) Class-changing suffixes

(i) Noun to adjective

| | | | | |
|-------|--------|------|-----------|-----------|
| -ian | India | noun | Indian | adjective |
| -ese | China | noun | Chinese | adjective |
| -ful | Beauty | noun | beautiful | adjective |
| -less | harm | noun | harmless | adjective |

(ii) Adjectives to noun

| | | | | |
|-------|-------|-----------|-----------|------|
| -ity | able | adjective | ability | noun |
| -ness | happy | adjective | happiness | noun |
| -ry | brave | adjective | bravery | noun |

(iii) Nouns to verbs

| | | | | |
|------|--------|------|----------|------|
| -ify | fort | noun | fortify | verb |
| -en | length | noun | lengthen | verb |
| -le | top | noun | topple | verb |

(iv) verbs to nouns

| | | | | |
|-------|--------|------|------------|------|
| -er | drive | verb | driver | noun |
| -ment | govern | verb | government | noun |
| -age | drain | verb | drainage | noun |

| | | | | |
|------|---------|------|-----------|------|
| -ant | pollute | verb | pollutant | noun |
|------|---------|------|-----------|------|

(v) Verbs to adverb

| | | | | |
|------|-------|------|----------|--------|
| -ily | sleep | verb | sleepily | adverb |
|------|-------|------|----------|--------|

| | | | | |
|--------|------|------|-----------|--------|
| -fully | play | verb | playfully | adverb |
|--------|------|------|-----------|--------|

(vi) Adjectives to adverbs

| | | | | |
|-----|------|-----------|--------|--------|
| -ly | nice | adjective | nicely | adverb |
|-----|------|-----------|--------|--------|

| | | | | |
|--------|------|-----------|-----------|--------|
| -wards | back | adjective | backwards | adverb |
|--------|------|-----------|-----------|--------|

3.6 Let us Sum up

Morphological analysis of words enables us to infer the meaning and learn new words easily. The process of affixation reveals the flexibility and productivity of language. Understanding of morphology familiarizes us with effective and precise way of using language. Morphological competence improves writing skills and is essential for determining proficiency in ESL or EFL.

3.7 Questions

1. What are morpheme?
2. Explain Segmentation.
3. Explain any two word formation processes?
4. Use the process of affixation to form more words from the word period, crime, good, beauty.

3.8 Suggested Readings

Aronoff, M. Fudeman.K. *What is Morphology*. UK: Willey Blackwell Publishing, 2011.

Booiji, G. *The Grammar of Words*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2003.

Fasold, R. and Connor-Linton, J. *An Introduction to Language and Linguistics*. New York: Cambridge Press, 2016.