

MAENG 1.4



**M.A. (ENGLISH)
PART - I
SEMESTER - I
REVISED SYLLABUS AS PER NEP 2020**

**LANGUAGE: BASIC
CONCEPTS AND THEORIES**

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Programme Name: **M.A. (English)**

Course Name: **Language: Basic Concepts
and Theories
Major Mandatory Course**

Total Credits: 04

University Assessment: 25

Pre requisite: Intermediate level proficiency in English language

Total Marks: 50

College Assessment: 25

Preamble:

The course in Language: Basic Concepts is aimed to explore the nature of language beginning with language and linguistics, structural organization of English language and the history and present status of the English Language. Study of the English language is an important tool for the study of literature and literature can be an important source of evidence for the study of the language across cultures, regions, nations, and time. Besides, this course is designed to help students to negotiate style, both as readers and writers: stylistics embodies the essential connection between literature and language studies in grammar, discourse, and cognition.

It is very important to note that the knowledge of key concepts in Modern Language studies is crucial to understanding the intricacies of human language in general and English language in particular. An understanding of the origin and the development of English language contributes to the formation of Modern English. Moreover, different levels of language and linguistic analysis equip students with the ability to analyse spoken and written text. Such an understanding of the English language forms the basis for its study in areas such as literary studies, translation or second or foreign language learning and teaching. It is with this intent, the present course is designed. The course will help students gain an insight into the origin and development of English language, the key concepts in general linguistics. Learners would be able to identify them according to their domains, define and distinguish them in addition to providing suitable illustrations.

Objectives of the Course:

- To explore the link between linguistics and the language
- To acquaint students to the various levels of structural organization of language
- To trace the origin and the contributory factors in the development of English language

- To familiarize students with some of the basic concepts in the study of language

Learning outcomes of the Course:

Having successfully completed this course, the learner will:

1. Be able to explore the link between linguistics and the language
2. Be able to identify various levels of structural organization of language
3. Demonstrate an exploratory understanding of the origin and the development of English language
4. Display familiarity with the basic concepts in the study of language
- 5.

Semester: I - Course - IV

Title of the Course: Language: Basic Concepts and Theories

MODULE I: (2 CREDITS)

Unit I:

15

A: Language and Linguistics

- Linguistics as a Scientific Study of Language
- Traditional Approaches to the Study of Languages
- Scope of Linguistics

B: Levels of Structural Organization (1)

- Morphology: Definition and scope, Classification of Morphemes, Processes of Word formation techniques
- Semantics: Words as meaningful units (Reference and Sense, Sense Relations)- Types of meaning, Lexical Semantics: (Synonymy, Antonymy, Hyponymy, Homonymy) - Sentence meaning

A: Levels of Structural Organization (2)

- Phonology: Nature, features, division and significance of phonetics, Organs of Speech
- Classification of English vowels and consonants – Cardinal Vowels - Phonetic transcription - Suprasegmental features: Intonation and Stress

B: Introduction to English Language

- What is language? - Characteristics of Language - Varieties of Language
- The Origins of Language in General
- The Biological Basis of Language and Language and Brain
- Origin of English Language and History of English Language: Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English, Late Modern English

Evaluation Pattern:

College Assessment = Total Marks: 25			
S. No.	Nature of Assessment	Marks	
1.	Classroom participation and attendance	05 Marks	
	Written Assignment	10 Marks	
	Oral Presentation	10 Marks	
	Total Marks	25 Marks	
University Assessment (Semester End) Total Marks: 25			
S. No.	Pattern of Question Paper	Marks	Unit
Q.1	MCQ (05 Questions)	05	I & II
Q.2	Short notes on ANY TWO out of four	10	I and II
Q.3	A. Essay Type QuestionOr B. Essay Type Question	10	I and II

Suggested Topics for Internal Assessment (Written and Oral 10+10)

- ✓ Analysis of any of the following in the selected speech sample/s of Indian/ any non-native Speaker/s of English
 - Select Consonants and Consonant clusters
 - Vowels & Diphthongs
 - Word Stress

- Weak and Strong forms in Connected Speech
 - Intonation Patterns
- ✓ Error Analysis of an academic essay (Morphological, syntactic and discourse level)
- ✓ Students in consultation with the teacher can choose the relevant topic/s for the assignment.

Instructions for Written Assignment:

- Length of the written report: 1000 words (excluding abstract, key words, references, and appendices in any)
- The written assignment should follow the below given structure:

Title, Abstract, Keywords, Introduction, Discussion of Major Concepts, Brief note on the selected samples, Detailed Analysis, Conclusion, Footnotes, if necessary and References

Recommended Reading

1. Aitchison, Jean. *Linguistics*. Teach Yourself Series. Hodder and Stoughton, 1983.
2. Baker, C.L *English Syntax*. The MIT Press, 1995.
3. Berk, Lynn. M. *English Syntax*. Oxford University Press, 1999.
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13. Trask, Robert Lawrence. *Language: The Basics*. Routledge, 2003.
14. Yule, George. *The Study of Language: An Introduction*. Cambridge University Press, 2006.

Web Resources:

1. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/English-language>
2. Language and Dialect:
<https://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2016/01/difference-between-language-dialect/424704/>
3. <https://www.oxfordinternationalenglish.com/a-brief-history-of-the-english-language/>
4. <https://theculturetrip.com/europe/united-kingdom/articles/the-development-of-the-british-english-language/>
5. <http://www.ling.sinica.edu.tw/LI/en/about>
6. <https://www.linguisticsociety.org/resource/science-linguistics#:~:text=Linguistics%20is%20the%20science%20of,the%20world's%20over%206%2C000%20languages.>
7. https://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/Fall_2003/ling001/texts/Miller1.pdf
8. <https://linguistics.ucsc.edu/about/what-is-linguistics.html>
9. <https://www.teahfd.com/2017/02/what-are-some-of-branches-of-linguistics.html>

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LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS: LINGUISTICS AS A SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF LANGUAGE

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Introduction
- 1.3 Language: An Essential Aspect of Study
- 1.4 Characteristics of Language
- 1.5 Origin and History of Linguistics
- 1.6. Branches of Linguistics
- 1.7 Contrastive and Comparative Linguistics
- 1.8 Difference Between Human Language and Communication Systems of Other Animals
- 1.9 Difference Between Linguistics and Phonetics
- 1.10 Questions
- 1.11 Bibliography

1.1 OBJECTIVES

- To acquaint the learners with the concept of linguistics
- To enable the learners to establish the connection between language and linguistics
- To enable learners to apply linguistic principles in language learning.
- To enable the learners to differentiate between linguistics and traditional grammar
- To enable learners to distinguish between linguistics and phonetics.
- To introduce learners to the major branches of linguistics.
- To enable the learners to differentiate between human language and communication systems of other animals.
- To acquaint the learners with contrastive and comparative linguistics.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Students of literature need to understand the connection between the literature they study and the language that as a medium conveys its essence to the readers. It is imperative for the students of literature to know how a language works, especially its grammatical structures, syntax, and phonetics. An acquaintance with the notions of linguistics equips the students of literature with the necessary ability to analyze literary texts and it develops a deeper understanding of the language and its functioning at various levels. It is therefore necessary for the students of English literature to know about the historical stages of the development of English language and multiple branches of linguistics that enrich their understanding of language from different perspectives.

Therefore, this course introduces the students to the basic concept of linguistics as the scientific study of language. This unit aims at explaining what linguistics means and also the scope of linguistics.

1.3 LANGUAGE: AN ESSENTIAL ASPECT OF STUDY

Language, as Richard and Smidth (1985) have defined, is “the system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds (or their written representation) into larger units” like morphemes, words, or sentences. However, they further mention that the meaning also extends to non-human systems of communication like that of other animals. They have further considered the aspects of language concerning regional variations as well as the dialectic versions of a language as they give their second definition of language.

Aitchison (1983) considers language as ‘the specialized sound-signalling system which seems to be genetically programmed to develop in humans.’ Aitchison suggests that language is unique to humans, having evolved as a biologically driven system designed for complex communication. This development is not merely a learned skill but an innate capability that unfolds naturally in humans.

A student of literature, studying literature in a specific language, needs to be familiar with different aspects enriching that language. The grammar, lexis, phonetics, etc. that shape up the language and infuse meaning in a literary text are of utmost importance as the units of language to be known and understood before analyzing the text. As mentioned before, the type of language and the grammatical/ structural and lexical variations used by the literary artist certainly lend different layers of meaning as conveyed by the language of the text.

Therefore, it is essential to know various dimensions of linguistics, a branch of study that deals with multiple aspects of language ranging from its origin, its development up to modern times, structural aspects like lexis, syntax as well as phonetics.

Linguistics, according to Corder, is concerned with the nature of human language, how it is learned, and what part it plays in the life of the individual and the community. Aitchison (1983) defines it as the systematic study of language and it covers all the main branches. It 'describes language in all its aspects and formulates theories as to how it works.' It deals with language theoretically as well as in a descriptive manner. In short, it tries to search for the answers to questions like what is language and how it works. There is also an attempt to search for the parallels/ similarities/ common aspects among various languages. The linguists also intend to research in the areas like the differences between the human language and the language of other animals.

According to Aitchison (1983), language is a patterned activity that can be organized into three main patterns: sound patterns, word patterns, and meaning patterns. The branches of linguistics that deal with these patterns are Phonology, Morphology, and Syntax and Semantics. Apart from this, some other branches of linguistics also deal with the applied areas, for example, branches like pragmatics, sociolinguistics, stylistics, psycholinguistics, and applied linguistics.

1.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE

According to Aitchison (1983), language is 'the specialized sound-signaling system which seems to be genetically programmed to develop in humans'.

Duality:

Human language has a stock of sound units (phonemes), generally 30 or 40 in number. But a single phoneme has no meaning in isolation. It obtains meaning only in combination with other phonemes. Generally, consonant sounds, like 'g', 'd', and 's', have no meaning unless combined with some other consonants by vowel sounds. For example, 'god', 'door', 'some'. Such two- layered organization combining one layer of sounds into another layer of larger sounds is called duality or double articulation (Aitchison: 1983).

Displacement:

The human ability to communicate regarding the things that are absent as easily as regarding those things that are present is known as displacement.

Creativity:

It is the human capacity to utter a sentence that has never been produced before and which can still be understood.

Patterning:

There are specific ways in which phonemes can be combined and sequenced. For example, sounds like 'c', 'r', 'b' and 'a' cannot be sequenced as 'cbra' or 'crba' or 'brca' as those cannot be pronounced and thus would also not be understood by anyone even quite well-versed in the

language. This is due to the rules of internal patterning of the English language. It is only when these sounds are patterned as 'crab' or 'carb' that they can be pronounced and understood. Similarly, one can very well know that the former way of sequencing does not carry any meaning and so there are no such units found in the language. Any person able to speak and understand language will be able to identify such units as meaningless and wrongly spelt units or words.

Language is thus 'an intricate network of elements that are interconnected where every single item has a specific place and it obtains identity when accompanied by other items. The functioning of a language depends on the understanding of the internal structure of a sentence.

1.5 ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS

Linguistics, as a branch of study, is considered to have been originated in 1786 when Sir William Jones read a paper to the Royal Asiatic Society in Calcutta wherein he stated that the classical languages like Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Celtic, and Germanic had 'striking structural similarities.' He even claimed that these languages must have had a common source of origin. Several other scholars too were thinking along parallel lines in terms of this common feature. Having been inspired by this discovery by Jones, the scholars in the area, for the next whole century, kept themselves busy with writing comparative grammars. Their interests, while writing these grammars, concentrated on searching for different linguistic forms in 'the' various members of the Indo-European language family' and tried to hypothetically set up an ancestor, 'ProtoIndo- European' that gave birth to all these languages.

Darwin's theory of evolution boosted this theory of the evolution of languages in the mid-nineteenth century. This further led the scholars by the end of the century, the 'Young Grammarians', to claim that it is a regular feature of the language to change. They seem to have pioneered a thought that language change is a definite feature that can be stated as a law.

