



# 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



**B.A. (Liberal Arts)**

**Semester 5th**

**Course:Elementary Linguistics and Phonetics of English**

**Course Code:BLAB33502T**

**Address: c/28, The Lower Mall, Patiala-147001**

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**JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV  
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Assistant Prof. in English



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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

**B.A (Liberal Arts)**  
**DISCIPLINE SPECIFIC ELECTIVE(DSE): ENGLISH ELECTIVE**  
**SEMESTER-V**  
**(BLAB33502T): ELEMENTARY LINGUISTICS AND PHONETICS OF ENGLISH**

**MAX.MARKS: 100**

**EXTERNAL: 70**

**INTERNAL: 30**

**PASS: 40%**

**Credits: 6**

**OBJECTIVE:**

The course aims to acquaint the learners to the structure of English Language by introducing them to the fundamentals of modern Linguistics. Besides, to help students develop proficiency in oral communication in English, the course will focus on the basics of Phonetics of English like understanding of speech sounds, their contrastive relationships, pronunciation and rhythm of language.

**INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE PAPER SETTER/EXAMINER:**

- 1.The syllabus prescribed should be strictly adhered to.
- 2.The question paper will consist of three sections: A, B, and C. Sections A and B will have four questions from the respective sections of the syllabus and will carry 10 marks each. The candidates will attempt two questions from each section.
- 3.Section C will have fifteen short answer questions covering the entire syllabus. Each question will carry 3 marks. Candidates will attempt any ten 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 two questions each from the sections A and B of the question paper and any ten short questions from Section C. 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**

- Unit 1:** Language: Definition and Nature of Language, Language as means of communication.
- Unit 2:** Linguistics: Linguistics as a Science, Branches of linguistics,
- Unit 3:** Scope of Linguistics: Descriptive, Comparative and Historical Linguistics.
- Unit 4:** The Morphology of English-I: Morphemes: Segmentation, Free and Bound Morphemes, Morphological Analysis
- Unit 5:** The Morphology of English-II: Words, Processes of Word Formation

### **Section B**

- Unit 6:** The Speech Mechanism: Air Stream Mechanism, Organs of Speech, Respiratory System, Phonatory and Articulatory System
- Unit 7:** The Description and Classification of Speech Sounds: Vowels
- Unit 8:** The Description and Classification of Speech Sounds: Consonants
- Unit 9:** Phonetic Transcription and the International Phonetic Alphabet, Phoneme, Allophone, Syllables and principles of syllabification, Minimal Pairs,
- Unit 10:** Prosodic Features: Stress and Rhythm, Word Accent; Intonation: Form and functions of intonation.

#### **Suggested Readings:**

- Ashby, P. *Speech Sounds*. London: Routledge, 1995. Print.
- Balasubramaniam. T. *A Text Book of English Phonetics for Indian Students*. India: Macmillan, 1981.
- Bansal, R. K. and J. B. Harrison. *Spoken English for India*. New Delhi: Orient Longman, 1972.
- Gimson, A.C. *Gimson's Pronunciation of English*. London: Arnold, 2001.
- Jones, Daniel. *The Pronunciation of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.
- Ladefoged, P. *Vowels and Consonants: An Introduction to the Sounds of Languages*. Oxford: Blackwell, 2001.
- Roach, P. *English Phonetics and Phonology*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2000.
- Sadanand, Kamlesh and Susheela, Punitha. *Spoken English: A Foundation Course*. Hyderabad: Orient Blackswan, 2017
- Sethi, J. and P.V. Dhamija. *A Course in Phonetics and Spoken English*. New Delhi:

Prentice Hall,2005.

- Tench, P. The Intonation Systems of English. London: Cassell, 1996.
- Suzana, R. A. Practical Course in English Pronunciation. New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill, 2012.
- Syal, Pushpinder and D.V. Jindal. An Introduction to Linguistics. Delhi: PHI Learning, 2016

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**Unit 1: Language: Definition and Nature of Language**

**Language as a Means of Communication**

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**Structure**

1.0 Objectives

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Definitions of Language

1.3 Origin of Language

1.4 Nature/Characteristics of Language

1.5 Language as a means of Communication (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 analyse and understand the following:

- Nature of language
- Definitions of language by linguists
- Theories of origin of language
- Characteristics of language
- Uniqueness of human language

**1.1 Introduction**

Human beings have different requirements at the individual, social, 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 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 and 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 terms of their local culture." G Trager, 1949

Martin Joos holds that languages can differ arbitrarily. 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 Neilage (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 Nature/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 is 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 is 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 Language as means of Communication (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 21<sup>st</sup> 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: Elementary Linguistics and Phonetics of English

### Section A

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#### Unit II: Linguistics: Linguistics as a Science, Branches of Linguistics

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##### Structure

##### 2.0 Objectives

##### 2.1 Linguistics as Science and Branches of Linguistics

##### 2.2 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 Branches of Linguistics

###### 2.3.1 Phonetics

###### 2.3.2 Morphology

###### 2.3.2 Semantics

###### 2.3.3 Pragmatics

###### 2.3.4 Discourse Analysis

##### 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 as a science
- Branches of Linguistics
- 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 that 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 removed. 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 the function and role of an element. 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 grammatically 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 particular situations. Discourse studies inter-sentential links. Cohesion and coherence are better understood with the help of discourse analysis.

Psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics and literary stylistics are different branches of linguistics. Psycholinguistics, as a branch of linguistics and cognitive science investigates the manner in which language is produced and acquired by human beings. The mental aspects of language and speech are studied by psycholinguistics. Alan Garnham defines psycholinguistics as "the study of the mental mechanisms that make it possible for people to use language. It is a scientific discipline whose goal is a coherent theory of the way in which language is produced and understood." Sociolinguistics studies patterns and variations of a language within a society or community. It also focuses on use of language by different social classes, groups, gender or ethnicity. It examines the way in which people use language to negotiate their role in society and achieve positions in society. Sociolinguistics also assigns roles to languages in a speech community. These are the status of First language, official language and National language. Stylistics is a branch of linguistics

that explores linguistic choices available to users of language. It studies the textual meaning and deals with style and its consequent meaning. Stylistics identifies the readers' interaction with the text (especially literary). The devices of language that add expressive style to language are also studied by stylistics. It also analyzes functions of rhetoric, normative or prescriptive rules.

## **2.2 Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics**

Some fundamental concepts in linguistics have been expounded by linguists in twentieth century. These 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.

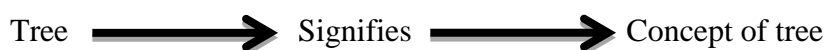
### 2.2.2 Linguistic Sign and Symbol

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



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:



(Word or sound  
Image= signifier)

(mental image=  
signified)

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

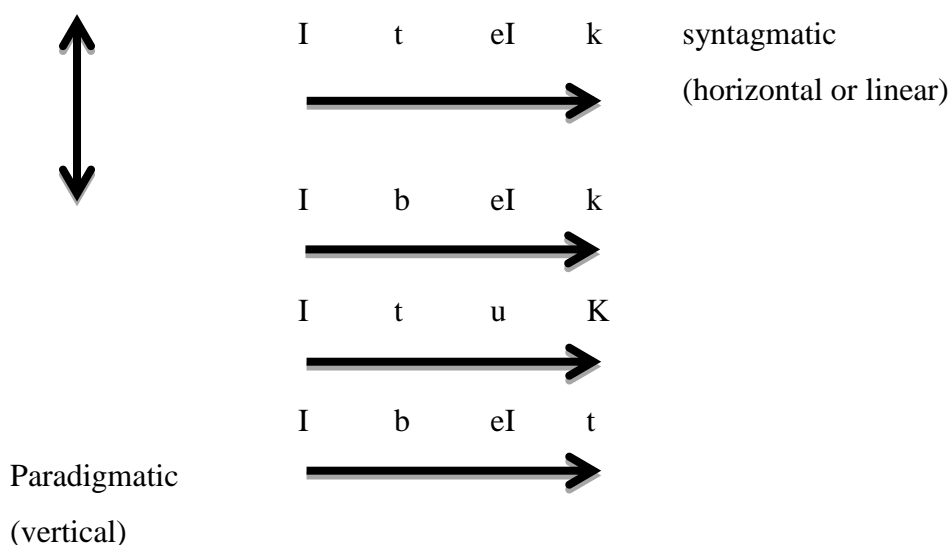
Language is structured. It is a system of systems. Sounds are interrelated to form phonological system. Words connect to form morphological system. Word classes combine to form syntactic system. Robins compares structure of language to an orchestra. Specific roles of orchestra players relate the members 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 is 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 Branches of Linguistics**

#### **2.3.1 Phonetics**

Phonetics is branch of linguistics that studies speech sounds. It studies speech organs and manner of production of sound. Articulatory phonetics studies way of production of sound. Acoustic phonetics studies sound waves of human vocal apparatus. Auditory phonetics determines the perception of human sounds. Phonology studies patterns of sound. It deals with the organization of sound features. Phonology is related to other branches of linguistics like phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Phonology differs from phonetics. While phonetics analyzes production and articulation of speech sounds, phonology studies sound patterns of a language.



### **2.3.2 Morphology**

Morphology deals with the internal structure and form of words. It studies word forming elements and word formation processes in a language.

### **2.3.3 Semantics**

Semantics is one of the major branches of linguistics that studies relationship of words to concepts. It studies linguistic boundaries in which the meaning rests. It differentiates between sense and reference. Semantics studies meaning of words and their relationships in sentences.

### **2.3.4 Pragmatics**

Pragmatics studies implied meaning. It highlights the meaning in a context.

### **2.3.5 Discourse Analysis**

Discourse analysis engages with meaning beyond utterances, texts and speech events. It deals with language use in social contexts. It is linguistic analysis of naturally connected speech or written discourse. It understands organization of language above sentence to analyze larger linguistic units in conversational exchanges or written texts.

### **List of Question**

1. what is Linguistics? Discuss in detail.
2. Discuss Linguistics as science.
3. Define Linguistics. Discuss its Various branches.

**Unit III**  
**Scope of Linguistics**  
**Descriptive, Comparative and Historical Linguistics**

3.0 Objectives

3.1 Introduction

3.1.1 Diachronic Variations

3.1.2 Synchronic Variations

3.2 Descriptive Linguistics

3.3 Comparative Linguistics

3.4 Historical Linguistics

3.5 Let us sum up

3.6 Questions

3.7 Suggested Readings

**3.0 Objectives**

To understand the scope of linguistics

To know about descriptive linguistics

To comprehend concepts of linguistics

To examine historical and comparative methods of language study

**3.1 Introduction**

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.