The 20th century, however, witnessed a shift in the linguists' approach from language change to language description. The interest in language shifted from the differences in linguistic items of more than one language to describing a specific language simultaneously. The Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure (1857 – 1913) is sometimes accredited for being 'the father of modern linguistics'. In 1915, his students published his lecture notes which they had collected, under the title Course in General Linguistics which impacted the direction followed by linguists in Europe.

De Saussure initiated a claim that 'all language items are essentially interlinked' which is considered his major contribution in the history of linguistics. He is considered to be the pioneer of structural linguistics. According to him, the language, 'like a game of chess,' is a system consisting of items that are interlinked to each other and thus it is a well-

knit, 'carefully built' structure of interwoven elements. This proposition by Saussure thus laid the foundation of Structural Linguistics.

However, it is equally necessary to track the developments happening elsewhere in this area around the same time. In United States, the publication of Leonard Bloomfield's *Language* in 1933 tried to describe a language with the help of specific procedures that he had laid down. According to Bloomfield, 'objective' and 'systematic' treatment of 'observable' data was very important in linguistics. He was against studying meaning as an important criterion in the field of linguistics as he thought that one cannot rigorously study and analyze it and thus called meaning 'the weak point in language study'. His influence on the studies of linguistics lasted for more than 20 years.

Influenced by Bloomfield, many linguists during this era tried writing descriptive grammars of unwritten languages. While doing so, they used to find the native speakers of that specific language and then collect sets of utterances; and analyze the data collected in the form of utterances.

However, this process was followed 'without taking recourse to meaning.' Several problems faced during this process of writing grammars could not be resolved by the methods proposed by Bloomfield. This resulted in the pursuit of perfection as regarded the analytical techniques. Many linguists kept themselves busy searching for a framework of principles that would help them discover the linguistic units of an unwritten language. Such linguists who concentrated much of their efforts on finding these internal patterns, are therefore labeled 'structuralists'.

Though Bloomfieldian school initiated an important step in the form of 'a valuable background of linguistic methodology', it narrowed the scope of linguistics. By 1950, linguistics was completely disconnected from other disciplines and simply remained a subject of 'no interest' to anyone.

Syntactic Structures by Noam Chomsky in 1957, proved a revolutionary turning point in linguistics. He is considered to be the most influential linguist of the century who expanded the scope of linguistics from an obscure discipline to a vast canvas of social science encompassing different fields like psychology, anthropology, philosophy, etc. According to Chomsky, the Bloomfieldian way of laying down rules to describe language based on the data was too ambitious.

Chomsky expanded the orbit of grammar merely as a description of old utterances and went on to take the possible future utterances also into account. According to him, the traditional approach which looked at linguistics merely as a description of the 'corpus of actual utterances', couldn't understand the element of 'creativity' involved in those utterances. By creativity, he meant the human ability 'to produce and understand an indefinite number of novel utterances.'

Chomsky believed that every individual who speaks or produces linguistic utterances has an innate ability to internalize the framework of rules governing that specific language. He, therefore, thought that a linguist

should try to discover this framework of regulations governing the language. According to him, grammar can refer to an individual's internalized rules and a linguist's inquiry into these rules. He called this grammar 'generative grammar'. Chomsky is thus considered to be the pioneer of the generative linguistics era. According to Chomsky, grammar is 'a device which generates all the grammatical sequences of a language and none of the grammatical ones' and thus doesn't leave anything to the imagination. If the rules are thus formed correctly, one can very easily identify the correct and incorrect syntactic forms even without knowing a word of that specific language. This type of grammar is known as transformational generative grammar.

Apart from generative grammar, Chomsky is also known for his theory of Universal Grammar. According to him, all human beings are programmed with a common, similar linguistic mechanism irrespective of whichever linguistic group they belong to. He wanted the linguists to search for the elements and structures commonly available in all the languages. This preprogrammed linguistic framework in the human brain is an inherited one. He calls it Universal Grammar. He felt that this should be the core area of exploration, research, and analysis for linguists.

Chomsky left a lasting influence on the linguistic community for the second half of the 20th century; however, along with followers, there were critics who looked at Chomsky who 'overemphasizes constraints, the boundaries within which human language operates'. Chomskian philosophy attracted other disciplines like psychology, anthropology, neurology, etc. towards linguistics as the experts in these fields began looking at language and linguistics as the source of connect with their own disciplines.

However, though Chomsky remains a great influence on linguistics, one can observe a shift in the recent approaches to human language from the detailed and organized approach to a simpler, 'down-to-earth' view towards language. Considering the variations among different languages, the field of linguistics has developed as linguistic statisticians and typologists explore the degree of specificity in constructions within a specific language and across human languages as a whole. Corpus linguistics is a recently developed area of study where computerized databases are used and analyzed for linguistic research.

Having tracked the history of approaches to language study, it is necessary to know how the study of linguistics is categorized under different heads based on three dichotomies:

1.6 BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Synchronic and Diachronic Linguistics:

Synchronic linguistics refers to the study of a language at a specific time. Diachronic linguistics, on the other hand, means the historical study of language. In summary, one can call synchronic linguistics geographic, and

diachronic linguistics the historical study of language. It is thus also known as descriptive linguistics.

Irrespective of the historical context in which the language is used, synchronic linguistics studies the relationship between the different parts of language and its grammar. Diachronic linguistics, however, studies language as being used in various periods in history.

Theoretical and Applied Linguistics:

Theoretical linguistics aims at structuring a theoretical framework for the description of languages. In contrast, Applied Linguistics aims at applying the theories of linguistics to practical tasks to improve the methods of language teaching.

Micro and Macro Linguistics:

Though not well-established terms and used for convenience, Micro linguistics and Macro linguistics refer to the narrower and broader views of the scope of linguistics. The microlinguistic view does not consider the role of society as an important parameter in the study of language. There is a strong belief that language should be studied for its own sake. In contrast, macro-linguistics considers references to the social function of language, psychological operations involved in the production of language, the communicative function of the language, etc. as necessary in the study of language.

1.7 CONTRASTIVE AND COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS

Generally, applied linguists compare two languages to find out the dissimilarities as they apply principles of linguistics to language teaching. This is because it helps when someone is learning another language that has areas different from the learner's first language. This comparative study is known as contrastive linguistics. As this kind of comparison helps them understand the difficulties a learner may face while learning a target language, it can help them in preparing the teaching materials.

However, along with contrastive linguistics, searching for linguistic similarities is an equally important task that linguists are interested in. However, many of them study the features shared by groups of languages. These shared features are the result of three main factors:

- **Genetic:** Languages originating from a common ancestor have genetically based similarities. Comparative historical linguistics is based on two assumptions: Firstly, the connection between the sound and meaning of word is arbitrary and the second assumption is that sound changes are mostly regular. In case of a similar context, change doesn't take place only in one sound but all similar sounds change.
- **Areal:** Contact between neighbouring languages is responsible for areally- based similarities

- **Typological:** When languages belong to the same overall type, the similarities in languages are known as typological similarities.

1.8 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HUMAN LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS OF OTHER ANIMALS

It is necessary to note that the use of sounds is a common feature in humans and several other types of animals' communication. However, in the case of animals, one can find a 'connection between the signal and the message sent' but in the case of human language, the displacement. Language can be organized into two layers and human language can produce syntax to describe the objects and events that are not seen or are absent while the syntax is being produced. Animal communication systems do not possess these qualities. Additionally, humans can produce infinite novel sentences. Creativity, thus, is a feature of human language that can't be found among animals.

In the case of many animal communication systems, there is no internal organization within the system and there is plainly a list of elements. However, human language is constructed with a well-designed internal pattern.

Difference Between Linguistics And Traditional Grammar:

Linguistics describes the features of language whereas grammar prescribes the rules of correctness. The notion of 'correctness' is absent in the field of linguistics. The linguists can discuss the reasons for and the extent and existence of acceptance of a language variety in society but they never treat a specific variety superior to another one. New word coinages are equally acceptable in linguistics. For example, abbreviated expressions like 'idk' (I don't know) or 'RIP' (Rest in Peace), wrt (with reference to), etc. are commonly found on social media which may absolutely be unacceptable for a grammarian. But a linguist will always look at such expressions as a change in the language which should be considered as a phase in the history of language development.

It would open a new realm for research that can please a linguist but a grammarian, with his/her purist approach may consider it to be a harmful development of language.

It is this positive acceptance of the new developments in language history that considers new coinings like 'netizens', 'please text me', 'I'll what's app you' as enriching the language instead of grammatically wrong expressions.

Secondly, for linguists, spoken language is primary, and written as the secondary. But in the case of grammar, written text is more important. The reason for this overstressing importance is certainly the feature of permanence. To develop a framework of rules for linguistic patterning, spoken expressions couldn't provide them with enough data due to the

temporary nature of utterances. This resulted in the ‘best authors’ of the world being followed as the models of linguistic usage as they existed only in the written form. For them, spoken and written forms of language belong to different systems which need to be ‘separately analyzed’.

Linguistics does not force languages into a Latin-based framework, unlike the purists. Linguists do not believe that any specific language is capable of providing a framework for other languages.

1.9 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LINGUISTICS AND PHONETICS

Linguistics does cover phonetics as one of the parts. It is rather at the centre of linguistics and a good knowledge of phonetics always helps a linguist. However, it is a basic knowledge. Phoneticians deal with the actual sounds being uttered, the basis of a language. The position of the tongue, teeth, and vocal cords are important for phoneticians as these organs are involved in the production of sounds. They thus record and analyze the sound waves. (Aitchison, 1983).

The linguists, however, are concerned with the patterning of language. They study the form of these patterns and not the physical substance forming the language.

According to Saussure, this difference can well be explained by comparing language with a game of chess. He says that the chessmen make various moves and are aligned on the board irrespective of the substance they are made of, whether ivory or wood. Similarly, the physical substance is not a matter of concern. The pattern of a language is more important than the physical substance.

Aitchison mentions that although considered as the linguistic sciences together, phonetics is not as central to general linguistics as the patterning of language is.

1.10 QUESTIONS

1. Write short notes on:
 - a. Contrastive Linguistics
 - b. Linguistics and Phonetics
 - c. Linguistics and Traditional Grammar
 - d. Human Language and Communication Systems of Other Animals
2. ‘William Jones laid the foundation of linguistic studies in 1786 that flourished through the coming centuries leading to the studies in Corpus Linguistics in the recent times.’ Discuss.
3. Explain the characteristics of language. Why is language an essential area of study?

1.11 BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aitchison, Jean. Linguistics. Teach Yourself Series. (1983).
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- <https://www.britannica.com/science/linguistics>

SCOPE OF LINGUISTICS AND TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE

Unit Structure

- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Introduction
- 2.3 Scope of Linguistics
- 2.4 Traditional Approaches to the Study of Language
- 2.5 Syntax
- 2.6 Phonetics
- 2.7 Phonology
- 2.8 Questions
- 2.9 Bibliography

2.1 OBJECTIVES

- To introduce the learners to the scope of linguistics
- To introduce the learners to various levels of linguistics
- To introduce the learners to the traditional approaches to the study of language
- To enable the learners to understand the importance of traditional approaches to the study of language
- To introduce the learners to syntax as a traditional approach to linguistics
- To introduce the learners to the basic concepts in phonetics
- To introduce the learners to the difference between phonetics and phonology

2.2 INTRODUCTION

Language being a medium of expression for human beings, the study of language, i.e., linguistics considers its several aspects while analyzing its different features. Right from what language means to how the different

parts of linguistic structures along with various aspects involved in the production of language provide vast areas of analysis to linguists.

Humans, being social animals, the impact of their fellow human beings, and the ethos around them make an important contribution to linguistic analysis. Equally important is the human psyche that is involved in the language production. The cognitive aspect of human personality as well as the similarities and contrasting features in different languages form a major part of studies in linguistics. The teaching of language as a second or foreign language also becomes an important area for exploration by linguists.

Various branches of linguistics like psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, etc. deal with all these factors contributing to the study of language. This section of the unit introduces the students to all these branches of linguistics.

In the next session, we will discuss the traditional approaches to the study of linguistics.

2.3 SCOPE OF LINGUISTICS

Language is an ever-changing process and the linguists' role is to observe the nature of, the processes involved and the development and changes taking place in the languages. However, one must understand that linguistics is never prescriptive, unlike grammar. A linguist's role is not to prescribe how a language should be spoken, written, or used as a grammarian does. A linguist, on the other hand, is an observer and an analyst of the trends, types, nature, processes, etc. in a language. S/he describes the analysis of language rather than prescribing how a language should be and therefore linguistics is descriptive.

Early scholars in the field believed the written word was important and thus over-stressed it as they believed in the permanent nature of written language. This was as early as the 2nd century B.C. in Egypt. During this period the grammarians used 5th-century Greece as their models. However, it is necessary to understand that the spoken word is at the center of language. Almost all of the writing systems reflect the vocal sounds. Thus, the spoken language must always be studied first in priority over the written one.

Linguistics covers a wide range of areas.

Phonetics:

This is the study of human speech sounds. The phoneticians are interested in the processes of sound production. They study how various organs are involved in the process of language production, and function in the process, for example, the tongue, teeth, vocal cords, etc. They record and analyze the sound waves. However, the linguists study the patterns of the language. They are interested in analyzing the form of these patterns and not in the physical substance.

Phonology:

It studies the function of sounds. It is interested in how speech sounds are organized in languages, more specifically, the organization of speech sounds in the human mind and the process involved in expression to convey the meaning. Phonology can be related to various branches of linguistics like psycholinguistics, cognitive science, sociolinguistics, and language acquisition.

Syntax:

It is the branch of linguistics that is interested in the way in which the words and phrases are arranged to 'create well-formed sentences in a language.' There are four types of syntax: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. Syntax ensures clarity in a sentence thus making it a meaningful unit of language.

It is a set of rules that organizes different units in an orderly manner thus regularizing the otherwise chaotic structure of language. It guides us in arranging the sequence of words in a sentence to make it meaningfully convey thoughts, ideas, and feelings.

Semantics:

It deals with meaning in language. According to Bloomfield (1930), semantics is an account of meaningful forms, and the lexicon. The main aspect of language, the relation between the form and meaning of a linguistic unit, is what concerns the scholars in this area. It 'involves the deconstruction of words, signals, and sentences'. (Betti and Igaab: 2021). Semantics is interested in how meaning works in language. It studies how meanings are created. The sub- disciplines in linguistics like sociolinguistics, morphology, syntax, etc. are closely related to semantics.

Pragmatics:

It deals with the ways in which language is used by the speakers, especially those ways which cannot be predicted based on linguistic knowledge. Pragmatics is thus interested in the practical use of language in different situations. The main concern of pragmatics is the sentences spoken by the speakers of a specific language. It is interested in the contextual aspects of meaning in a particular situation.

Apart from these branches of linguistics, other recently introduced branches study the language about the external world, e.g., psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, etc. There are differences among linguists as regards the scope of linguistic studies and the areas to be included in it. According to some of them, the scope of this science should be confined to the levels of phonology, morphology, and syntax. This approach is known as micro- linguistic perspective. Some, however, consider from a broader perspective and with a macro- level view, tend to include various other aspects of language and how it is related to human life and activities.

Language is a very dynamic entity that depends on various aspects as regards its production, use, structurization, meaning, etc. Thus, one needs to keep in mind the wide scope of this area of study which can never be confined to the prescriptive rules regarding how the language should be used. Linguistics is rather a descriptive science that studies and presents how the language and the different factors involved work.

2.4 TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE

i. Syntax:

Basic linguistic theory, as a framework, is based on traditional grammar. It is also influenced by pre-generative structuralist traditions which emphasize the individual consideration of each language separately than imposing the rules/ concepts originated from other languages. The theory is influenced by generative grammar too.

Thus, though linguistics is descriptive and not prescriptive like grammar, the structural organization of linguistic expressions does matter as an essential aspect of the study of language. It is therefore necessary to know about syntax as the traditional but an important approach to the study of language.

Syntax is the study of how sentences are structured and it also analyses the way in which it relates to other aspects of language like phonology, semantics, morphology, etc. It studies the form, positioning and grouping of elements that contribute to the structure of sentences.

As a linguist when one describes a language, it is necessary to specify how a language is to be identified. When more than two persons speak specific sequences of linguistics units, i.e., words, and in that case, one's uttered sentences are understood by others, it means that they all speak a common language. How does one identify the features of their language as common features? Does grammar play any role in it? Yes, by not being prescriptive and only descriptive in nature, linguistics is far different from grammar. However, the structuralist approach to language and the necessity of structure as an identity of language make linguistics consider syntax, the study of sentence structure, as an important branch. It thus makes it necessary whether a specific sequence of words is grammatical or non-grammatical.

To understand the grammatical nature of a sentence, one has to be familiar with the rules/ formula of structure that prescribes a specific sequence of words as a grammatical sentence. The syntax, thus, plays an important role in linguistics.

As summarized by Burton-Roberts (2011), the following list of features needs to be considered when we speak of natural languages and their grammars.

- a. A language is an infinite set of sentences.

- b. It is the grammar or description of a language that can specify which are and which are not a part of that infinite set of sentences.
- c. As there can be an infinite number of sentences produced in a language, it becomes necessary to frame a general definition of 'sentence'.
- d. It is due to some common features among all the different sentences of a language that make it possible to state general principles about those sentences.
- e. A grammar is the description of a language by means of a general definition of 'sentence' in that language.
- f. Thus, whichever sentences conform to the rules are accepted as the sentences.

Therefore, a student of linguistics has to understand the concepts of units of a language that finally contribute to a sentence and a paragraph to formulate a discourse/ a text. While analyzing and describing the language fully in syntactic terms, the complete explanation lies in the description of why certain sequences of words in a language are 'well-formed' expressions and why others are not. It is therefore necessary to recognize the structure to understand this difference. A commonly followed method to present a structure in linguistics is to draw a tree diagram.

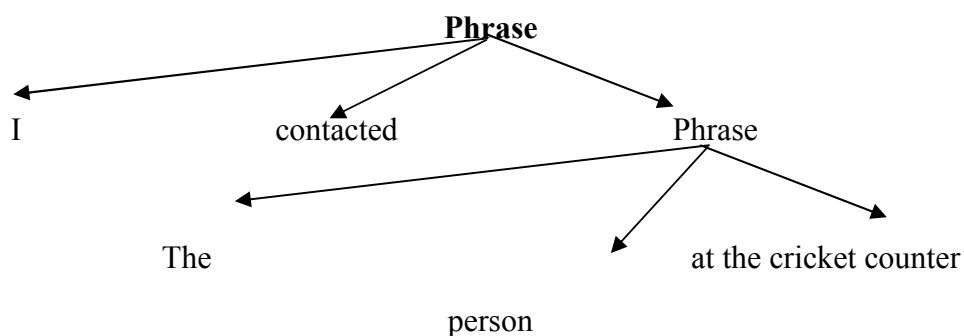
The main part of structural analysis is to specify the functions of the constituents in the syntactic structure. So, as we move on to the various constituents of a sentence, we need to remember the following:

Though words are the contents of language, those are not the constituents but the phrases are the constituents of language. This is because the words are not immediate constituents but belong with other words to form groups- phrases- which hold their position in the syntactic structure. Phrases, thus, are the sequences of words that can function as constituents in the structure of sentences. Syntactic tree diagrams are called phrase markers.

For example, answers to WH questions are phrases.

"Whom did you contact?"

"I contacted the person at the ticket counter."



Thus, a systematic syntactic analysis should begin with the identification of large phrases which are the immediate constituents of the sentence and not of any other phrases.

Functions and Categories of Immediate Constituents of a Sentence:

i. Subject and Predicate-

e.g. “The excited children started dancing on the floor.”

The sentence can be divided into subject and predicate as follows:

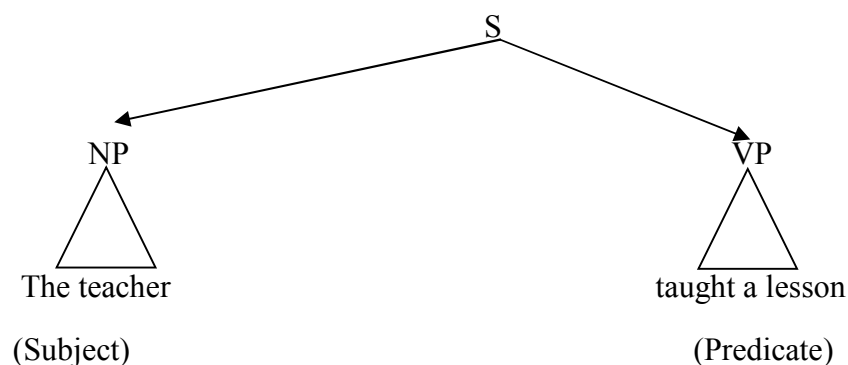
[The excited children] + [started dancing on the floor]

ii. Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase:

The phrases functioning as subjects in the syntactic structure are all Noun and Pronoun phrases and the phrases functioning as predicates are all Verb phrases. However, one needs to remember that all the Noun phrases may not act as a Subject.

e.g. “ The teacher taught a lesson.”

In this sentence, the phrase ‘a lesson’ is a Noun phrase but doesn’t act as the Subject. Here, it is a part of the phrase ‘taught a lesson’, i.e., of the Predicate.



The essential/ obligatory element in the phrase is known as the Head of the phrase. In the sentence above, for example, in the Noun phrase, ‘teacher’ is the Head of the phrase whereas ‘the’ is a modifier. Modifiers are optional in the phrase. Similar is the case with the Verb phrase.

Noun phrases can further be subdivided into various categories.

Other than Noun phrases, there are Adjective phrases, Adverb phrases, Prepositional phrases, and Coordinate phrases. “Coordinate phrases can have as many heads as there are nouns coordinated in them” (Burton-Roberts: 2011).

In the case of Verb phrases, there are two types: Lexical and Auxiliary.

Lexical verbs include verbs that are indefinite in number and form a part of the general vocabulary. For example, teach, sing, take, drink, etc. On the other hand, auxiliary verbs are a selective and restricted set of words. For example, should, be, did, will, etc. A complete Verb Phrase must contain a lexical verb though sometimes it may not have an auxiliary verb. For example, in a sentence- “This woman teaches in a school.” the lexical verb ‘teaches’ can adequately form a Verb phrase.

Apart from these basic types of phrases, there are various other categories of phrases that a linguist is always looking for in a sentence but they are not discussed in this unit.

2.6 PHONETICS

Phonetics is the science of pronunciation that studies how speech sounds are formed and distributed in connected speech. According to Jones (1956), the important aim of phonetics is ‘to help learners of foreign languages acquire good pronunciation.’ Differences in pronunciation of English due to the differences in location, the education of speakers, their age group, gender, etc., make it necessary to set up a standard of pronunciation.

The first prerequisite for the student of phonetics is to know the structure and the function of organs of speech. Following are the important organs inside the mouth that a student should be familiar with:

The roof of the mouth is divided into three parts from the phonetic perspective-

- a. **Teeth Ridge-** It is the part of the roof of the mouth just behind the teeth convex to the tongue.
- b. **Hard Palate-** The bony front part of the roof of the mouth that provides a firm surface for the tongue to press against during speech and eating.
- c. **Soft Palate-** The flexible, muscular part of the roof of the mouth located toward the back, which helps close off the nasal passages during swallowing and aids in sound modulation for speech.
- d. **The pharynx-** the cavity in the throat immediately behind the mouth.
- e. **The larynx** is below the pharynx. It forms the upper part of the windpipe.
- f. **The epiglottis** is a kind of lid to the larynx.

The tongue is to be considered as divided into three parts for phonetics.

- a. The back part is opposite the soft palate when the tongue is in a resting position.

- b. The front part is opposite the hard palate when the tongue is in a resting position.
- c. The blade part is opposite the teeth ridge when the tongue is in resting position.

The sounds are of two types: Vowels and Consonants

Vowel: is a voiced sound in which the air passes freely through the mouth and there is no audible friction produced during this process.