### 3.1.1 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           |

### 3.1.2 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 varieties as 'transplanted', 'nativized' or 'indigenized'. These varieties include 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. Dialectal 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    | /la :st/   | /læst/           |
| Dance   | /da : ns/  | /dæns/           |
| Missile | /'mɪsdɪl/  | /'mɪsɪl/         |
| Class   | /kla:s/    | /klæs/           |
| Vitamin | /vɪtəˈmɪn/ | vɑːtəˈmɪn/       |

#### 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 Strevens)

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.

### **3.2 Descriptive Linguistics**

Descriptive linguistics describes language in structural terms. It investigates the form and function of language. It primarily focusses on speech and synchronic approach. Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist, laid out the principles and methods for descriptive linguistics. These principles study language as *langue* and *parole*. Descriptive linguistics is a systematic and scientific way to describe languages of the world in their diversity. Empirical observations of regular patterns in natural speech are the basis for this study. Samples of language from speakers are analyzed for identification of components in the language system.

### **3.3 Comparative Linguistics**

Comparative Linguistics studies relationship between two or more languages to discover the common ancestor of language. It is also known as comparative philology. Interestingly, Sir William Jones in 1786 discovered that Sanskrit was related to Latin, Greek and German. The comparative method of studying correspondence in language is based on the principle of regular sound change. Languages are analyzed to determine common mother language. On the basis of common ancestry languages are grouped together into families. Generally, the comparative method uses a list of words with definitions. The correspondence between sounds is also noted. For example, the *f* sound in German corresponds to the *p* sound in Latin at the beginning of the word, Latin *pater* (father) has same meaning as German *Vater*. In case

two or more sister languages do not have a mother language, the linguist can use the comparative method to reconstruct a hypothetical mother language. Besides, the regular sound change, order of these changes can also be used to determine mother language.

### **3.4 Historical Linguistics**

Historical Linguistics explains the changes and development in language over the time. Saussure outlines diachronic and synchronic changes. The two approaches are linked inextricably. For example, *radio* and *wireless* denote the same concept. The origin of the word *radio* can be traced back to Latin *radius* (ray) in the diachronic sense and the term *wireless* is a synchronic variation of the word. Historical Linguistics studies not only the history of language but also the relationships between languages. Tools and techniques to reconstruct ancient history of numerous culture words enables recovery of details. Every language comprises of several individual artifacts of the past. Just as ideas, attitudes and behaviour change over time, sets of words undergo changes due to technological advancements and cultural growth. The emerging new lexicon is a response to the new ideas and practices of the world.

### **3.5 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. Every branch of linguistics enables us to understand the structures, changes and developments in language.

### **3.6 Questions**

1. Define langue and differentiate between langue and parole?
2. What are diachronic changes?
3. What is comparative linguistics?
4. What is the difference between descriptive and historical linguistics?
5. The words Bag and sack are used to denote the same object. How is this possible?

### **3.7 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: Elementary Linguistics and Phonetics of English

### Section A

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#### Unit IV: The Morphology of English I

#### Morphemes, Segmentation, Free and Bound Morphemes, Morphological Analysis

#### Unit V : The Morphology of English II

#### Words, Processes of Word Formation

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#### Structure

#### 4.0 Objectives

#### 4.1 Introduction to Morphology

#### 4.2 Segmentation

#### 4.3 Free and Bound Morphemes

#### 4.4 Morphological Analysis of Words

#### 5.0 Words, Processes of Formation

#### 5.1 Let us Sum up

#### 5.3 Questions

#### 5.4 Suggested Readings

#### 4.0 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

#### 4.1 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.

#### 4.2 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 is English (a combination of noun morpheme to form a plural) is represented as tree 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}

### 4.3 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 word such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. Example, and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, that.

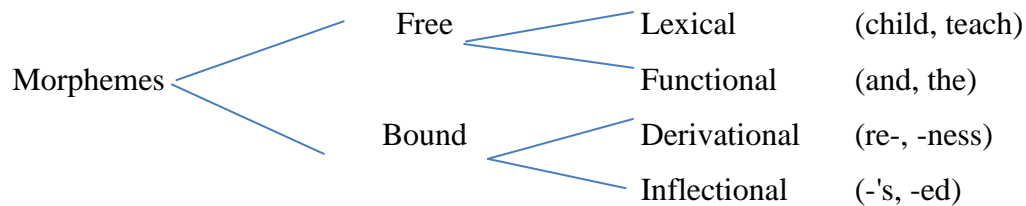
Bound morphemes can be divided to types. These are derivational morphemes and inflectional morphemes. Addition of a derivational morpheme forms a new word. The addition of derivational morpheme *-ness* to the adjective *good* forms a new word (noun) *goodness*. Inflectional morphemes do not produce new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

#### Inflectional Morphemes

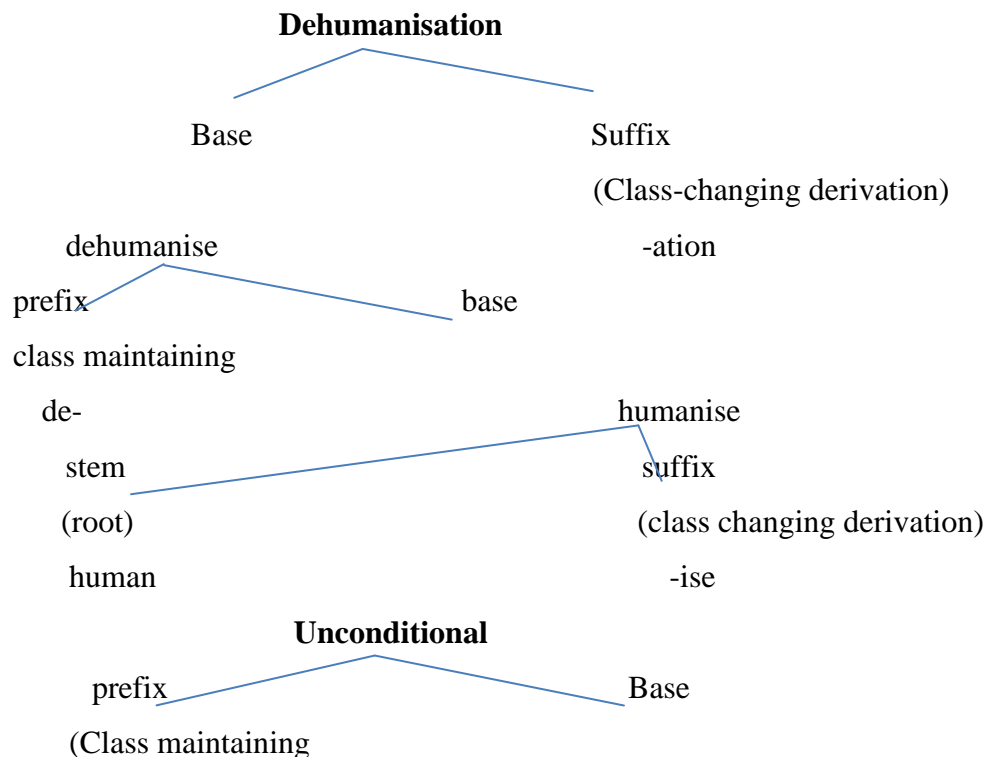
Noun + *-s, -es*

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

Adjective + *-est, -er*

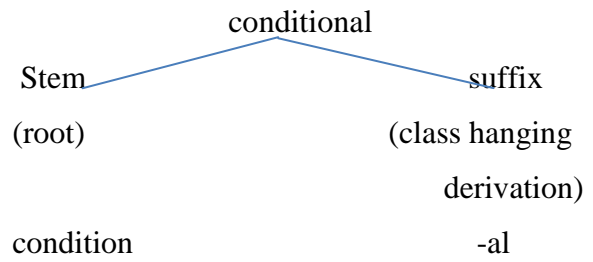


#### 4.4 Morphological Analysis of Words



derivation)

Un-



### Structure of Word

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

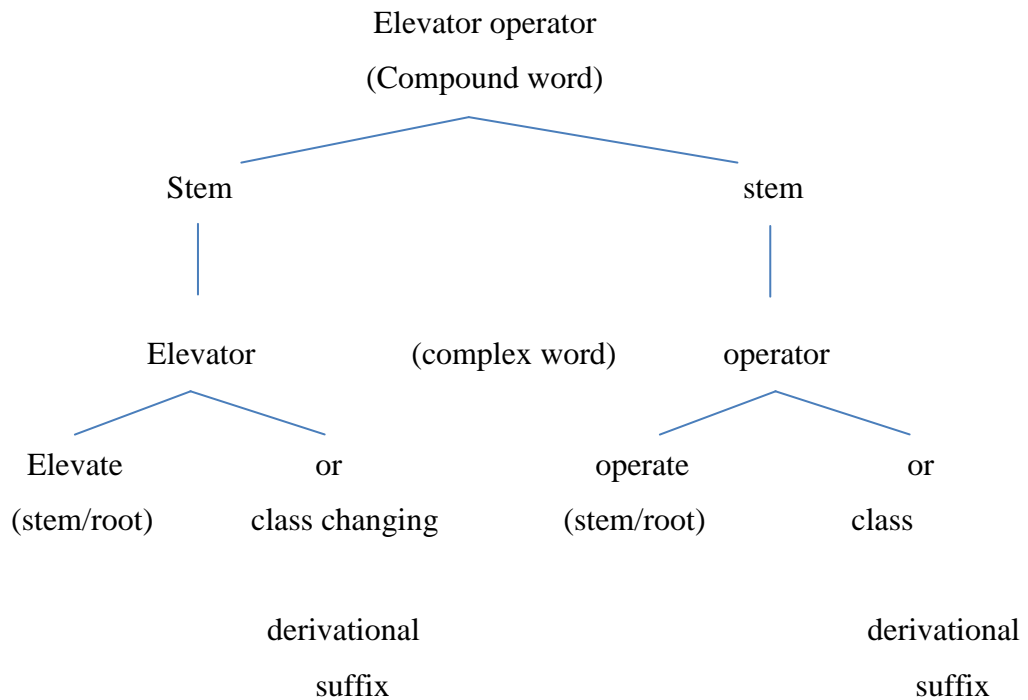
Simple words consist of single free morpheme followed, or not, by inflectional suffix.