Consonant: These are sounds that are not voiced. (e.g. p, s) and in which the air has an impeded passage through the mouth. (e.g. b). Some consonants are sounds in which the air doesn't pass through the mouth (e.g. m). In the case of some consonants, there is audible friction. (e.g. f, v). Some consonants are breathed, and others are voiced. Voiced consonants are usually pronounced with less force of the breath than breathed consonants. Apart from this classification, consonants can also be classified on the basis of the organs articulating them and also on the basis of the manner in which they are articulated.

Based on the organs articulating these consonants, they are classified as

1. Labial (Lip) Sounds which are subdivided as...

- a. Bi-labial sounds- sounds articulated by the two lips. For example, p, m, w
- b. Labio-dental sounds- sounds articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth. For example, f

2. Dental Sounds which are the sounds articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth or teeth-ridge. These sounds are further subdivided into

- a. Pre-dental- sounds articulated by the tip of the tongue against the teeth. For example, ^θ
- b. Post-dental (Alveolar) – sounds articulated by the tip of the tongue against the teeth ridge. For example, z, ʃ, t

3. Palatal Sounds which are articulated by the front of the tongue against the hard palate.

For example, j

4. Velar Sounds which are articulated by the back of the tongue against the soft palate. For example, k, g

Uvular Sounds which are articulated by the back of the tongue and the extremity of the soft palate also known as uvula. For example, q

5. Glottal Sounds are articulated in the glottis. For example, h

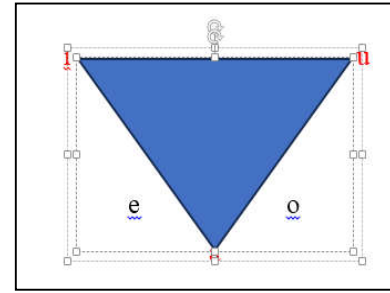
To be classified on the basis of manner in which the consonants are articulated by organs, following are the categories:

1. **Plosive Consonants** - When the air passage is completely closed and the obstacle is suddenly removed thus escaping the air and making an explosive sound, the consonants formed are called plosives. For example, p,d,g
2. **Nasal Consonants** – The mouth is completely closed, the soft palate remains lowered and the air is free to pass out through the nose. The consonants formed are known as nasal consonants. For example, m,n
3. **Lateral Consonants** – These are formed by an obstacle placed in the middle of the mouth and the air is free to escape at the sides. For example, l
4. **Rolled Consonants** – These are formed by a rapid succession of taps of some elastic organ. For example, r
5. **Fricative Consonants**- These are formed by narrowing the air passage at some point that the air escapes making a kind of hissing sound: For example, f, z
6. **Semivowels** which are vowels used in the capacity of consonants. For example, w

	Labial		Dental		Palatal	Vela r	Uvula r	Glotal
	Bi-Labial	Labio-Dental	Pre-Dental	Post-Dental				
Plosive	p, b			t, d		k, g		
Nasal	m			n		ŋ		
Lateral				l				
Rolled				r				
Fricative		f, v	θ, ð	s, z, ʃ, ʒ				h
Semivowels	w				j	(w)		

In case of vowels, there are five groups in which the vowels are roughly classified:

- Vowels of the i type
- Vowels of the e type
- Vowels of the a type
- Vowels of the o type
- Vowels of the u type



The triangle above is known as the vowel triangle.

Front Vowels: The vowels with highest point of the tongue on the left-hand side of the triangle, and are intermediate between the sounds of the 'a' type and the sounds of the 'i' type are known as front vowels.

For example, the vowels in 'sit', 'net', etc.

Back Vowels: The vowels with the highest point of the tongue on the right-hand side of the triangle and are intermediate between sounds of the 'a' type and sounds of the 'u' type are known as back vowels.

For example, the vowels in 'lid', 'saw', etc.

Mixed Vowels: The vowels with the highest point of the tongue is within the triangle and are intermediate in position between back and front, are known as mixed vowels.

For example, the vowel in 'bird'

Diphthongs: These are the complex vowel sounds in which the tongue moves from the position one vowel to another thus changing one vowel sound to another in a movement of glide.

For example, the vowel sound in 'proud' - /aʊ/

Syllable: Britannica defines syllable as 'a segment of speech that consists of a vowel, with or without one or more accompanying consonant sounds immediately preceding or following'.

Stress: The force of the breath with which a sound or a syllable is pronounced is called its stress. The syllables pronounced with greater stress than the neighbouring syllables are to be considered as stressed syllables.

Intonation: The variations in the pitch of the voice are known to be the intonation. There is no intonation when breathed sounds are pronounced.

All these aspects mentioned above can be dealt with in greater detail, however, the discussion in this unit is confined to the basic introductory terms due to its scope.

2.7 PHONOLOGY

As against Phonetics which is the study of all possible sounds produced by humans, Phonology ‘studies how the speakers of a language use a selection of the sounds for expressing meaning.’ (Bharati:1996). It tries to discover the principles governing the way of organizing the sounds in languages. In short, Phonology deals with the abstract, and phonetics deals with the physical properties of sounds.

Phonemes and Allophones:

Phonemes are the meaningfully different sound units in a language. For example, the phonemes ‘t’ and ‘b’ differ, so the words ‘tag’ and ‘bag’ differ in the first phoneme. But vowels are also phonemes and thus in words like ‘bag’ and ‘beg’, one finds different phonemes though the first phoneme is similar.

Allophones are ‘different ways to pronounce a phoneme based on its environment in a word.’ For example, the ‘p’ sound in words ‘pat’, ‘drop’, ‘predict’, etc. are known as allophones. These sounds are phonemically considered the same sounds but are phonetically different in terms of aspiration, voicing, and point of articulation.

Phonetics and Phonology are too wide areas to be dealt with. This section discusses it only at an introductory level.

2.8 QUESTIONS

1. Write short notes on the following;
 - a. Scope of Linguistics
 - b. Difference Between Phonetics and Phonology
 - c. Difference Between Phonemes and Allophones
 - d. Types of Consonants
 - e. Types of Vowels
2. Explain how syntax has traditionally been a milestone in the history of approaches to linguistics.

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LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION: MORPHOLOGY

Unit Structure

- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Introduction
- 3.3 Morphology: Definition and Scope
- 3.4 Approaches to Morphological Analysis
- 3.5 Questions
- 3.6 Bibliography

3.1 OBJECTIVES

- To orient the learners towards the concept of morphology
- To introduce the learners to the scope of morphology
- To introduce the learners to various categories of morphemes
- To introduce the learners to the processes of word formation techniques
- To enable the learners to classify morphemes into various categories
- To enable the learners to apply the techniques of word formation

3.2 INTRODUCTION

A common person understands words as the basic unit of language. The process of word formation is an interesting aspect of language. A student of language and linguistics needs to understand the process scientifically. However, students need to understand that it is not the etymologically driven approach; instead, it is the shape or the form of words that we are going to focus in this unit dealing with Morphology.

The term ‘morphology’ was coined by the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832), early in the nineteenth century in a biological context. In this unit, we will be discussing the scope of morphology as well as the way in which morphemes are classified. The techniques of word formation will also be discussed. There will also be an attempt to introduce the ways in which morphemes can be identified.

3.3 MORPHOLOGY: DEFINITION AND SCOPE

As mentioned earlier, the word ‘morphology’ was first used in the context of biology in the nineteenth century by the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe. Derived from Greek word ‘morphos’, the word means form or shape. Morphology, thus, means the study of form or forms. It is the study of formation and the structure of words. Since the middle of the nineteenth century, the term is applied to the analysis of all the basic elements in the language. There is an attempt to investigate the ‘internal makeup and structure of words as well as the patterns and principles underlying their composition’. (Schmid:2015).

Morphology deals with the form as well as meaning of a linguistic sign, thus, analyzing and describing both the parts of words as well as the principles underlying the composition of the words. The morphological analysis of words considers morphemes as the components of words that carry meaning. A morpheme is the smallest meaning-bearing unit of language.

Morphemes are defined as the ‘smallest linguistic pieces with a grammatical function.’ (Aronoff and Fudeman). So, it can be a word like ‘pen’ or a meaningful piece of word like ‘-ed’ in ‘asked’ which cannot be further divided into smaller parts. Bloomfield defines morpheme as ‘a linguistic part that bears no partial phonetic – semantic resemblance to any other form.’

It is also important to know the term ‘morph’ which means ‘phonological realization of a morpheme’ (Aronoff and Fudeman). The English past tense morpheme which is spelt as ‘-ed’ is phonologically realized in different ways like the word ‘asked’, it is realized as ‘t’ after the voiceless ‘k’, in ‘seated’, it is realized as ‘əd’ after the voiceless ‘t’ and so on. Morphs are also known as ‘allomorphs’ or ‘variants’.

A morpheme can have a simple lexeme or form a complex one. For example, the words ‘sister’ and ‘buyer’. The first word represents only one morpheme (meaning female sibling) whereas the second is made up of two- ‘buy’ (meaning purchase) and the suffix ‘-er’, i.e., (signifying a person who does something). The word ‘sister’ is an example of a simple lexeme whereas the word ‘buyer’ consists of two lexemes. In the word ‘buyer’, the word ‘buy’ is the base morpheme or stem to which another morphological piece ‘-er’ is attached.

The stem can be simple (made up of only one piece) as well as complex, i.e., made up of more than one piece. For example, the word ‘unavoidable’ originates from the stem ‘avoid’.

The other two morphological pieces ‘un-’ and ‘able’ are attached to this stem to give it a completely different meaning.

The stem is also called the root but it refers to only morphologically simple units. For example, in the word ‘misinterpretation’, the word

‘misinterpret’ can be the stem but cannot be the root because it is not a simple morpheme as it is made up of two morphological pieces, the root word ‘interpret’ and ‘mis-’. So, the word ‘interpret’ is the base morpheme and therefore it can become the stem as well as the root.

One needs to keep in mind that the grammatical function of a morpheme, which may include its meaning, needs to remain constant. In case of the words like ‘haphazardly’ and ‘miserly’, the suffix ‘-ly’ attached to the adjective ‘haphazard’ results in an adverb whereas when attached to the noun ‘miser’, becomes an adjective.

The affixes can also be categorized under infixes and circumfixes.

An infix is a kind of affix placed in the centre as against the beginning or end. For example, to pluralize the word, mother-in-law, an affix is placed in the centre, thus, making it ‘mothers- in-law’.

Circumfixes are the affixes that come in two parts. One of these attaches to the front and the other one to the back of the word. These can prove controversial as the two different affixes can also be labelled as the prefix and the suffix.

Morphology, as a study, is divided into

- Inflectional Morphology
- Word Formation

Inflectional Morphology: It deals with the markers of grammatical categories like case, number, tense, etc. These inflectional morphemes are attached to lexical stems and create word-forms instead of new words. For example, the verb ‘laugh’ is the base- form ‘laugh’ and there is no inflectional morpheme added. It becomes ‘laughs’ when it is to be used as a verb in agreement with the third person singular subject in the same, present tense. It becomes ‘laughed’ to signify the past tense or the past participle and the progressive tense is signified by the ing-form (laughing).

Word Formation: It deals with the patterns and rules involved in the process of word formation. For example, the word ‘encouragement.’ In this word, the base word ‘courage’ is prefixed and suffixed by the derivational morphemes ‘en’ and ‘ment’. The branch of word formation thus deals with prefixation and suffixation.

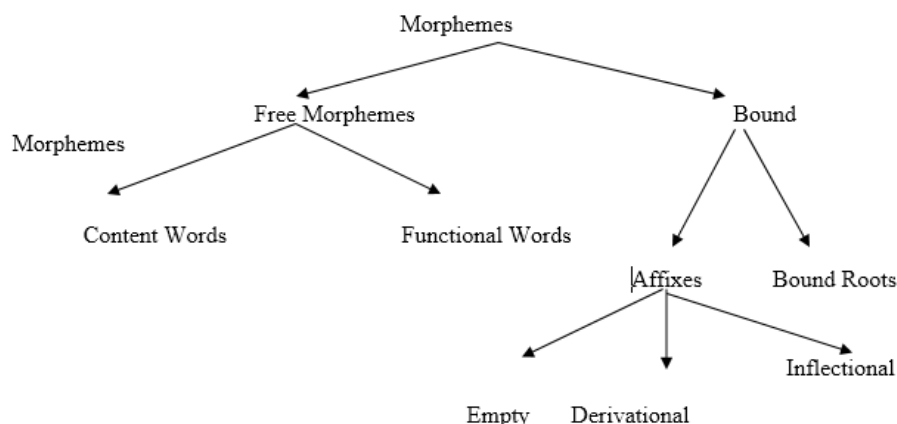
Apart from derivational morphology, word formation also deals with Compounding (For example, tool kit) and other types of word formation wherein the morphemes are not used as basic building blocks, i.e., the non-morphemic types like Blending (emoticon- blending emotion and icon) and Clipping (phone – from telephone and plane – from airplane).

Classification of Morphemes:

Morphemes are categorized as follows:

- Free Morphemes and Bound Morphemes
- Lexical Morphemes and Grammatical Morphemes

The following tree diagram can help us understand the sub-categories of these types better:



● **Free Morphemes:** These single words signify specific meanings and do not need any other words or morphological items to make sense.

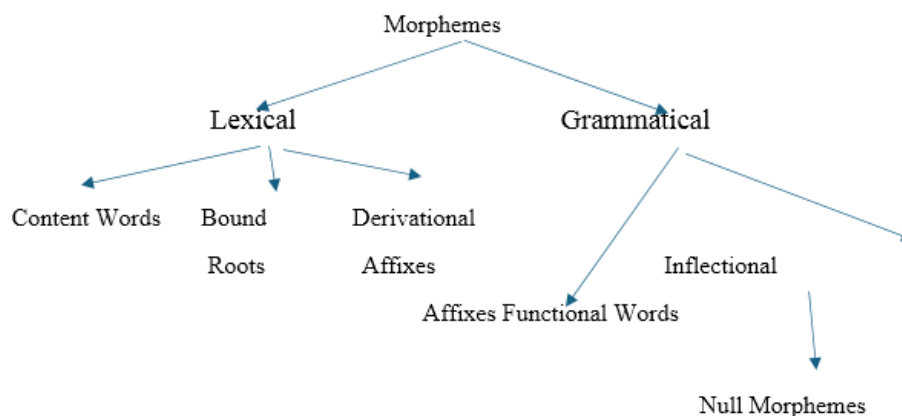
- Content words carry meaning and that is the only function performed by those words. It is an open class of words as these words receive additions very commonly. For example, ‘chair’, ‘dinner’ etc.
- Functional words include grammatical categories of words like conjunctions, prepositions, determiners, auxiliary verbs, modals, qualifiers, question words, and pronouns that serve a function instead of possessing a concrete meaning. It is a closed class of words as additions are received very rarely by these words. For example, ‘are’, ‘was’, ‘before’ etc.

● **Bound Morphemes:** These morphemes make sense only when combined with other morphological items. Thus, these are either a root or an affix.

Roots can be free morphemes as well as bound morphemes.

- Empty Morphemes are the phonemes that do not add any meaning to the word.
 - Derivational affixes change the meaning of the word. For example, ‘pre-’, ‘dis-’, ‘un-’, etc.
 - The inflectional affixes change the grammatical properties of the word, like the tense of a word, person, mood or number, or a noun/adjective/pronoun's number, gender or case.
- Null morphemes are the morphemes without content.

The morphemes are also divided into lexical and grammatical morphemes:



• **Lexical Morphemes-** These are the type of free morphemes (nouns, adjectives and verbs) that carry the content of the message to be conveyed. For example, ‘man’, ‘green’, ‘come’, ‘pen’. etc. New lexical morphemes can be easily added to the language and therefore called the open class of words.

3.4 APPROACHES TO MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

There are two basic morphological approaches- Analysis and Synthesis.

The analytical approach leads to the breaking down of words. The origin of this approach can be found in the American structuralist linguistics of the first half of the twentieth century. Those linguists were always interested in the languages never encountered before and the grammars of which were not available in writing. However, a little disadvantage here is that the scientific analysis of the unfamiliar language may be impacted by preconceived notions.

The synthetic approach is generally associated with the theory than with the methodology. It deals with theory construction. While forming new words from the pre-existing pieces, the speakers use synthesis.

Principles of Morphological Analysis:

Eugene Nida’s textbook ‘Morphology’(1949) provides principles of morphological analysis.

1. Forms with the same meaning and the same sound shape in all their occurrences are instances of the same morpheme.
2. Forms with the same meaning but different sound shapes may be instances of the same morpheme if their distributions do not overlap.
3. Not all morphemes are segmental.
4. A morpheme may have zero as one of its allomorphs provided it has a non-zero allomorph.

The history of morphological analysis goes back to the ancient Indian linguist Panini. He formulated 3959 rules of Sanskrit morphology when he

used the constituency grammar. Apart from the analytical and synthetic approach to morphology, there are 3 more approaches –

- Morpheme-based Morphology
- Lexeme-based Morphology
- Word-based Morphology

The morpheme-based approach analyses word forms as the arrangement of morphemes. For example, in the word ‘uncomfortably’, the root is ‘comfort’ whereas the derivational morphemes ‘un-’ and ‘-ably’ are affixes. In the case of a word like ‘pictures’, the root morpheme ‘picture’ has the suffix ‘-s’ which is an inflectional morpheme. Such an analysis of word forms is known as ‘item-and-arrangement’. Thus, it is considered that the words are made up of morphemes arranged one after the other as the beads are in a string. This approach is based on the following basic axioms-

- Roots and affixes enjoy the same status as the morphemes do.
- As morphemes, they are dualistic signs because they have phonological form as well as meaning.
- Morphemes, affixes, and roots alike are stored in the lexicon.

In the lexeme-based approach, it is believed that words are formed as a result of applying rules that bring changes in the stem to form a new word item. This is also known as the item- and-process approach. An inflectional rule brings changes in a stem thus resulting in the formation of a word. A derivational rule brings changes in a stem to result in a derived stem. A compounding stem brings together word forms to form a compound stem.

The word-based approach is also known as the word-and-paradigm approach. The theory was first propagated by the linguist Charles Hockett. The focus here is on the complete word than its internal structure or morphemes. Paradigms are treated as the central notion. This theory states generalized principles that hold between the forms of inflectional paradigms.

Processes of Word Formation Techniques:

Let’s now discuss the processes of word formation in English. It is necessary to keep in mind two basic principles (The textbook Introduction to Language Studies, University of Texas mentions these as constraints but it will be convenient to consider them the basic principles) before we begin the discussion on process of word formation. The two principles are

- The internal structure of complex words is hierarchical.
- Each step in word formation must produce a well-formed word of the language.

The processes, in general, can be categorized as a) major productive and b) minor processes. Productivity, in morphology, refers to the degree to which a word-formation process is used in the language. The rules of word formation are the rules used most frequently in a language for creating new words. The term productivity is also associated with the degree to which the meaning of a new word can be predicted from the meanings of its constitutive morphemes.

For example, an affix like -ed (past tense) is highly productive new verbs in English can be converted to past tense forms by using it. It is also compositional as it contributes the meaning ‘an action performed before’ to the new word.

The following are the major productive processes of word-formation:

1. Affixation:

As already discussed, it is the most productive process of word-formation in English. Affixes attach to a stem. Prefixes precede the stem while suffixes follow it. Derivational affixes form a new word with a new lexical meaning while inflectional affixes form a variant of the stem and add a grammatical meaning.

Derivational affixes have semantic content and thus derive a new word with new lexical meaning when attached to the stem. But the inflectional affixes carry grammatical meaning and do not change the lexical meaning of the stem unlike the derivational affixes.

For example, a derivational affix ‘-ness’ in the word ‘happiness’ changes the stem ‘happy’ from adjective form to noun form. Similarly, the verb ‘judge’ is changed to the noun form by the affix ‘-ment’.

But in case of the inflectional affixes, they display a grammatical change. For example, an affix like ‘-ing’ changes the tense of a verb ‘go’ to progressive from the simple present. Or the suffix ‘-s’ to the verb ‘change’ indicates third person singular, a grammatical property.

2. Compounding:

Unlike affixation wherein an affix is attached to a stem, in compounding, one stem is attached to another stem. For example, ‘word-formation’, ‘bus driver’, and ‘newspaper’. In these compounds, the first one shows the process of compounding two stems, word and formation with a hyphen whereas the compound ‘bus driver’ does not need a hyphen to bring two stems ‘bus’ and ‘driver’. On the other hand, the word ‘newspaper’ is a compound yet single word bringing two stems together- ‘news’ and ‘paper’.

The spelling doesn’t carry any importance for the identification of compounds. The meaning relationship between the stems that are compounded carries importance here. It is necessary to remember that the word class of each of the stems in a compound may not correspond to that of the other. The following table can give us an idea

Stems	Compound	Word Class of Stems	Word Class of Compound
Foot + ball	Football	N+N	N
Sketch + pen	Sketch pen	V+N	N
Push + up	Push up	V+P	N
Power + hungry	Power hungry	N + Adj	Adj
Empty + stomach	Empty stomach	Adj + N	Adj
See + through	See-through	V + Adv	Adj
Lip + sing	Lipsing	N + V	V
Over + eat	Overeat	P + V	V
Up + to	Upto	P + P	P

(The table is based on the figure no. 6.4 “Word Classes of Compounds and their Stems”: Chapter 6- Morphology- Word Formation. Eng 3360- Introduction to Language studies. The University of Texas)

Apart from compounding simple stems, there are other compounding processes too like linking stems using grammatical words. For example, ‘hall of fame’, ‘sweet and sour’.

A compound word stands for a specific concept. One cannot predict the meaning of a compound based on the relationship between the stems juxtaposed in the compound. Compounds like ‘bedroom’ and ‘bathroom’ are known as the Headed Compounds because the second stem, ‘room’ performs the role of head here and the first ones are the modifiers.

3. Conversion:

In this type of word formation, the word class of a word is changed without any change in the form of the word. This category of word formation is considered to be highly productive because of the very high number of words that serve in different word classes. For example, the words like ‘value’, ‘present’, ‘call’, ‘scale’, etc. These words can be used as nouns as well as verbs. A person not familiar with the context cannot identify the class of such a word.

Unlike affixation and compounding wherein the formation of words involves the addition of morphemes, in conversion, the word classes are

changed in order to form a word. Due to this, new simple words enrich the language by conversion but affixation and compounding add complex words.

Apart from these 3 major productive processes, word formation also happens through some other processes as follows:

4. Backformation:

This procedure involves removal of a part of the word from it which is known as an affix. For example, the removal of 'tion' from the word 'examination' (a noun form) forms the verb form 'examine' or the verb form 'reside' can occur when the affixes 'nce' or 'nt' are removed from the words 'residence' or 'resident', i.e., the noun forms.

5. Clipping:

This process involves cutting short of a word irrespective of the morphological structure. Any part of the original word can be affected in this process. For example, the usage like 'biotech' that refers to the word 'biotechnology' or many a time, the youngsters abbreviate the word 'sentimental' to 'senti'. People happen to surf on the 'net' instead of the 'internet'. Another example can be the word 'varsity' that shortens the word 'university'.

6. Acronym:

A new word is formed using the initial letters of a sequence of words or morphemes in this process. For example, USA for United States of America or UN for United Nations, etc. Words like 'TV' for 'television' or LA (Los Angelis) can be called as initialism as these are pronounced with the initial letters of the names. But the initials like TADA (Terrorist and Disruptive Activities – Preventing Act) in India form a word. Such acronyms are called acronyms proper.

Once the acronyms establish as words, they start exhibiting the features of the word class to which they are assigned. For example, the nouns like PC (abbreviating personal computer) can be pluralized affixing 's' to it.

The present-day world of electronic gadgets has brought about a major change in the usage of language by people. Those, especially the young generation, very active on social media are seen to be using the abbreviated forms of many phrases or expressions in English. For example, an expression like 'wrt' for 'with reference to' or 'idk' for 'I don't know' etc. Whether to include such abbreviations into this category can be a question but considering the extent to which electronic gadgets and social media are occupying the space in human life, these examples can help interpret the meaning of this process easily.