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



### 5 Words, Processes of 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:

| <b>Prefix</b> | <b>Base word</b> | <b>New word</b>     |
|---------------|------------------|---------------------|
| 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  |

|     |       |           |          |           |
|-----|-------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| Ite | 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 |

### 5.1 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.

### 5.2 Questions

1. What are morphemes?
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.

### 5.3 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.

## Unit VI

### Speech Mechanism : Air Stream, Organs of Speech

#### Contents

#### VI. Speech Mechanism:

Air Stream

Organs of Speech

#### VII. Description and Classification of Vowels

#### VIII. Description and Classification of Consonants

#### IX. Phonetics Transcription

IPA

Minimal Pair

#### X. Prosodic Features

Intonation

Stress

Rhythm

Accent

### 6.0 Objectives

This unit primarily discusses the use of language in human life. It argues that spoken communication is primary than the written. A man learns about himself and the external world initially through the spoken language. Further, it focuses on Phonetics (the study of speech sounds). The student is introduced with the spoken language and the production of speech sounds. After the study of this unit, a student will be able to

1. Understand the importance of Oral Communication
2. Understand the basics of Phonetics
3. Understand the Production of Speech Sounds
4. Understand the significance of various Speech Organs

### 6.1 Speech Mechanism

Man is different from other living beings as he has the capacity to think and express well. Communication plays a great role in this exercise. Further, speech is the basis of all communication. In the advanced human world, it becomes essential to understand what is

speech and speech mechanism which plays a vital role in the development of human life. As speech is the primary medium of communication, one learns to express himself/herself primarily through speech. In modern times, linguists also study language beginning from the speech and speech sounds. The spoken expressions are the result of various internal exercises at the level of mind and body. Primarily the mind starts to think and conceives the idea to be expressed. This idea conceived by mind needs various physical organs to express it in concrete form before the listener. The spoken medium is considered to be the primary medium to express your mind because it can be used by any human being whether he or she is educated or not, rural or urban etc. Further, it is easy to acquire it because a man is a social being who learns it from the external environment, it may be his/her family, society, culture etc. One need not be literate to speak. Speaking is an aural exercise while writing is a visual medium of communication which also demands from both, the sender and the receiver, to be at least literate. Thus, our communication is primarily oral and the activity of speaking is not so simple, it includes various muscular activities. In these muscular activities, various organs of the body are used, such as lungs, vocal folds, larynx, soft palate, teeth, tongue, lips etc.

Every language of the world consists of sounds to speak. English is a prominent language of the world as it is used by a major section of the educated and uneducated people. So, to study speech, scientists have developed a method or theory which is called phonetics. **Phonetics** means the study of sounds, the sounds produced by human beings to communicate with each other. It is notable that there is some difference between the speech sounds produced by Americans and the British. The study of phonetics in the third world is according to the British way of speaking. The difference in the production of sounds by these different speakers of English is easily notable if one is acquainted with the study of speech. This branch of study called phonetics focuses on the production, transmission and reception of the sounds in a particular language.

Phonology is an abstract mental aspect of speech sounds, essentially the description of the systems of the patterns of speech sounds. It observes the constant variations in spoken language. It is basically a theory that what a speaker of a particular language unconsciously knows about the speech sound patterns of the language being practiced by him.

Phoneme is a perceptually distinguished unit of a meaningful sound in any language. As there is an abstract alphabet as the basis of our writing, so there is an abstract set of units as the basis of our speech. These units are called phonemes, and the complete set of units is called the phonemic system of the language. Thus, a phoneme is a distinguishable sound.

Phonetically two dissimilar sounds like [b] and [k], which can occur in the same position (or ‘environment’) and are contrastive, are called phonemes.

For example: There are three phonemes in the following two words:

Pen [p+e+n], Man [m+æ+n]

## **6.2 The main characteristics of the Phonemes**

1. It is a distinct entity.
2. A phoneme cannot be splitted into parts.
3. When we change one phoneme with another, the meaning will be changed.
4. A phoneme is an abstract entity.

In the study of speech sounds it becomes an essential unit to examine the various aspects of spoken English.

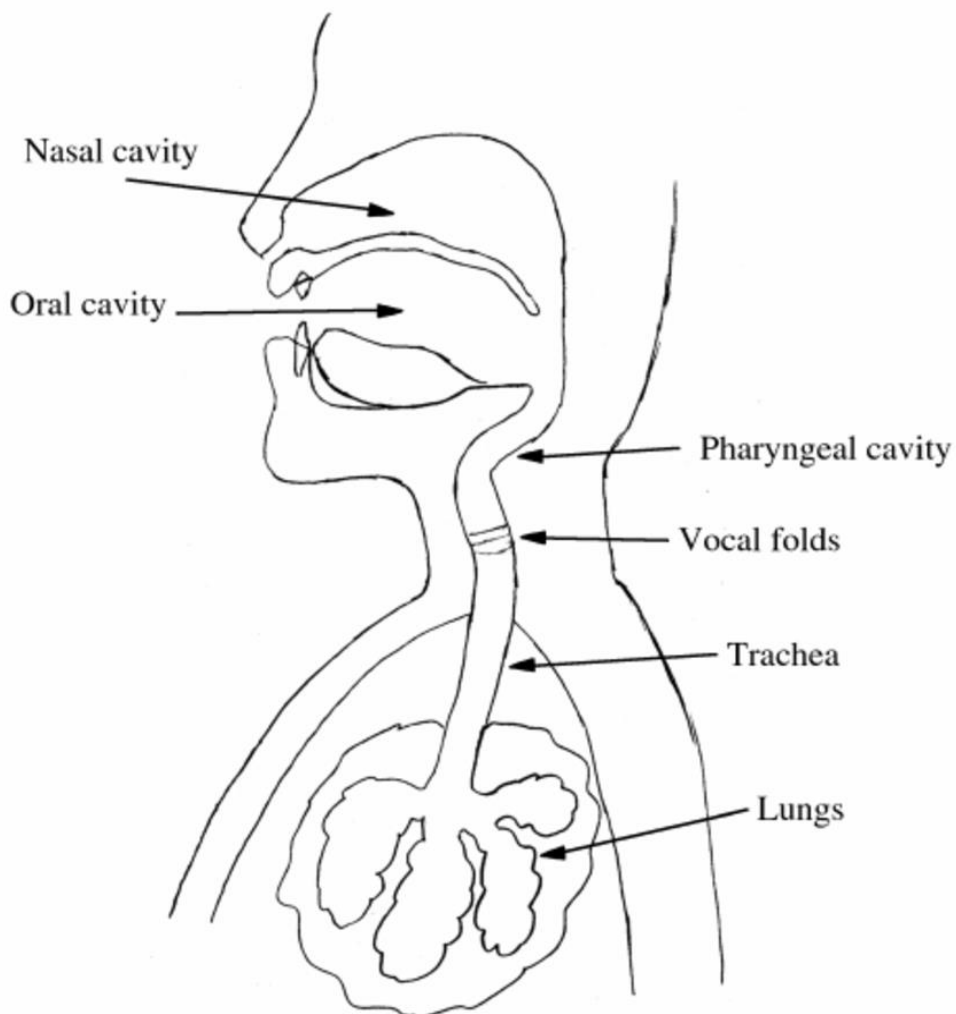
The process of language learning starts with the learning of sounds of a particular language. It is a practical exercise as a child’s learning involves the learning of reproduction of sounds and patterns being practiced by the other users of language. Each language has its own system and symbols which may vary according to the geographical and socio-cultural conditions. So, if one wants to learn English then one has to resist the pull of his/her mother tongue. Written communication generally takes place in official communication but spoken medium of communication is always required at each step. So learning the spoken medium of communication is more important. Further, it is used by each and every one who is able to speak. We communicate in written communication through the various symbols (alphabets) in written form while we communicate through sounds in spoken medium. The user of language identifies the written symbols with the sound symbols in a particular language. Thus, one can find a deep relationship between the written symbols and the sound symbols. With the rapid changes in this world of technology, this relationship is not consistent in English. The spoken language has become more user friendly. The communicators encode and decode the messages in spoken English according to their needs, not according to the hard rules applied in written communication. To understand the speech, it becomes essential to study the speech mechanism.

## **6.3 Air-Flow in Production of Speech Sounds**

Speech is the product of a long and complex speech mechanism. It involves a number of activities. As stated, first of all an idea is conceived by the sender which is meant to be conveyed to the receiver. In the second stage, the nerves transmit the linguistic codification of it to the various speech organs of the human body. The organs of speech are set in motion and

movements according to the signal. The airflow is produced and the other organs play their role to route/ obstruct/partially obstruct the airflow to produce the required sounds. This process is actually a play with the airflow produced by the lungs. It involves

1. The speaker breathes, and during this normal breathing he inhales the air into his lungs and compresses it.
2. The compressed air is released according to the requirement of the sound that needs to be produced.
3. The airflow is generated, the soft palate decides to release the airflow through the oral or nasal passage. (This decision is taken at the level of the brain according to the nature of the sound intended to be produced). The sounds which are produced through the nasal cavity are called nasal sounds and the sounds produced through the oral passage are called oral sounds.
4. Various organs of the speech play their role to produce various sounds. Their position and their movement decide what will be the produced sound.



## 6.4 Organs of Speech

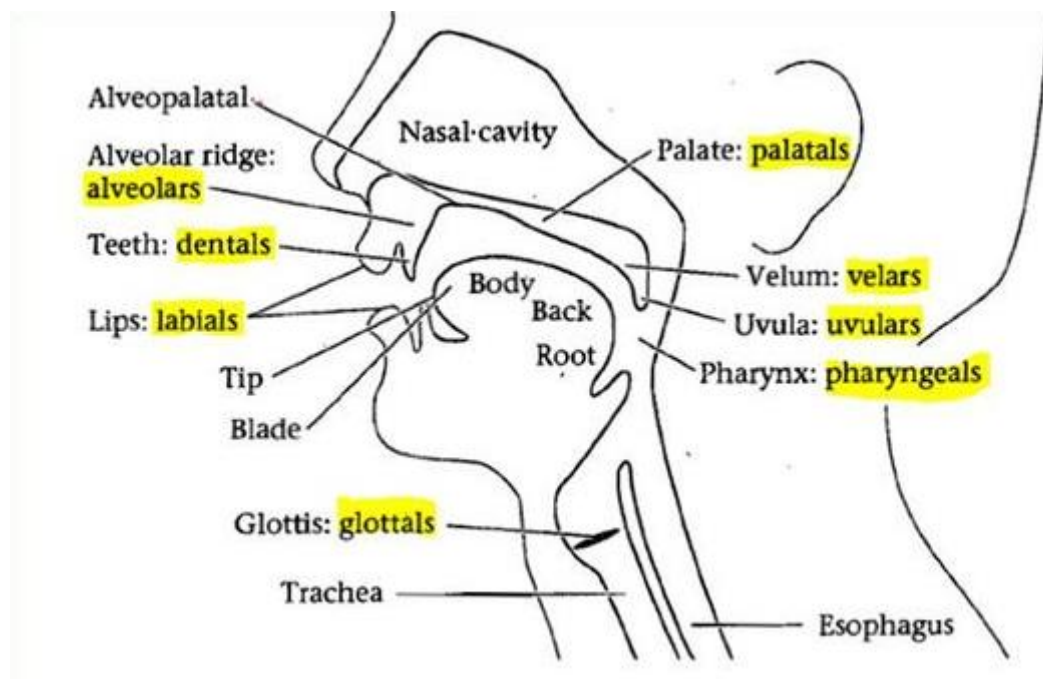
Broadly, the organs of speech can be divided into three groups:

1. The Respiratory System
2. The Phonatory System
3. The Articulatory System

The respiratory system consists of the lungs, the muscles of the chest, and the wind.

The Phonatory system consists of the two major organs: the Pharynx and the Larynx

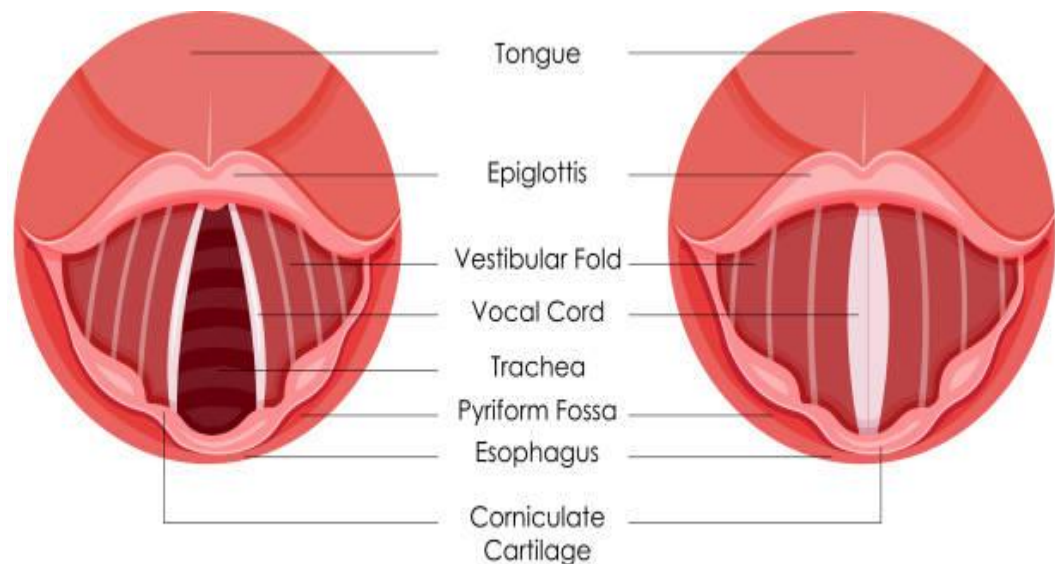
The Articulatory System consists of the mouth, the nose, the tongue, the teeth, the teeth ridge, the roof of the mouth, the lips etc.



### 6.4.1 Active and Passive Articulators

The organs of speech can also be classified as active and passive articulators. The active articulators are basically those articulators which move from their position while producing the speech sounds. The active articulators include the lower jaw, the tongue, the soft palate etc. The passive articulators are those articulators which do not move from their position during the production of the speech sound. The passive articulators include the roof of the mouth, upper teeth, the nose etc.

1. **The Larynx/Glottis** consists of two vocal folds (which can also be called vocal cords). Vocal folds are like a pair of lips and they are horizontally placed from front to back. It is at the top of the wind pipe which is rooted in the lungs. The air is released by the lungs and the released air passes through the windpipe. Then it passes through the larynx. The vocal folds are joined in the front but separated at the back. The opening between them is known as the glottis. The vocal folds are normally held together in a loose form. The airflow from the lungs creates the pressure and this pressure makes the vocal folds vibrate. This vibration produces various sounds. The frequency of the vibration is decided by the number of times the vocal folds open and close.



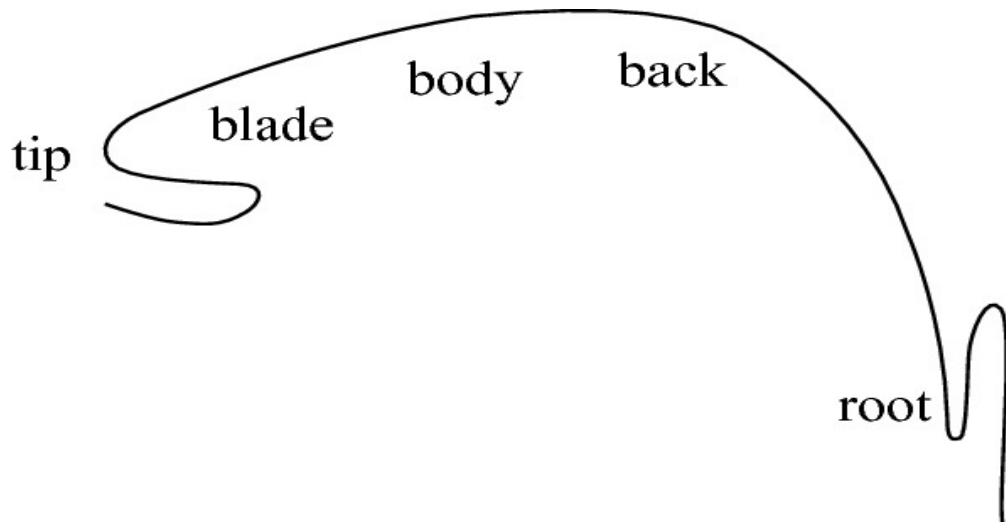
## VOCAL CORD

2. **The Pharynx:** It is a tube which is just above the larynx or the vocal folds. It is divided into two parts at the top, one part being the back of the mouth and the other being the beginning of the way through the nasal cavity. It is the place where it is decided what will be the produced sound nasal or oral.
3. **The Velum/Soft Palate:** It is seen in the diagram in a position that allows air to pass through the nose and through the mouth. Yours is probably in that position now, but often in speech it is raised so that air could not escape through the nose. Velum decides the sound to be produced as nasal or oral. It is an articulator that can be touched by the tongue. When we make the sounds



/k/ and /g/ the tongue is in contact with the lower side of the Velum, and we call them velar consonants.

4. **The Hard Palate:** It is often called the roof of the mouth also. One can feel its smooth curved surface with his tongue.
5. **The Alveolar Ridge:** It is also called the teeth ridge. It is between the top front teeth and the hard palate. We can feel its shape with our tongue. Its surface is really much rougher than it feels, and is covered with little ridges. One can only see them if he has a mirror small enough to go inside his mouth. One can produce a number of sounds by touching it with the tongue e.g. /t/ and /d/.
6. **The Tongue:** It is of course, a very important articulator which is movable. It can be moved into different directions and in different shapes to produce speech sounds. The tongue is usually divided into various parts according to its function in the production of various speech sounds: Tip, Blade, Front, Back and Roof.



7. **The Teeth:** Teeth are at the front of the mouth, immediately behind the lips. The tongue or lips move close to the teeth to produce various sounds. The sounds produced with the help of tongue by touching the upper teeth are called dental sounds e.g. /ð / and the sounds produced with the help of lips and teeth are called labio-dental sounds e.g. /f/ and /v/.
8. **The Lips:** These important organs of speech are at the front of the mouth. They can be pressed together (when we produce the sounds /p/ and /b/), brought into contact with each other. The produced sounds are called bilabial

sounds. When the lips contact teeth to produce various sounds, the produced sounds are called labio-dental sounds.

### **6.5 Long Questions for Exercise**

1. Discuss the importance of Airstream in the production of various speech sounds.
2. What is Speech Mechanism? Discuss in detail.
3. Discuss various Organs of Speech in detail.
4. Discuss various Active and Passive articulators with a suitable diagram.

### **6.6 Short Notes**

1. What is the role of Airstream in the production of speech sounds?
2. What are the various parts of a tongue which are used in the production of speech sounds?
3. What is Soft Palate?
4. What are the Vocal Folds
5. What is Phonetics?
6. What are labio-dental sounds?
7. Discuss active and passive articulators
8. What is Phoneme?
9. Discuss the various parts of a tongue used to produce sounds.

## Unit VII

### Description and Classification of Vowels

#### 7.0 Objectives

This unit defines the vowel sounds in English. It explains the nature and production of vowels as well as differentiate them from consonants. It further explores the diphthongs also. The process of production of vowel and diphthongs have been explained in the detail. The unit also explains the difference between long and short vowels. After the study of this unit, a student will be able to

1. Understand the basics of Phonetics
2. Understand the difference between a Vowel and Consonant Sound
3. Understand the Production of Vowel Sounds
4. Understand the difference between long and short vowels
5. Understand the significance of various Speech Organs in the production of vowel sounds

#### 7.1 Classification of Speech Sounds

The speech sounds are broadly classified into two categories: Vowels and Consonants.

#### 7.2 Vowels and Consonants

These two categories are defined differently in different descriptions. The most popular and at the same time the most misleading way of defining them is in terms of the letters of alphabets. Thus, in some grammar books of English the letters a, e, i, o, u are labeled as vowels and the rest as consonants. But such classification is not perfect according to different speech sounds. So, it is rejected in the phonetics.