7. Blending:

Segments of words are joined to each other thus forming a new word altogether. The new word thus retains the semantic characteristics of the

original words. For example, a word like ‘netizen’ which is formed after blending the segments from ‘internet’ and ‘citizen’, conveys a fusion of meanings of both the original words, i.e., ‘the people who belong to the world of the internet’. Similarly, the word ‘emoticon’ is an excellent example of the blending of segments from the words ‘emotion’ and ‘icon’ conveying the blend of the meaning of both the words – ‘icons or images that stand for emotions’. Similarly, other examples can be ‘brunch’ blending ‘breakfast’ and ‘lunch’ or ‘Hinglish’ blending ‘Hindi’ and ‘English’.

8. Neologism:

This doesn’t involve any such processes mentioned above but the words are used as completely new words. For example, ‘gadget’.

9. Loan Words:

The words directly borrowed from foreign languages are known as loan words—for example, chapati, carpe diem, etc.

10. Creative re-spelling:

These types of expressions are spelled differently for practical reasons and to sound attractive. Mostly, such re-spellings have a commercial purpose. For example, ‘gimi’ instead of ‘give me’ or ‘gr8’ instead of ‘great’, etc.

3.5 QUESTIONS

1. Write short notes on
 - a. Approaches to Morphological Analysis
 - b. Classification of Morphemes
 - c. Affixes
 - d. Affixation
 - e. Compounding : A Major Productive Word Formation Process
2. Define Morphology. ‘Morphology as a term is applied to the basic analysis of all the basic elements in the language.’ Explain.
3. Describe various processes of word formation techniques.

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SEMANTICS

Unit Structure

- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Introduction
- 4.3 Semantics: Words as Meaningful Units
- 4.4 Words as Meaningful Units
- 4.5 Types of Meaning
- 4.6 Lexical Semantics
- 4.7 Questions
- 4.8 Bibliography

4.1 OBJECTIVES

- To introduce the learners to the concept of Semantics
- To enable the learners to identify words as meaningful units
- To enable the learners to understand the concepts of reference and sense
- To enable the learners to understand the concept of sense relations
- To introduce the learners to the types of meaning
- To orient the learners to the concept of lexical semantics
- To enable the learners to identify synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and homonymy

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Language is a medium of communication. It is an infinite treasure of words that function as the small units in the language. The previous unit has discussed the processes of word formation. The morphological analysis considers the form of a word; however, the form is not separately viewed from the meaning, i.e., the essence underlying the word. Along with the structure and patterning of the words, the morphology as well as linguistics in general, considers meaning conveyed by these structures as equally important. The branch dealing with meaning is known as Semantics. This unit will be dealing with the concept of word as a meaningful unit. Similarly, it will also discuss the type of meanings and the concept of lexical semantics will also be dealt with in detail.

4.3 SEMANTICS: WORDS AS MEANINGFUL UNITS

Broadly speaking, semantics is a sub-discipline of linguistics that deals with meaning. Semantics is concerned with meaning as an element of language, with how the meaning is constructed by the linguistic units, and also with how the meaning is derived, and understood by the receivers in communication. The word 'semantics' is derived from the Greek word 'seme' which means sign.

It is equally important at this stage to know about one more sub-discipline of linguistics, i.e., Pragmatics. This branch studies meaning in the context of communication. Semantics considers meaning in isolation, i.e., it restricts its scope only to the meaning as interpreted as a part of language, irrespective of where and when the language is being used. Pragmatics, however, considers the context, i.e., the use of language in a specific situation as an important aspect of meaning. Moreover, as Bagha (2011) puts it, semantics is more concerned with exploring the way in which language is organized to 'be meaningful'. It thus tries to provide 'a systematic account of meaning'. (Leech 1981 cited in Bagha: 2011). Akanya and Omachonu (2019) refer long back to Greek 'semantikos' meaning 'significant' to support the definition of semantics as the 'linguistic and philosophical study of language.'

According to Lord (1966: cited in Akanya and Omachonu, 2019), meaning is 'full of ambiguity, controversy and contradiction' thus leading to several other definitions of meaning. They mention that role of semantics in linguistics is 'interpret the signs employed in an environment within a particular situation or context'.

Semantics tries to study how the meaning works in language. As Dr. Tandon puts it, meaning is the 'function of signs in language.' According to her, though the word 'semantics' started to be used in the 19th century, scholarly fascination for the subject of meaning goes long back a thousand years when there used to be debates among Greek philosophers regarding the nature of meaning.

What do we mean by 'meaning'? For example, a word like 'cup' represents a specific object. But why is this particular word, arranged in a specific sequence of specific letter, used to signify that particular object, and why isn't any other word like 'glass' used in its place?

There might be some reason why the arrangement of letters like the one in 'cup' was thought of as the apt arrangement for signifying this particular object. But it is equally important to know that other aspects of the object characterize it and thus may play an important role in connoting the word differently apart from its denotation. For example, the shape, the usage, and the context. Thus, the meaning of the word 'cup' may gain shape based on these aspects and multiplying itself.

A word like 'share' is a verb and may not have a signified item to show what it can stand for. However, being a verb, it rather denotes dividing

something between more than one persons. Though the meaning doesn't change completely context-wise, it acquires various shades, for example, the word is used in the social media context for conveying or forwarding some message/ picture/ document, etc. Thus, the meaning may exactly not be dividing the content, but the word is used to signify the action of making the content common to someone or more persons.

According to Palmer (1981: cited in Akanya and Omachonu, 2019), meaning is a concept or idea transferred from speaker's mind to the interlocutor's mind embodied in the form of language or other medium.

One more interesting definition by Bienwisch (1969: cited in Akanya and Omachonu, 2019) considers the relationship of words and sentences with the world's objects and processes and among themselves. Akanya and Omachonu make an important statement that unless words are put in a context, they will only have basic meaning. Thus, the role of context as well as the position of the word in a sentence play an important role as regards its meaning.

Similarly, the meaning of a sentence cannot be derived correctly unless the words are organized in proper order. Thus, the word can have more than one meaning, connotative and denotative.

Considering the scenario of Indian linguistics and grammar, we have great ancient Indian scholars like Bhartahari and Panini. According to Bhartahari, sentence is the true meaning bearing unit

4.4 WORDS AS MEANINGFUL UNITS

a. Sense and Reference:

Plato's idea of 'mimesis' finds an important place here in this discussion. While arguing against the art of creation, he mentions that it is the ideas alone that are real and those are created by God. He includes words in his list of 'imitations'. According to him, the words used in any language stand for some object or action which are the imitations in their respect, of the ideas supremely framed by God. He thus calls the objects, for example, as an imitation, and the word 'chair' then would be its further imitation and so, twice removed from reality (the idea of a chair).

It is further necessary to explore the concepts of Sense and Reference. German philosopher and mathematician Gottlob Frege (1892) explained the distinction between these two concepts in Semantics. The reference means the object signified by the word. For example, pen whereas the sense refers to the idea or 'cognitive significance' of pen. (Wardhono: 2008).

According to Richard, Platt and Weber (1985: cited in Wardhono: 2008), reference is the 'relationships between words and the things, action, events, and qualities they stand for.'

Sense, on the other hand, refers to the ‘system of linguistic relationship’. (Wardhono:2008). If to consider a word as a sign, the relation between sense, sign and reference is that a sign can never exist without a sense and wherever there is a sign, there is a reference. But a reference or an object may not necessarily be signified by one single sign. Every grammatically well- formed expression representing a proper name always has a sense. But the sense may not always correspond to a reference. (Frege). According to Hurford et. al. (2007, p. 29), the sense of an expression is ‘a semantic relationship of an expression with other expressions in the language.’ This definition of sense emphasizes the inter-dependence of words in a sentence and their senses on each other. Thus, an expression like ‘at home’ will need it to be embedded in a sentence wherein it would be structured in a particular place grammatically in order to convey a specific meaning intended by the speaker. The connotative meaning of this phrase, to be expressed other than the denotative one, it needs to be surrounded by specific verbs like ‘feel’. Else, in a sentence like ‘I am at home’, the connotative meaning may not be expressed accurately. In such a sentence, the denotative meaning would be interpreted, i.e., it would indicate where the person is at a specific moment whereas in a sentence like ‘After a long and hectic journey, I feel at home now’, the connotative meaning, i.e., the person’s feeling of comfort would be indicated.

It is necessary to remember that the ideas can be different, for example, when a person speaks a word like ‘blood’, the listener may assign a different meaning (possibly a connotative one) when the speaker may have a plain denotative meaning in his mind. Thus, the idea is quite subjective but the sense can’t be so. However, the sense is not exactly objective like the reference. It lies between the idea and the reference.

The distinction between sense and reference helps us in understanding the way in which language is used to represent or to symbolize various ideas and concepts as well as objects in the world. It further explains to us how words can be used to mean these concepts, ideas and objects. An understanding of these two concepts, namely, sense and reference, makes us realize that different expressions can have the same reference but different senses thus leading to different interpretations.

b. Sense Relations:

The concept ‘sense relations’, according to Kreidler (1998, p.303 cited in Winiharti: 2010), means ‘the relations of meaning between words, as expressed in synonymy, hyponymy, and antonymy.’ Winiharti (2010) further refers to Cruse (2004) who has classified sense relations into two categories:

- a. Sense relations expressing identity and inclusion between word meanings -These consider the relations between words with similar meanings.
- b. Sense relations expressing opposition and exclusion- here, the relations considered are those between the words with opposite meanings.

The first category of sense relations includes the notions of synonymy, homonymy, polysemy, and hyponymy.

Synonymy is a word that conveys the same sense and meaning. For example, the words 'dark' and 'tragic' convey the same sense in a sentence like "The movie I saw yesterday was very dark." "The movie I saw yesterday was very tragic." This is because both the words in this sentence convey similar sense.

However, these two words cannot convey the same sense in another context. For example, "It was very dark when I got up early in the morning and left for Pune."

"It was very tragic when I got up early in the morning and left for Pune."

This is because the contexts in which these two sentences are being used are completely different. Thus, the two words are not synonymous and cannot replace each other in these two different sentences. Thus, a pair of words can be synonymous in one context but cannot be in another. (Winiharti: 2010).

Homonymy refers to words that are written in a similar manner and also sound alike but convey different meanings. For example, 'bat' in "I am very fond of my bat which was gifted by my uncle." refers to an implement with a handle which is used especially in the game of cricket. But in a sentence like "The cat, rabbit, rat, mouse, and two kinds of bat have become naturalized." The same word refers to a mammal with wings.

Polysemy means a word with two or more closely related meanings. For example, "I am feeling very low." And "Ours was the lowest building in the area." The word 'low' in the first sentence conveys the sense of feeling a lack of interest and energy whereas the superlative form of this word in the second sentence conveys the physical feature of the building, i.e., considering the length.

Though homonymy and polysemy may sound similar, the major difference in the two concepts is that the former deals with different meanings whereas the latter deals with related meanings,

Hyponymy refers to the relationship between two words wherein one of the words includes the meaning of another word. For example, the words like 'food' and 'rice', 'cloth' and 'pants', 'colour' and 'green', etc. The words 'rice', 'pants', and 'green' are supposed to be the hyponyms of the words 'food', 'cloth', and 'colour' respectively. The words 'food', 'cloth', and 'colour', on the other hand, are called hypernyms or superordinates of 'rice', 'pants', and 'green'. This kind of relation between words is known as inclusion. The relations among the words like 'green', 'white', and 'yellow' are called co-hyponyms.

Taxonomy, according to Cruse (2004, p. 150 cited in Winiharti: 2010), is a sub-type of hyponymy. For example, 'Chair' is a type of 'furniture' or 'A pen is a kind of 'stationery'. Thus, the chair, as compared to other

types of ‘furniture’ like ‘table’ or ‘shelf’, can be well- defined as a type of furniture with a specific design different from those other types.

The second category of sense relations is exclusions and opposition. These relations deal with the oppositeness between the words or how the sense of one word is excluded from the sense of another. This includes antonymy, complementaries, reversives, converses, and incompatibility.