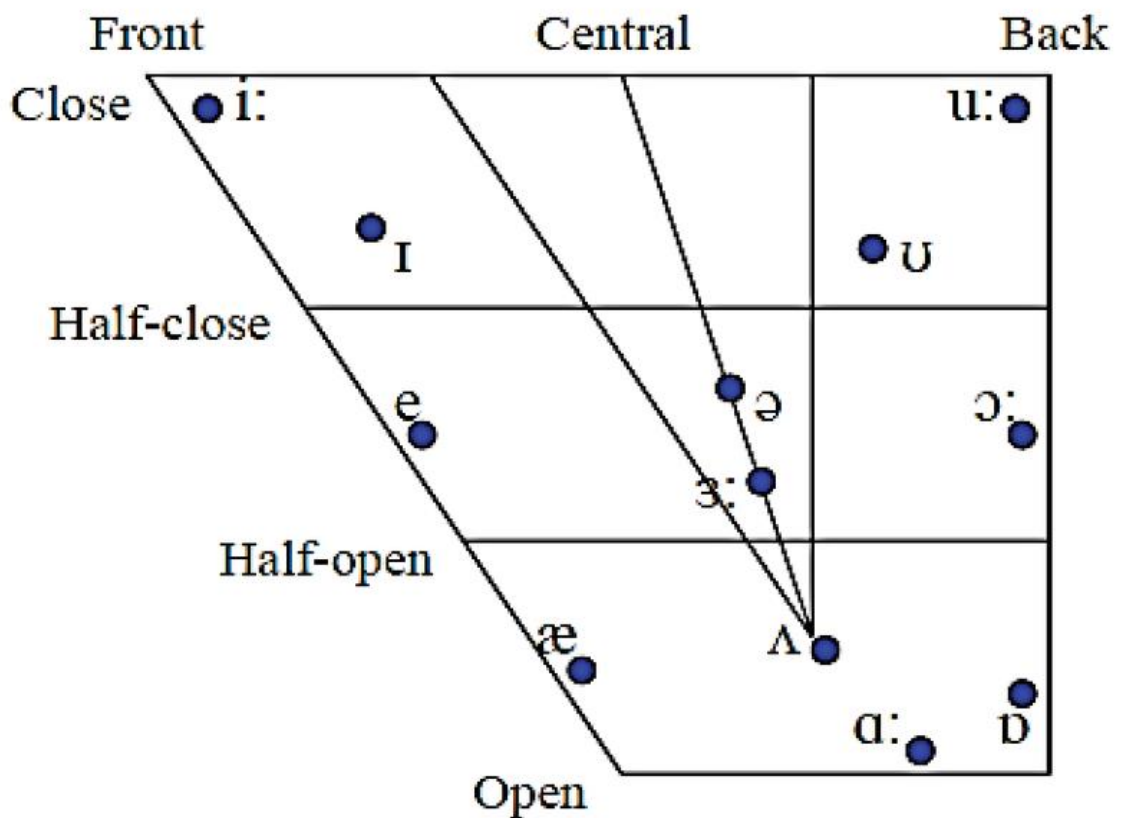
There are two other ways in which the vowels and consonants can be defined in Phonetic terms and Linguistic terms i.e. in terms of production of speech sounds and their function in a given language, respectively. In phonetic terms, a speech sound is defined 'Vowel' if the production of it, there is, in the Pharynx and the mouth, no obstruction, and no narrowing of a degree that would cause audible friction. All other sounds are defined as 'Consonants'. It means the process of the production of speech sounds decides the nature of a produced sound: vowel or consonant.

Let's take an example of the word 'Bee'. The word clearly consists of two sounds 'B' and 'ee'. If we take the last sound first 'ee', the speaker produces it by raising the front of the tongue fairly high. In this process the tongue is raised to make a partial closure in the air-

passage but this degree of closure is not enough to cause any audible friction in the produced sound. The sound can be clearly classified as a vowel. Now, let's examine the sound represented by the letter 'B'. To produce it, the speaker has to make a complete closure of the mouth by bringing the two lips together and then suddenly releases the air held. Thus, there is noticeable air obstruction to the flow from the lungs. Due to this obstruction the produced sound is classified as consonant. There is one more major difference between the vowel and consonant sounds: consonant sounds are heavier and stronger than the vowels.

Vowel is essentially a tone or a "hum". Modification in the tone distinguishes one vowel sound from the other. The modification in the tone is the result of the modification in the sizes and shapes of the resonating chambers (the pharyngeal cavity, the nasal cavity, the nasal cavity, and the mouth) through which the tone passes. The major organs which play a major role in the modification of the resonating chambers are the soft palate, the tongue, and the lips. To understand the production of the vowel sounds, it is essential to understand the activities of these organs

1. The Position of the Soft Palate: If it is raised, it is ready to produce oral vowels and if it is lowered, it is ready to produce nasalized vowels.
2. The Shape Assumed by the Lips: the lips may be spreaded, rounded or neutral
3. The Shape Assumed by the Tongue: The various parts of the tongue may be raised and it is also noticeable that how high the part is raised



### 7.2.1 The Vowel Diagram

1. / i: / During its production the front part of the tongue is raised to the hard palate in a very close position. The lips are spread and the tongue is tense. It is a front, closed, rounded vowel.
2. / ɪ / In the production of this vowel the rear part of the front of the tongue is raised to the position just above the half close position. Lips are loosely spread. It is a centralized, front, unrounded vowel.
3. / e / This vowel is produced with the help of the front of the tongue. The front is raised in the direction of the roof of the mouth. It is a front, unrounded, half-open vowel.

It occurs initially, medially, and not finally, for example in the words like enemy and get.

4. / æ / In the articulation of this vowel, the front of the tongue is the half-open position. Lips remain usual. It is called a front, unrounded, hal-open vowel. It occurs initially, medially and not finally for example in the words: apple, ass, rat, and bat.

5. / ɑ: / In the articulation of this vowel the back part of the tongue is in the fully open position and the lips remain neutral. It is called a back, open, unrounded vowel. It may occur initially, medially, and finally. For example: **art, harm, far**.
6. / ɒ / To produce this vowel sound the tongue is raised to the soft palate. It is in an open position. Lips are rounded. It is called a back, open, rounded vowel. It occurs initially, medially, and rarely in final position.
7. / ɔ: / In the articulation of this vowel sound lips are closely rounded. It is a back rounded, half-open vowel. It occurs initially, medially, and rarely finally. For example: **order, caught, ball**.
8. / ʊ / During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate. It is a centralized, back rounded vowel. It does not occur initially. For example, the sound in the words **wood, to, do, and you**.
9. / u: / In the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate, almost in the close position. It is a back, close and rounded vowel.
10. / ʌ / In the articulation of this vowel the front of the tongue is raised just between open and half-open position. It occurs initially, medially, and not finally. For example the sound in the following words: **up, cup, supper, upper** etc.
11. / ɜ: / In the articulation of this vowel the centre of the tongue is raised to the centre of the roof. Lips remain neutral, but half closed and half open. The sound may occur initially, medially and finally. The exemplary words are **earth, girl, and sir**.
12. / ə / The organs remain in the normal position in the production of this vowel sound. It is a central, unrounded, half-open vowel. It generally occurs finally but sometimes initially. The exemplary words are **alone, mother, father**.

### 7.2.2 List of Vowels (12) in Standard British English

#### Long Vowels (05)

1. / i:/ as in **Key** and **Scene**
2. / ɑ: / as in **Car** and **Harm**
3. / ɔ: / as in **Core** and **Caught**
4. / u: / as in **Shoe** and **Rude**
5. / ɜ: / as in **Girl** and **Earth**

#### Short Vowels (07)

6. / ɪ / as in **Pit** and **City**
7. / e / as in **Pet** and **Bet**

8. / æ / as in **Cat** and **Bat**
9. / ʌ / as in **Cup** and **Cut**
10. / ɒ / as in **Hot** and **Yacht**
11. / ʊ / as in **Put** and **Would**
12. / ə / as in **Alone** and **Potato**

### 7.3 Diphthongs

The diphthongs are basically the combination of two vowel sounds. There are many sounds in English which are produced with the help of these sounds so diphthongs also play a major role in English speaking.

#### 7.3.1 The Indicators for Description of Diphthongs

There are two major indicators in the description of diphthongs

1. Starting Point
2. Direction in which the vowel glides

There are a total of eight diphthongs in English. These eight can further be divided into three categories: i. ending in /ɪ/ ii. ending in /ʊ/ and iii. ending in /ə/. Diphthongs (08)

#### 7.3.2 List of Diphthongs with Examples

1. / eɪ / as in **Bay** and **Page**
2. / aɪ / as in **Buy** and **Five**
3. / oɪ / as in **Boy** and **Oil**
4. / əʊ / as in **Goat** and **Low**
5. / aʊ / as in **House** and **How**
6. / ɪə / as in **Here** and **Fear**
7. / eə / as in **There** and **Fair**
8. / ʊə / as in **Poor** and **Sure**

1. / eɪ / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide starts from front unrounded vowel position between half-open and half-close position and moves in the direction of vowel / ɪ /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.

For example: **Angel**, **Page**, **Play**.

2. / aɪ / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide starts from the front, open, unrounded position and moves to / ɪ /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.

For example: **Ice, Nice, Tray.**

3. / ɔɪ / In the articulation of this diphthong the vowel glide begins at a point which is back, rounded between half close and half open vowel position and moves to / ɪ /. It is a centralized, unrounded front vowel situated just above half close position. Lips are rounded in the beginning and loosely spread in the end. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.

For example: **Oil, Choice, Joy.**

4. / əʊ / In the articulation of this diphthong the vowel glide begins at the central, unrounded vowel between the half-close and half-open position, to the direction of / ʊ /, centralized, back, unrounded vowel between close and half-close. Lips are spread in the beginning and loosely rounded in the end. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.

For example: **Own, Goat, Window.**

5. / aʊ / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins at the back, open, unrounded vowel position, then moves to / ʊ /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.

For example: **Owl, Down, How.**

6. / ɪə / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide starts from front (between close and half-close position i.e. / ɪ /) to / ə /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.

For example: **Earphones, Glorious, Fear.**

7. / eə / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from front between half-open and half-close position to / ə /. Lips are neutral. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.

For example: **Area, Hare, Rare.**

8. / ʊə / It is notable that diphthong is less used. In the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from back, rounded vowel position to / ə /. The lips are neutral in the beginning then turn neutral. It occurs only medially and finally.

For example: **Surely and Tour.**



## **7.4 Questions for Practice**

### Long Questions

1. Describe the various vowel sounds in English.
2. What are vowel sounds? Discuss in detail.
3. Discuss the classification of English vowel sounds.
4. What are Diphthongs? Discuss in detail.

## **7.5 Short Notes**

1. What is a vowel sound?
2. Differentiate between a long and short vowel sound
3. What are diphthongs?

## Unit VIII

### Description and Classification of Consonants

#### 8.0 Objectives

This unit defines the consonant sounds in English. It explains the nature and production of consonants as well as differentiate them from vowel. It further describes the process of the production of consonants. The unit also explains the various consonant sounds with suitable examples. After the study of this unit, a student will be able to

1. Understand the basics of Phonetics
2. Understand the difference between a Vowel and Consonant Sound
3. Understand the Production of Consonant Sounds
4. Understand the significance of various Speech Organs in the production of vowel sounds

The consonant sounds are classified according to their place of articulation and the place of articulation of a consonant is determined by the passive articulator involved in the production of it, and for this reason, the sound is also named after the passive articulator. Thus, the /g/ sound in the English word 'Get' is called velar sound because the passive articulator involved in its production is the velum/soft palate.

Description of Consonants depends on the following information: the nature of air flow; the state of the glottis; the position of the soft palate; the organs involved; and the nature of the closure/stricture.

#### 8.1 The main places of articulation of consonant sounds

1. **Bilabial:** The articulators involved are the two lips

**Examples:** The initial sounds in the English words **Ben**, **Pen**, **Mat** represent bilabial sounds.

2. **Labio-Dental:** The active articulator is the lower lip and the passive articulator the upper teeth.

**Examples:** The initial sounds in the English words **fine** and **vine** represent the labio-dental sounds.

3. **Dental:** The active articulator is the tip of the tongue and the passive articulator the upper teeth.

**Examples:** The initial sounds in the English words **thin** and **that**.

4. **Alveolar:** The active articulator is the blade or tip and blade of the tongue, and the passive articulator the teeth ridge.

**Examples:** The initial sounds in the English words **tin** and **din**.

**5. Post-alveolar:** The active articulator is the tip of the tongue, and the passive articulator the rear part of the teeth ridge.

**Examples:** The commonest variety of the **R** sound in British English as in the words **rail** and **tree**.

**6. Retroflex:** The active articulator is the underside of the tip of the tongue, and the passive articulator the front of the hard palate. The tip of the tongue is curled back to the place of articulation.

**Examples:** The example sounds are in Punjabi language: ਠ [th] and ਡ [d].

**7. Palato-Alveolar:** These sounds are produced by two simultaneous articulations (i) the blade of the tongue is active articulator, it articulates against the teeth ridge as passive articulator and (ii) the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate.

**Examples:** The initial sounds in the English words **chin** and **share**.

**8. Palatal:** The active articulator is the front of the tongue, and the passive articulator the hard palate.

**Examples:** The initial sound in the English word **yes**.

**9. Velar:** The active articulator is the back of the tongue, and the passive articulator the soft palate.

**Examples:** The final sounds in the English words **sack**, **wag**, and **sang**.

**10. Uvular:** The active articulator is the back of the tongue and the passive articulator the Uvula (compare with the velar sounds for which too the active articulator is the back of the tongue).

**Examples:** The initial sounds in Urdu words: **Kalam** (pen) and **Kareeb** (near). English has no Uvular sound.

**11. Glottal:** The articulators for the glottal sounds are the two vocal cords. The sounds are produced by an obstruction or a narrowing causing friction, but not by vibration, between the vocal cords.

**Examples:** The sound of the cough and the initial sound in the English word *hen*.

### **8.1.2 List of Consonants (24) in Standard British English**

1. /p/ as in **Pat** and **Slap**
2. /t/ as in **Tin** and **Bat**
3. /k/ as in **Cat** and **Sit**

4. / b / as in **Big** and **Bib**
5. / d / as in **Did** and **Dog**
6. / g / as in **Get** and **Good**
7. / f / as in **Fat** and **Fit**
8. / v / as in **Van** and **Believe**
9. / ð / as in **This** and **That**
10. / θ / as in **Think** and **Thin**
11. / s / as in **Sit** and **So**
12. / z / as in **Zip** and **Zoo**
13. / ʃ / as in **Ship** and **Shoe**
14. / h / as in **Hen** and **Hit**
15. / m / as in **Man** and **Mint**
16. / n / as in **Sun** and **Nose**
17. / ŋ / as in **King** and **Bank**
18. / l / as in **Love** and **Like**
19. / r / as in **Rose** and **Rat**
20. / tʃ / as in **Church** and **Chin**
21. / dʒ / as in **Badge** and **Jug**
22. / w / as in **Wet** and **Waste**
23. / j / as in **Yet** and **Yellow**
24. / ʒ / as in **Vision** and **Measure**

## 8.2 Questions for Practice

### Long Questions

5. Describe the various consonant sounds in English.
6. What are consonant sounds? Discuss in detail.
7. Discuss the classification of English consonant sounds.
8. List the consonant sounds in English with suitable examples

## 8.3 Short Notes

1. What is a consonant sound?
2. Differentiate between a consonant and vowel sound
3. What happens to the air-flow in the production of consonant sounds?

## Unit IX

### Phonetic Transcription

#### 9.0 Objectives

This unit is focused on application part of the IPA symbols in English speaking. The list of IPA symbols is given with suitable examples to illustrate the correct pronunciation of different words. The unit also provides the list of simple words to do the practice for transcription. After the study of this unit, a student will be able to

1. Understand the basics of Phonetics
2. Understand the use of various IPA symbols
3. Understand the correct pronunciation of routine words
4. Polish his/her spoken English

After going through the last topics, one can easily understand that there is no no-to-one correspondence between the letters of the alphabet and the sounds. So we need a list of symbols in which each symbol must represent only one sound. The list of these sound symbols has been prepared by the International Phonetic Association. The symbols provided by this association are known as International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). We have already used these symbols in our previous discussion of the sounds for example the consonant, vowel, and diphthongs. The IPA symbols can be used to transcribe any sound of English or any language of the world.

The transcription means the conversion of words into speech sound symbols. It denotes the way in which words are pronounced. Each symbol represents only one sound.

International Pronouncing has given a list of sound symbols which can be discussed under two headings, such as Consonants and Vowels.

#### 9.1 List of Selected Words with Phonetic Transcription

- |    |     |        |
|----|-----|--------|
| 1. | Act | /ækt/  |
| 2. | Add | /æd/   |
| 3. | An  | /æn/   |
| 4. | And | /ænd/  |
| 5. | Art | /ɑː/   |
| 6. | Ask | /ɑːsk/ |
| 7. | At  | /æt/   |

|     |        |         |
|-----|--------|---------|
| 8.  | Any    | /æni/   |
| 9.  | Back   | /bæk/   |
| 10. | Bag    | /bæg/   |
| 11. | Ball   | /bɔ:l/  |
| 12. | Bank   | /bæŋk/  |
| 13. | Be     | /bi:/   |
| 14. | Bed    | /bed/   |
| 15. | Bell   | /bel/   |
| 16. | Best   | /best/  |
| 17. | Bleed  | /bli:d/ |
| 18. | Blue   | /blu:/  |
| 19. | Book   | /bʊk/   |
| 20. | Block  | /blɔ:k/ |
| 21. | Born   | /bɔ:n/  |
| 22. | Can    | /kæn/   |
| 23. | Car    | /kɑ:/   |
| 24. | Could  | /kʊd/   |
| 25. | Chin   | /tʃɪn/  |
| 26. | Cheese | /tʃi:z/ |
| 27. | City   | /sɪti/  |
| 28. | Cup    | /kʌp/   |
| 29. | Cut    | /kʌt/   |
| 30. | Clean  | /kli:n/ |
| 31. | Do     | /du:/   |
| 32. | Did    | /dɪd/   |
| 33. | Doll   | /dɔ:l/  |
| 34. | Dig    | /dɪg/   |
| 35. | Done   | /dʌn/   |
| 36. | Dish   | /dɪʃ/   |
| 37. | Dog    | /dɔ:g/  |
| 38. | Dress  | /dres/  |
| 39. | Drill  | /drɪl/  |
| 40. | Dust   | /dʌst/  |

|     |       |         |
|-----|-------|---------|
| 41. | Dream | /dri:m/ |
| 42. | Drink | /drɪŋk/ |
| 43. | Eat   | /i:t/   |
| 44. | Each  | /i:tʃ/  |
| 45. | Enter | /entə/  |
| 46. | Easy  | /i:zi/  |
| 47. | East  | /i:t/   |
| 48. | Fun   | /fʌn/   |
| 49. | Feel  | /fi:l/  |
| 50. | Fill  | /fil/   |
| 51. | Fleet | /fli:t/ |
| 52. | Foot  | /fʊt/   |
| 53. | Fool  | /fʊ:l/  |
| 54. | Full  | /fʊl/   |
| 55. | Get   | /get/   |
| 56. | Gun   | /gʌn/   |
| 57. | Geese | /gi:z/  |
| 58. | Gift  | /gift/  |
| 59. | Glad  | /glæd/  |
| 60. | Glass | /glɑ:s/ |
| 61. | Give  | /gɪv/   |
| 62. | Hit   | /hɪt/   |
| 63. | Hut   | /hʌt/   |
| 64. | Hub   | /hʌb/   |
| 65. | Hilly | /hɪli/  |
| 66. | Horn  | /hɔ:n/  |
| 67. | Heat  | /hi:t/  |
| 68. | Hat   | /hæt/   |
| 69. | Hut   | /hʌt/   |
| 70. | Ink   | /ɪŋk/   |
| 71. | It    | /ɪt/    |

|      |       |         |
|------|-------|---------|
| 72.  | Is    | /ɪz/    |
| 73.  | Inner | /ɪnə/   |
| 74.  | Ill   | /ɪl/    |
| 75.  | Jug   | /dʒʌg/  |
| 76.  | Job   | /dʒɒb/  |
| 77.  | Juice | /dʒuːs/ |
| 78.  | Key   | /kiː/   |
| 79.  | Keep  | /kiːp/  |
| 80.  | Kill  | /kɪl/   |
| 81.  | Knee  | /niː/   |
| 82.  | Love  | /lʌv/   |
| 83.  | Lift  | /lɪft/  |
| 84.  | List  | /lɪst/  |
| 85.  | Lip   | /lɪp/   |
| 86.  | Lick  | /lɪp/   |
| 87.  | Let   | /let/   |
| 88.  | Luck  | /lʌk/   |
| 89.  | Moon  | /muːn/  |
| 90.  | Mint  | /mɪnt/  |
| 91.  | Mist  | /mɪst/  |
| 92.  | Mid   | /mɪd/   |
| 93.  | Meal  | /miːl/  |
| 94.  | Nil   | /nɪl/   |
| 95.  | Nest  | /nest/  |
| 96.  | None  | /nʌn/   |
| 97.  | Nick  | /nɪk/   |
| 98.  | Next  | /nekst/ |
| 99.  | Oil   | /ɔɪl/   |
| 100. | Pink  | /pɪŋk/  |
| 101. | Pull  | /pʊl/   |
| 102. | Push  | /pʊʃ/   |



|      |       |         |
|------|-------|---------|
| 103. | Part  | /pɑ:t/  |
| 104. | Queen | /kwi:n/ |
| 105. | Quick | /kwɪk/  |
| 106. | Rest  | /rest/  |
| 107. | Reach | /ri:tʃ/ |
| 108. | Run   | /rʌn/   |
| 109. | Red   | /red/   |
| 110. | Sun   | /sʌn/   |
| 111. | Sit   | /sɪt/   |
| 112. | Seven | /seven/ |
| 113. | Spoon | /sp:n/  |
| 114. | Spin  | /spɪn/  |
| 115. | Tip   | /tɪp/   |
| 116. | Till  | /tɪl/   |
| 117. | Ten   | /ten/   |
| 118. | Teeth | /ti:θ/  |
| 119. | Until | /ʌntɪl/ |
| 120. | Up    | /ʌp/    |
| 121. | Visit | /vɪzɪt/ |
| 122. | Win   | /wɪn/   |
| 123. | With  | /wɪð/   |
| 124. | Wish  | /wɪʃ/   |
| 125. | Zip   | /zɪp/   |
| 126. | Zoo   | /zʊ:/   |

Learners can consult the English Pronouncing Dictionary (EPD) to see the correct pronunciation of any English word. They are also advised to attempt to transcribe the following words into IPA symbols for practice.