Antonymy is the pair of words opposite to each other. It can be classified into 3 categories:

- a. **Polar Antonyms-** can be modified with degree modifiers like ‘extremely’, ‘very’, ‘little’ etc. For example, “The book is very interesting” or “I was extremely tired after the match” or “My journey was a little hectic as compared to the one last time.”
- b. **Equipollent Antonyms-** are the subjective sensations. For example, ‘good’ and ‘bad’, ‘happy’ and ‘sad’, ‘bitter’ and ‘sweet’, etc.
- c. **Overlapping Antonyms-** Cruse (2004 cited in Winiharti: 2010) thinks that all overlapping antonym pairs ‘have an evaluative polarity as their meaning.’ For example, ‘kind’ and ‘cruel’, ‘close’ and ‘far’, ‘heavy’ and ‘light’ etc. These are also known as Gradable Antonyms as labeled by Hurford et. al. (2007) and Saeed (2005) as mentioned by Winiharti (2010).

Complementaries are pairs of antonyms that can’t be graded and are mutually exclusive. These pairs can exist independently of each other. For example, the pairs like ‘exit’ and ‘entrance’, ‘push’ and ‘pull’, ‘right’ and ‘wrong’, etc. These are also referred to as ‘Binary Antonyms’.

Reversives are the directional opposites that include straightforward directions. For example, ‘forward’ and ‘backward’, ‘top’ and ‘bottom’, etc. These antonyms also denote ‘movement in opposite direction’ (Winiharti: 2010).

Converses are known to be the sub-type of directional antonyms. Like ‘in front of’ and ‘behind’, ‘above’ and ‘below’, etc.

Incompatibility – These are the classes without having any common members. This occurs in case of co-hyponyms.

Having discussed the types of sense relations, let’s move ahead to the Types of Meaning, an important area in Semantics:

4.5 TYPES OF MEANING

Geoffrey Leech in his Semantics (1981), defines meaning as ‘the relationship between linguistic signs and the things or concepts they refer to in the real world, as well as the relationships between signs themselves.’ He further classifies meaning under seven categories as follows:

- **Conceptual meaning** is very important according to Leech because it is considered to be the ‘central factor in linguistic communication.’ It is organized in a very complex manner and can always be compared and cross-related to similar organization at the syntactic and phonological levels of language according to Leech. (Maisel: 2017). Other scholars refer to conceptual meaning as the ‘denotative’, ‘designative’, ‘cognitive’, or ‘descriptive’ meaning. (Umagandhi et.al.:2017). The principle of contrastiveness and the principle of structure which underlie all linguistic patterning lie at the base of conceptual meaning too.

In terms of semantic representation, abstract symbols and contrastive features are used to explain the meaning of a sentence. This helps to distinguish the meaning of a specific sentence from the meanings of all other possible sentences in the language.

- **Connotative meaning** is the communicative strength of an expression based on what it refers to. Leech was very much concerned with the ‘real world experiences’ associated with the linguistic expressions by people as they use or hear them. Connotative meaning, thus, is not stable as it varies as per ‘culture, historical periods and experiences of the individuals.’ Being relative, it is open-ended.
- **Social meaning** relates to the context in which communication takes place. It is facts/information conveyed by the linguistic expression ‘about the social circumstance of its use. For example, variations in the language like dialectical, stylistic (formal/informal, etc.) According to Leech, social meaning includes all social circumstances as regards the use of a specific linguistic item.
- **Affective meaning** relates to the personal feelings of the speaker, i.e., the meaning conveyed or understood being impacted by the speaker’s / listener’s feelings. It includes the attitude of the listener. It thus deals with how language can reflect the feelings of the speaker. The tone of voice, and gestures can play a significant role when the decoder of a message decodes it.
- **Reflected meaning** occurs in situations of multiple conceptual meanings when ‘one sense of a word influences our response to another sense. (Leech : 1981 cited in Maisel: 2017).
- **Collocative meaning** refers to ‘the associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its environment.’ (Leech:1981 cited in Maisel:2017). As an example, Leech has provided sets of associations with the words ‘pretty’ and ‘handsome’ as follows Pretty-woman. boy, girl, etc. Handsome- boy, man, car, overcoat, etc.
- **Thematic meaning** relates to the content that is formed by the way the author forms a message. Leech mentions that it is a ‘matter of choice between alternative grammatical construction.’ (Leech: 1981 cited in Maisel: 2017). For example, “This is the ticket you referred

to” and “I got this ticket that you referred to.” Having learned the types of meanings, let’s understand what lexical semantics means.

4.6 LEXICAL SEMANTICS

It is a branch of linguistic semantics that deals with the study of word meanings. It evolved as a research discipline in the 19th century. In the initial days, word meanings were regarded as mental entities, and changes in meanings over time were considered to be psychological processes. (Geeraerts, 2010 cited in Paradis:2012). However, the followers of Saussure’s theory in the 20th century brought up new ideas related to this area which were influenced by the structuralist movement. Words were no longer treated as psychological units.

The Structuralists distinguished between paradigmatic relations and syntagmatic relations. The syntagmatic approach considers the totality of the language use, i.e., instead of studying a word in isolation, it is defined in terms of the other words in its company in the language use. Again, by the end of the 20th century, theorists started looking at word meanings as psychological entities in people’s minds. The Cognitive approach to meaning emerged in the 80s. As regards the contemporary lexical semantics, we can observe that researchers extensively use corpus methodologies and language technological tools.

It studies how words structure their meaning. To detail further, it studies how meaning is encoded in words, and how word meaning relates to sentence meaning. (Stringer:2019). It deals with the mapping of words to concepts.

We have already dealt with the distinction between ‘reference’ and ‘sense’ forms as well as sense relations forming a major part of lexical semantics. But equally important is to know about some terms specifically used in lexical semantics as discussed by Jurafsky and Martin (2007).

Lexeme- is a pairing of a form, orthographic or phonological, with its meaning. For example, the pair of the word ‘pen’ and its meaning.

Lexicon- is a finite set of lexemes.

Lemma- is the grammatical form used to represent a lexeme. This is particularly used in dictionaries and thesauruses. Generally, this is a base form. For example, ‘chair’ is the lemma for ‘chairs’. In the case of a verb form like ‘ate’, the lemma would be ‘eat’. \ Wordforms- are the specific forms like ‘ate’, ‘dishes’, ‘eat’, ‘dish’, etc.

Lemmatization- is the process of mapping from a wordform to a lemma. This process highly depends on the context. For example, the word ‘chair’ in the sentence ‘This is my favourite chair’ plays the role of a noun, whereas, in the following sentence, ‘He chaired the session yesterday’ it functions as a verb.

The scope of Lexical Semantics is vast and thus difficult to encompass by this unit as the unit tries merely to introduce the major concepts in the area.

4.7 QUESTIONS

1. Write short notes on the following:
 - a. Sense Relations
 - b. Types of Meaning
 - c. Sense and Reference
2. Define Lexical Semantics. Reviewing the history of approaches to lexical semantics, comment on various categories of sense relations.
3. Define Semantics. Explain how semantics deals with the concept of meaning.

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LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANISATION

Unit Structure

- 5.0 Objective
- 5.1 Nature, Features, and Division of Phonetics
- 5.2 The Significance of Phonetics
- 5.3 Received Pronunciation
- 5.4 Air Stream Mechanism
- 5.5 Vowels in English Language
- 5.6 Consonants
- 5.7 Questions
- 5.8 References

5.0 OBJECTIVE

By the end of this unit, you will be able to identify the 44 sounds present in English language, recognise the vowels and consonants of IPA, understand the transcription of words given in dictionary and pronounce them accurately.

5.1. NATURE, FEATURES, AND DIVISION OF PHONETICS

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Its aim is to understand the nature of language in general. The major sub-fields of linguistics are Phonology, Phonetics, Morphology, Syntax and Semantics etc.

Phonology is the branch of linguistics which deals with systems of sounds within a language or between different languages and how they change depending on the contexts. Phonetics is a part of Phonology.

Phonetics is the scientific study of speech sounds. The phonetics of a language concerns articulatory, acoustic, and auditory characteristics of the sounds used in language. It deals with the physical production and reception of speech sounds. Articulatory phonetics deals with how speech sounds are produced, acoustic phonetics deals with how sounds are transmitted and auditory phonetics deals with how sounds are received. At the core of phonetics and phonology we have phonemes, which are the

smallest units of sounds used as building blocks of meaning in a language. Phonemes combine to form syllables or words.

The scientific study of word structure is known as Morphology. The smallest units of meaning within words are known as morphemes.

Syntax is the study of how linguistic units larger than the word are constructed. It looks at whole words or multi-word expressions and the associated rules for combining them into sentences or meaningful utterances.

Semantics is the study of meaning of words and phrases attached to the vocabulary.

Pragmatics analyses contexts, interpretation and the nonverbal aspects of language. Pragmatics incorporate social thinking and interpersonal interactions into understanding language.

5.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PHONETICS

Learning Phonetics leads to improving one's pronunciation skills, recognising familiar and unfamiliar sounds and developing autonomy in words and sound recognition. It would help the learners to decode sounds and their relation to the pronunciation of letters and their combination in words. Phonetics enables them to recognise words even if it is spoken by someone having an accent.

The 26 letters in the English language are used to produce 44 sounds of the English language. Hence there is no uniformity in the sound that is associated with a particular letter. For example, the letter 'c' produces two different sounds in the words 'cease' and 'ocean'. Similarly, the letters 'i' and 'y' produce the same sounds in the words 'flip' and 'family'. Hence, we have something known as 'International Phonetic Alphabet' (IPA) about which we will learn later in this unit. The IPA has 44 symbols corresponding to the 44 sounds present in the English language.

5.3 RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION

Received pronunciation is considered to be the standard form of spoken English used by people of South East England and London. It is also known as "Queen's English", "King's English", "Oxford English" or "BBC English". Traditionally, this English has been associated with middle and upper classes. It depicted the public-school education of those who spoke that language. The term 'received' in 'Received Pronunciation' meant accepted or common.

5.4 AIR STREAM MECHANISM

The airstream mechanism refers to how air moves through the vocal tract, which is essential for creating sound. Without this airflow, sound cannot be produced because it is the fundamental process that initiates vibration in the vocal cords or other sound-producing mechanisms in the vocal tract.

In terms of initiators, these are the organs or parts of the vocal tract responsible for generating the airstream. Depending on the type of airstream mechanism used (e.g., pulmonic, glottalic, velaric), different parts of the vocal tract may act as initiators.

Pulmonic Airstream Mechanism: This refers to the airflow initiated by the contraction of the diaphragm muscles, forcing air out of the lungs. In speech, the vast majority of sounds in languages around the world, including English, are produced with pulmonic egressive airflow. This means air flows out from the lungs through the vocal tract (either through the mouth or nose).

Egressive vs. Ingressive:

• Egressive:

This term indicates airflow that is going out from the lungs. In speech, this is the typical direction of airflow for producing sounds. Egressive airflow is easier to achieve because it leverages the pressure generated by exhaling from full lungs. This is why the pulmonic egressive airstream mechanism is the most common mechanism used for speech production across languages.

• Ingressive:

This refers to airflow going into the lungs. While theoretically possible, very few languages use ingressive airflow for producing speech sounds. This is likely due to the fact that ingressive airflow does not facilitate vocal cord vibration, which is crucial for producing voiced sounds.

Glottalic Airstream:

This mechanism involves the movement of air in the upper vocal tract initiated by actions of the glottis or vocal cords.

Egressive Glottalic Airstream:

This occurs when the glottis starts in a closed position, then moves upwards to push air out through the mouth. This is typically used in producing ejective consonants. The sequence involves closing and then raising the glottis, which builds up pressure in the upper trachea and oral cavity.

Ingressive Glottalic Airstream:

In this case, the glottis starts in a raised position, then closes and moves downwards, resulting in the suction of air into the mouth. This is used in producing implosive consonants. The sequence involves raising and then closing the glottis, creating suction in the oral cavity and upper trachea.

These airstream mechanisms are less common globally compared to pulmonic egressive airflow, which is the predominant mechanism in human speech.

Velaric (Lingual) Airstream Mechanism:

- This mechanism involves airflow initiated in the oral cavity without necessarily relying on airflow from the lungs. Instead, it often involves suction to create distinct air pressure. The sound is produced by the closure of two articulation points in the mouth.