## 9.2 Practice

| <b>Word</b> | <b>Your Transcription</b> | <b>Correction, if any</b> |
|-------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Feel        |                           |                           |

Set  
Seat  
Pool  
But  
Big  
Cat  
Go  
Gun  
Bird  
Boil  
Ear  
Tear  
Pot  
Bin  
Bing  
Sip  
Ship  
Chin  
Leave  
Wet  
Thin  
That  
Then  
Sing  
Hat  
Red  
Stool  
Stunt  
Splash  
Zen  
Run  
Room

### 9.3 Minimal Pairs

A minimal pair is a set of words whose pronunciation is different from each other by single sound. The single speech sound changes the meaning of the word.

This single sound is called phoneme in linguistics. The study of minimal pairs help to understand the pronunciations and meanings of the words. For example, we can take two words “sit” and “bit”. These two similar sounding words differ by one consonant sound /s/ and /b/.

We can differentiate the sound in the following minimal pairs by speaking them or by transcribing them into IPA symbols.

#### 9.3.1 Examples of Minimal Pairs

|             |             |
|-------------|-------------|
| / Bin /     | / Tin /     |
| / Soot /    | / Loot /    |
| / Read /    | / Red /     |
| / Royal /   | / Loyal /   |
| / Ramp /    | / Lamp /    |
| / Belly /   | / Berry /   |
| / Bun /     | / Bin /     |
| / Big /     | / Gig /     |
| / Rat /     | / Bat /     |
| / Rock /    | / Lock /    |
| / Kid /     | / Bid /     |
| / Bill /    | / Will /    |
| / Roof /    | / Hoof /    |
| / Sit /     | / Seat /    |
| / Boom /    | / Zoom /    |
| / Soon /    | / Moon /    |
| / Light /   | / Right /   |
| / Grow /    | / Glow /    |
| / Collect / | / Correct / |

|            |            |
|------------|------------|
| / Climb /  | / Crime /  |
| / Lice /   | / Rice /   |
| / Link /   | / Rink /   |
| / Gloom /  | / Groom /  |
| / Pass /   | / Path /   |
| / Root /   | / Loot /   |
| / Elect /  | / Erect /  |
| / Thumb /  | / Sum /    |
| / Lack /   | / Rack /   |
| / Ram /    | / Lamb /   |
| / Sit /    | / Bit /    |
| / His /    | / Him /    |
| / That /   | / Sat /    |
| / Sick /   | / Thick /  |
| / Mouth /  | / Mouse /  |
| / Sigh /   | / Thigh /  |
| / Song /   | / Thong /  |
| / Sink /   | / Think /  |
| / Force /  | / Fourth / |
| / Math /   | / Mass /   |
| / Saw /    | / Thaw /   |
| / Myth /   | / Miss /   |
| / Thing /  | / Sing /   |
| / Fast /   | / Vast /   |
| / Fender / | / Vendor / |
| / Fan /    | / Van /    |
| / Foul /   | / Vowel /  |
| / Fairy /  | / Very /   |
| / Phase /  | / Vase /   |

|            |           |
|------------|-----------|
| / Vine /   | / Fine /  |
| / Save /   | / Safe /  |
| / Arrive / | / Alive / |
| / Rag /    | / Lag /   |
| / Cloud /  | / Crowd / |
| / But /    | / Shut /  |
| / Root /   | / Boot /  |
| / Cat /    | / Rat /   |
| / Still /  | / Steel / |
| / Gun /    | / Sun /   |
| / Gloom/   | / Groom / |
| / Flash /  | / Flush / |
| / Full /   | /Fill/    |
| / Bun /    | / Bin /   |
| / Put /    | / Pit /   |
| / Wit /    | / Wet /   |
| / Would /  | / Could / |
| / Ring /   | /Wing/    |
| / Thing /  | / King /  |
| / Tub /    | / Pub /   |

#### 9.4 List of Questions for Practice

##### Long Questions

- Q1. Discuss the classification of English speech sounds in detail.
- Q2. Differentiate between Consonant and Vowel sounds with suitable examples.
- Q3. Give the description and classification of Consonant sounds
- Q4. Enlist English consonant sounds with suitable examples
- Q5. Enlist English vowel Sounds with suitable examples

##### Short Notes

- a. What are IPA symbols?

- b. What do you understand by the term minimal pair?
- c. How can you differentiate between a consonant and a vowel sound?

## Unit X

### Prosodic Features : Intonation, Stress, Rhythm and Accent

#### 10.0 Objectives

This unit is focused on prosodic features, such as Intonation, Stress, Rhythm, and Accent. The students are explained that where to give stress in pronouncing particular words and where not to. Then how they should generate rhythm in the flow of their speech. Then, Accent has been explained. After the study of this unit, a student will be able to

1. Understand the basics of Phonetics
2. Understand the significance of stress and rhythm
3. Understand the accent and its nature
4. Differentiate between dialect and accent

#### 10.1 Intonation

It refers to the rising and falling of the pitch of the voice. In continuous speech, the function of the glottis leads to the pitch fluctuation. It can be observed, it never remains constant even for more than a moment. This fluctuation is not random but follows a defined pattern which is always meaningful

**10.1.2 Pitch** of the voice is decided by the frequency of vibration at the level of vocal folds. The patterns of vibration constitute the intonation of a language. If we look simply, a rising pitch pattern is a rise in the voice, it is a glide in the pitch of our voice upwards; a falling pitch pattern is a fall in the voice. For example, observe the following sentence

“I’d like some eggs, some milk, some cheese, and some bread”

Each item given in the sentence is spoken with the rising pitch but we use a falling tone for the last word ‘bread’

In the following sentences the pitch falls in the end

Put that down (pitch falls on the word “down”)

Go over there (pitch falls on the word “there”)

#### 10.1.3 The shapes of the tone/tune

The shape of the tone is decided by the number of important words in the expression by the attitude we wish to express them. Important words means the words which carry most of the meaning of the expression. For example, in the answer to the question “How was your friends?” “They were in an appallingly bad temper”- the first four words are not specifically helpful to the meaning but the last words are important. The most important word in this group is “temper” and this decides the shape of the tone.

They were in an appallingly bad

t  
e  
m  
p  
e  
r

Thus, the most important word in this sentence is the “temper” which decides the shape of the tone.

The tone may fall in a particular case and it may rise in another particular case but there are certain conditions that it may be falling-rising tone. Accordingly the functioning of the tone is divided into three categories: The falling tone, the rising tone, and the falling-rising tone.

1. **The falling tone:** It is also called the glide-down. The pitch of the voice falls from the high level to a low level in this activity.

Generally, falling tone is used when

1.1 the statement is without any implications

- a. I like her very ↘ much
- b. It was quite ↘ natural

1.2 Questions statement starting with a question-word, such as when, what, where, who etc

- a. What is the ↘ issue?
- b. Who were you ↘ talking to?

1.3 In commands

- a. Open the ↘ door
- b. Take this a ↘ way

1.4 In exclamations

- a. ↘ Marvelous!
- b. ↘ Splendid!

1.5 In question tags, where the sender expects the receiver to agree with him

- a. It's ↘ hot today, ↘ isn't it?
- b. It was a good ↘ book, ↘ wasn't it?



## 1.6 In Rhetorical questions

- a. Isn't that a ↘ difficult exam?
- b. Wasn't that ↘ kind of him?

### Practice

Mark the following utterances using a falling tone

Thank you

It's a good day

Sit down

It's impossible

How is the weather?

Its nine.

He is very handsome.

Thanks

2. **The rising tone:** It is also called the glide-up. Pitch of the voice rises from the low level to a high level in this activity.

Generally, rising tone is used

#### 2.1 In Incomplete statements

- a. I 'll buy you a ↗toy (if I go there)
- b. It's ten o ↗clock (and he has not got up yet)

#### 2.2 In polarity type questions demanding a yes or no answer

- a. Are you ↗coming?
- b. Will you ↗read it?

#### 2.3 In Non-polarity (wh-type) questions said in a warm and friendly way

- a. How's your ↗mother?
- b. What's the ↗matter?

#### 2.4 In, Polite requests

- a. Pleas open the ↗window
- b. Take it a ↗way.

#### 2.5 In question tags, when the speaker gives the listener the option to disagree with him/her

- a. you are the gatekeeper, ↗aren't you?
- b. It was a good Movie, ↗wasn't it?

## 2.6 In repetition questions

a. (Varinder told me to do it)

↗Who told you?

## 2.7 In expected responses

a. ↗Thank you

(To express real gratitude, one has to say thank

## 2.8

### 10.2.1 Stress

#### Stress in simple words

| First Syllable Stressed | Second Syllable Stressed  | Final Syllable Stressed |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| / ' m ʌ ð ə /           | / t ə ' m ɑ: t ə ʊ /      |                         |
| / ' ə ʊ p ə n /         | / ə ' p ɑ: t m ə n t /    | / ə ' r a ʊ n d /       |
| / ' f e ɪ v ə /         | / k ɒ n v ə ' s e ɪ ʃ n / | / p r ə ' t e k t /     |

We mark a stressed syllable in transcription by placing a small vertical line

( ' ) high up, just before the syllable it relates to.

#### Production:

The stressed syllable is produced with greater breath force.

With rapid muscular movement

With sub-glottal pressure

#### Perception (Prominence):

It is related to 4 things

2. Loudness
3. Length
4. Pitch
5. Quality

**Loudness:** The stressed part of the word is loud.

For example /fɑ:/ in the word 'father'

**Length:** The stressed part of the word is longer

For example /fɑ:/ in the word 'father'

**Pitch:** (frequency of Vocal folds decides high or low pitch)

The part of word produced with high pitch is stressed syllable.

Quality: A syllable will tend to be prominent if it contains a vowel that is different in quality from neighboring vowels. If it has a different vowel in any nonsense word like- ba:ba:bi:ba: then the odd syllable bi: will tend to be heard as stressed.

There are weak syllables, such as

i  
u  
ɪ  
ə

There are Syllabic Consonants, such as

l̩  
ŋ

We can look on stressed syllables as occurring against a “background” of these weak syllables (and syllabic consonants), so that their prominence is increased by contrast with these background qualities.

Levels of Stress

Mainly, we can say that there are two possibilities

1. Stressed and 2. Unstressed

### **Stressed**

There are two major stress types: 1. Primary 2. Secondary

For example in /ə'raʊnd/, /ə/ is unstressed syllable and /'raʊnd/ is stressed.

There are some weak syllables which can be a peak but they are always unstressed

i  
u  
ɪ  
ə  
l̩  
ŋ

### **10.2.2 Placement of Stress within the Word**

The placement of stress is not so easy task. Neither there is any hard and fast rule to determine it. But for help we have some general rules

- In the first, we have to check whether the word is morphologically simple or complex as a result either of containing one or more affixes (prefixes or suffixes) or of being a compound word.

- What is grammatical category of the word (noun/verb/adjective etc.)
- How many syllables the word has
- What the phonological structure of those syllable is.

Examples of strong syllables

Die /dɪ/

Heart /hɑ:t/

Bat /bæt/

Example of weak syllable is Reduce /rɪdʒʊ:s/

### 10.2.3 Two syllable words

In this case only one syllable will be stressed not both.

Enter /'entə/

Upon /'əʊpən/

Assist /'æsɪst/

### 10.2.4 Nouns

If the second syllable contains a short vowel, then the stress will usually come on the first syllable otherwise it will be on the second syllable.

Money /'mʌni/

Estate /ɪ'steɪt/

### 10.2.5 Three-syllable words

Entertain /entə'teɪn/

Emperor /'empərə/

### 10.2.6 Stem and Root

In a complex word there is a root word which is simply called a root. Then attaching affixes to the root we create complex words. For example in the word

'Personality'

We can say that the suffix 'ity' is attached to the stem 'Personal' which contains the root 'Person'.

### 10.2.7 Major types of Complex Words

- Words made from a basic word form (which is called stem), with the addition of an affix.

- ii. Compound words, which are made of two independent English words  
(like Ice-Cream, arm-chair)

**10.2.8 Affixes** There are two types of affixes: Prefix and Suffix.

**Prefix** comes before the 'stem' and suffix comes after the stem.

Affixes have one of three possible effects on word stress

- a. The affix itself receives the primary stress

for example Semi+circle

/sɜ:k l/ → /sɛ m ɪ sɜ:k l/

- b. The word is stressed just as if the affix were not there

for example Un+Pleasant

/p l e z n t/ /ʌ n'p l e z n t/

- c. The stress remains on the stem, not the affix, but is shifted to a different syllable

for example 'magnet' and 'magnetic'

/m æ g n ə t/ /m æ g'n e t i k/

**Suffix** is attached to the stem after it. For example in 'Personality', we can say that the suffix 'ity' is attached to the stem 'Personal' which contains the root 'Person'. There are some generalizations about suffixes and stress:

- Suffixes carrying primary stress themselves
- There are some suffixes, when they are attached to the word, they themselves got primary stress.

For example

Refugee / r e f j u 'dʒi/

Cigarette / s ɪ g r 'e t/

### **10.2.9 Suffixes that do not affect stress placement**

-able

- age

-al

-en

-ful  
-ing  
-ish  
-like  
-less  
-ly  
-ment (n)  
-ness  
-ous  
-fy  
-wise  
-y

Suffixes that influence stress in the stem

-eous  
-graphy  
-ial  
-ic  
-ion  
-ious  
-ty  
-ive  
-ance  
-ary

**Prefixes**

There is no need to discuss about Prefixes more than this that the best treatment seems to be to say that stress in words with prefixes is governed by the same rules as those for words without prefixes.

### 10.2.10 Compound Words

Compound words' main characteristic is that it can be analyzed into two words, both of which can exist independently. Usually the first part of compound words is stressed but not always.

Chocolate-Cake /'tʃɑklətkeɪk/

Coffee-mug /kə'fɪmʌg/

Perhaps the most familiar type of compound is the one which combines two nouns and which normally has the stress on the first element as in

Tea Cup /'ti:kʌp/

Sunrise /'sʌnrɑɪz/

Compound words with an adjective as first element and 'ed' as morpheme at the end have the following pattern

Bad-'tempered half-'timbered

Compound words in which the first element is a number in some form also tend to have final stress

Three-'wheeler Second-'class

Compounds functioning as adverbs are usually have final stress

Head-'firstNorth-'East

Compound words which function as verbs and have an adverbial first element take final stress

Down-'grade back-'pedal

### 10.2.11 Variable-stress

Stress position may vary for one of two reasons: either as a result of the stress on other

words occurring next to the word in question, or because not all speakers agree on the placement of stress in some words. The main effect is that the stress on a final-stressed compound tends to move to a preceding syllable if the following word begins with a strongly stressed syllable.

### World Class Pairs

There are several dozen pairs of two-syllable words with identical spellings which differ from each other in stress placement, apparently according to word class (noun/verb/adjective). When there is a word as noun or adjective then the first syllable is stressed and in verbs the second is stressed.

### Connected Speech

The study of connected speech is very useful for us. This study has many lessons to teach us about pronunciation, teaching, and learning. In looking at connected speech it is useful to bear in mind the difference between the way humans speak and what would be found in 'mechanical speech'.

### The features of Connected Speech

1. Rhythm
2. Assimilation
3. Elision

#### 10.3.1 Rhythm

The notion of rhythm involves some noticeable event happening at regular intervals of time: one can detect the rhythm of a heart-beat, of a flashing light or of a piece of music. It has often been claimed that English speech is rhythmical, and that the rhythm is detectable in the regular occurrence of stressed syllables, of course it is not suggested that the timing is as regular as a clock, the regularity of occurrence is only relative. The theory that English has stressed timed rhythm implies that stressed syllables will tend to occur at relatively regular intervals whether they are separated by unstressed syllables or not. This would not be the case in mechanical speech.

#### Example Sentence

1        2                    3                                    4                                            5  
Walk 'down the 'path to the 'end of the cañal

In this exemplary sentence, the stressed syllables are given numbers, syllable 1,2 are not separated by any unstressed syllable, 2 & 3 are separated by one unstressed syllable, 3 & 4 by



two and 4 & 5 by three.

The stressed-time rhythm theory states that the times from each stressed syllable to the next will tend to be the same, irrespective of the numbers of intervening unstressed syllables.

Some other languages, such as French and Telugu have a different rhythmical structure called syllable-timed rhythm. In these languages, all syllables, whether stressed or unstressed, tend to occur at regular time-intervals and the time between stressed syllables will be shorter or longer in proportion to the number of unstressed syllables.

Some writers have developed theories of English rhythm in which a unit of rhythm, the foot, is used (with an obvious parallel in the metrical analysis of verse). The foot begins with a stressed syllable and includes all following unstressed syllables up to (but not including) the following stressed syllable. The above given sentence of example would be divided into feet as

|       |           |              |                |      |
|-------|-----------|--------------|----------------|------|
| 1     | 2         | 3            | 4              | 5    |
| 'Walk | 'down the | 'path to the | 'end of the ca | 'nal |

Some theories of rhythm go further than this, and point to the fact that some feet are stronger than others, producing strong-weak patterns in larger pieces of speech above the level of foot. Example: The word 'Twenty' has one strong and one weak syllable, forming one foot.

|                 |               |
|-----------------|---------------|
| Strong syllable | Weak Syllable |
| Twen            | ty            |

There is a metrical grid of a sentence

|        |      |        |      |        |      |        |
|--------|------|--------|------|--------|------|--------|
| Strong | Weak | Strong | Weak | Strong | Weak | Strong |
| Twen   | ty   | Pla    | ces  | Fur    | ther | back   |

### 10.3. 2 Stress Shift

1.

Compact / kəm 'pækt/

Compact Disc/ k ɒ m p æ k t 'd isk /

2.

Thirteen /θ ɜ:ti:n/

Thirteenth place / θ ɜ: t i: nθ 'pleɪs/

Stress-Timed Rhythm

Sometimes we speak rhythmically (in public speeches) but sometimes unrhythmically (when we hesitate or we are nervous). Stress-timed rhythm is thus perhaps characteristic of one style of speaking, not of English speech as a whole. One always speaks with some degree of rhythmicality, but the degree varies between a minimum value (arhythmical) and a maximum value (completely stress-timed rhythm).

#### 10.4.1 Accent

Communication is an exchange of information and ideas. It is notable that every speaker has his or her distinct style of speaking. This distinctive style of pronunciation is called accent. The accent is associated with a particular region or social class of the speaker. It can be observed that the speakers of English all over the world have different accents to speak. Two major accents of English are popular: the British and The American.

The countries associated with the British culture are under the impact of the British accent and the countries associated with the American culture use the American accent to speak in English. Further, it can also be observed that the accent varies from region to region and culture to culture within a country.

India has been ruled by the British for a long time so the British accent is popular in India. Then, India is also a wide country in itself so there are further variations in the way of speaking English in the various parts of India. But, broadly, Indians follow the British accent while speaking in English.

If one is not British but try to put on British accent at any point then he or she will certainly carry the ‘Received Pronunciation’. It is also called King’s/Queen’s English or Oxford English. The Received Pronunciation will be the closest to a “standard accent” in the United Kingdom.

The most important feature of the received pronunciation is that it is non-rhoticity means that /r/ sound is not produced at the end of the word for example in the production of speech sounds of the following words

**Father** will be pronounced as /fɑ:ðə/

**Mother** will be pronounced as /məðə/

The words like “dance”, “bath”, and “dance” will have **long A** sound /ɑ:/

Accents have unique features

1. It is difficult to copy a particular accent. For example, if we Indians go to England and try to speak in the accent of the native English speakers, we shall be identified as non-native speakers.

2. People have different attitudes towards accents. Some have negative and some positive. Some people like particular accents and some dislike them.
3. Accents and dialects are interrelated. One can easily and clearly observe the impact of the dialect on the accent.
4. Some accents have high status in our society. It is actually due to the higher positions of their speakers.

### **10.5.1 Difference between Accent and Dialect**

Sometimes the accent and dialect are taken as same thing. But they are different as accents relate to our way of pronunciation and dialects relate to words and grammar.

Thus, English language has various accents according to variations in backgrounds, cultures, geography etc. Actually, each speaker of English has his or her own accent.

### **10.6 Questions for Practice**

#### Long Questions

1. Discuss the pattern of stress and intonation in English language
2. What are falling tones and rising tones? Discuss in detail.
3. What is stress? How does it shift in various conditions?
4. Discuss the significance of Rhythm in English language speaking.
5. What is accent? What are the various factors which affect it?

#### Short Notes

1. Write a short note on “Stress”.
2. Write a short note on “Pitch”.
3. What is Rhythm?
4. Differentiate between dialect and accent.
5. Differentiate between falling and rising tone.

#### Suggested Readings

- Roach, Peter, English Phonetics and Phonology : A Practical course, Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 1983.
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- Jones, Daniel, English Pronouncing Dictionary, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006.