Lingual Ingressive Sounds:

- To produce a lingual ingressive sound, you close the vocal tract at two points simultaneously. For example, at the back of the tongue and at the front of the tongue or at the lips. This closure creates suction, pulling air into the mouth.

Lingual Egressive Sounds:

- To produce a lingual egressive sound, you reverse the process of a lingual ingressive. You close off the vocal cavity with the front and back of the tongue while the middle of the tongue and cheeks move inwardly, increasing oral pressure.

Velaric airstream mechanisms are relatively rare in the world's languages compared to pulmonic egressive airflow. They are typically associated with click consonants found in languages like those of the Khoisan family in Africa.

3. Organs of speech:

To produce speech sounds, different organs play an active role. They are known as the organs of speech. From breathing in the air to breathing out into the atmosphere, these organs help to produce speech sounds that we need for communication. These organs are divided into three groups. Those are-

1. The respiratory system: lungs, muscles, bronchial tube, trachea.
2. The phonatory system: larynx, vocal cords.
3. The articulatory system: nose, mouth, teeth, tongue, and lips.

The respiratory system- When the lung compresses, it throws the air out and when they expand, they draw air in. In both cases, the air passes through the trachea. The air that is thrown out is used for the English language. We call it the pulmonic egressive airstream mechanism.

The Phonatory system:

The phonatory system comprises the larynx and vocal cords. The larynx or voice box serves to permit speech and allow air to pass into the lungs while blocking food and drink from entering. Inside the larynx, we have a lip-like structure known as the vocal cords. They are placed horizontally from front to back and are joined at front and separate at back. When the vocal cords are drawn apart and the air passes freely through them without producing any vibration, they are known as voiceless sounds. Example-

/p/,/t/,/k/ etc. When the vocal cords are held loosely together, and the air passes through them, they vibrate leading to sounds known as voiced sounds. Example-/b/,/d/,/g/ etc.

The articulatory system:

Before the air gets released into the atmosphere after passing through the respiratory and phonatory system, the articulatory system modifies it to produce sounds. The articulatory system consists of the nose, mouth, teeth, tongue, and lips. Before going out, the air might be stopped and released by the lips, tongue etc.

In phonetics, the terms "active" and "passive" articulators refer to the parts of the vocal tract that are involved in creating speech sounds through their movements or positions relative to each other.

1. Active Articulators: These are the parts of the vocal tract that move or articulate to create speech sounds. The movements of active articulators control the shape and configuration of the vocal tract, thereby shaping the sounds produced. The active articulators include:

- **Tongue:** The tongue is one of the primary active articulators. It can move up, down, forward, backward, and curl to create different sounds.
- **Lower lip:** The lower lip can move up and down or protrude to create certain sounds, especially labials like /p/, /b/, /m/.
- **Velum (soft palate):** The velum can be raised or lowered to control whether air is directed through the nasal cavity (nasal sounds) or through the oral cavity (oral sounds).

2. Passive Articulators: These are the parts of the vocal tract that remain relatively stationary during speech production and against which the active articulators make contact or move close to, influencing the sounds produced. The passive articulators include:

- **Upper lip:** The upper lip serves as a passive articulator in sounds like /p/, /b/.
- **Upper teeth:** The upper teeth can come into contact with the lower lip or tongue in sounds like /θ/ and /ð/.
- **Alveolar ridge:** The alveolar ridge is a bony ridge just behind the upper front teeth. It serves as a passive articulator for sounds like /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/.
- **Hard palate:** The hard palate, located towards the front of the roof of the mouth, can influence the sounds produced by the tongue, such as /ʃ/ and /ʒ/.

Sounds can be classified into: voiceless and voiced.

Voiceless sounds:

Voiceless sounds are produced without vibrating the vocal cords. Instead, the sound is shaped by the movement and placement of the tongue, lips, and sometimes the teeth. For example, in the sound /p/ as in "pat," the lips come together to block the airflow and then release it. The absence of vocal cord vibration gives voiceless consonants their distinctive, clear, and percussive quality.

Voiced sounds:

The vocal cords (or vocal folds) are mucous membranes that stretch across the larynx. When we speak, they tighten and vibrate to produce sound, and this vibration modulates the flow of air from the lungs. When we place our fingers on our vocal chords while producing sounds like /b/, /d/, or /g/, we'll feel a vibration because the vocal cords are engaged and vibrating. This simple test helps us to distinguish between the two types of consonants easily.

Articulator	Relevance
Airstream	Usually pulmonic
Vocal folds	Closed, wide apart, or vibrating
Soft palate	Lowered (giving nasality) or raised (excluding nasality)
Tongue	Back, center, front, blade, tip and/or rims raised
Lips	Neutral, spread, open, -rounded, close-rounded

4. Classification of English vowels and consonants:

International Phonetic Alphabet:

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was designed to accurately represent the sounds of spoken languages. Its development in the late 19th century stemmed from a need for a standardized system that could depict each distinctive sound, or phoneme, in a consistent manner across languages. This was a departure from the irregularities and inconsistencies found in traditional spelling systems used globally.

The initiative for the IPA began with Otto Jespersen, who proposed the idea in correspondence with Paul Passy of the International Phonetic Association (IPA). Subsequently, figures such as A.J. Ellis, Henry Sweet, Daniel Jones, and Passy himself contributed to the development and refinement of the alphabet. Their goal was to create a universal set of symbols that could replace the diverse and often conflicting transcription systems that existed at the time.

The first official publication of the IPA occurred in 1888, marking the beginning of its ongoing evolution. Over the decades, it has undergone

several revisions to incorporate new phonetic discoveries and adapt to the changing understanding of speech sounds. The International Phonetic Association continues to oversee the IPA, periodically updating and publishing a chart that summarizes its symbols and usage guidelines.

The symbols of IPA are used in dictionaries, language textbooks, academic research, and language teaching worldwide, reflecting its universal utility and significance in the field of linguistics.

5.5 VOWELS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Vowels are speech sounds produced without obstruction of airflow, and all English vowels are voiced, meaning the vocal cords vibrate when producing them. There are twenty vowels in English.

1. Types of Vowels:

Monophthongs:

These are vowels that are produced with a single, unchanging sound quality throughout the vowel sound. There are twelve monophthongs in English.

- Short Vowels: There are seven short monophthongs.
 - Long Vowels: There are five long monophthongs.
 - Monophthongs are also referred to as pure vowels because their sound quality does not change. Words such as announce(ə), fret(e), sun(ʌ), tick(ɪ), please(i:), dot(ɒ), foot(ʊ), food(u:), word(ɜ:), warm(ɔ:), arm(a:) and pant(æ) come under this category.
2. List of monophthongs with their example and phonetic transcription.
 3. The underlined part of the words show where that particular vowel is used.

Short vowels in IPA -

/ɪ/ – fit /fɪt/, pick /pɪk/, difficult /'dɪ.fɪ.kəlt/

/e/ – pet /pet/, sent /sent/, attention /ə'ten.ʃən/

/æ/ – pat /pæt/, flat /flæt/, family /'fæ.mə.li/

/ʌ/ – cut /kʌt/ jump /dʒʌmp/, cover /'kʌ.vər/

/ʊ/ – put /pʊt/, book /bʊk/, cushion /'kʊ.ʃən/

/ɒ/ – pot /pɒt/, dog /dɒg/, hospital /'hɒs.pɪ.təl/

/ə/ – about /ə'baʊt/, system /'sɪs.təm/, complete /kəm'pli:t/.

Long vowels in the IPA are:

/i:/ - week /wi:k/, feet /fi:t/, media /'mi:.di.jə/
 /ɑ:/ -hard /hɑ:/, park /pɑ:k/, article /ɑ:.tɪ.kəl/
 /ɔ:/ - fork /fɔ:k/, walk /wɔ:k/, August /ɔ: 'gʌst/
 /ɜ:/ - heard /hɜ:d/, word /wɜ:d/, surface /'sɜ:.fis/
 /u:/ -boot /bu:t/, group /gru:p/, beautiful /'bjʊ:.tɪ.fəl/

Diphthongs:

These are vowels that involve a glide or movement from one vowel quality to another within the same syllable. There are eight diphthongs in English.

- They involve a gliding movement from one vowel sound to another within the same syllable. Unlike monophthongs, the quality of diphthongs changes during their pronunciation.

List of Diphthongs with example and phonetic transcription.

The underlined part of the words show where that particular vowel is used.

/eɪ/ -place /pleɪs/, late /leɪt/, dangerous /'deɪn.dʒə.rəs/
 /oʊ/ - home /hoʊm/, phone /foʊn/, global /'gloʊ.bəl/
 /aʊ/ -mouse /maʊs/, brown /braʊn/, accountant /ə'kaʊn.tənt/
 /ɪə/ -clear /kɪə/, fear /fɪə/, career /kə'riə/
 /eə/ - care /keə/, wear /weə/, declare /dɪ'kleə/
 /ɔɪ/ - boy /bɔɪ/, toy /tɔɪ/, enjoyable /ɪn'dʒɔɪ.jə.bəl/
 /aɪ/ -find /faɪnd/, bite /baɪt/, tiger /'taɪ.gə/
 /ʊə/ -tour /tʊə/, pure /pʊə/, mature /mə'tʃʊə/

Diphthongs in the initial, medial and final position of words

Sound	Initial	medial	Final
/ɪə/	Ear	merely	Fear
/eə/	air	caring	Hare
/ʊə/	—	surely	Tour
/eɪ/	age	shame	Day
/ɔɪ/	oil	boil	Boy
/aɪ/	eye	tried	Fry
/əʊ/	own	boat	grow
/aʊ/	owl	crowd	How

English vowels include both monophthongs (which can be short or long and have a consistent sound quality) and diphthongs (which involve a glide from one vowel sound to another within the same syllable).

5.6 CONSONANTS

Consonants are speech sounds where the airflow from the lungs is obstructed or restricted in some way by the speech organs (tongue, lips, teeth, etc.) before it exits the mouth. This obstruction creates distinct sound qualities that differentiate consonants from vowels. There are 24 consonants in IPA.

Consonants are classified according to several criteria:

1. Place of Articulation:

- **Bilabial:** Upper and lower lips come into complete contact (e.g., /p/, /b/).
- **Dental:** The tip of the tongue touches the upper teeth lightly (e.g., /θ/, /ð/ in English).
- **Labiodental:** The lower lip touches the upper teeth (e.g., /f/, /v/).
- **Alveolar:** The tongue tip or blade touches the alveolar ridge behind the upper front teeth (e.g., /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/).
- **Palatal:** The body of the tongue contacts the hard palate (e.g., /j/, /ɟ/).
- **Velar:** The back of the tongue contacts the soft palate or velum (e.g., /k/, /g/).
- **Glottal:** The vocal cords are the primary articulators (e.g., /h/).

2. Manner of Articulation:

- **Plosive:** Complete closure in the vocal tract followed by a sudden release (e.g., /p/, /t/, /k/).
- **Fricative:** Narrowing of the vocal tract to create turbulent airflow (e.g., /f/, /s/, /ʃ/).
- **Affricate:** Initial closure like a plosive followed by gradual release like a fricative (e.g., /tʃ/, /dʒ/).
- **Nasal:** Complete closure in the oral cavity with airflow through the nasal passage (e.g., /m/, /n/).
- **Lateral:** Air escapes over the sides of the tongue (e.g., /l/).
- **Approximant:** Articulators approximate each other without creating turbulence (e.g., /ɹ/ in English).

Consonants	Place of articulation	Manner of articulation	Examples
/p/	Bilabial	Plosive	pot, top
/b/	Bilabial	Plosive	bag, cub
/m/	Bilabial	Nasal	mat, come
/w/	Bilabial	Approximant	water, always
/f/	Labio-dental	Fricative	fish, leaf
/v/	Labio-dental	Fricative	vase, advise
/θ/	Dental	Fricative	think, teeth
/ð/	Dental	Fricative	this, with
/t/	Alveolar	Fricative	truck, what
/d/	Alveolar	Fricative	duck, pad
/s/	Alveolar	Fricative	sea, case
/z/	Alveolar	Fricative	zest, doze
/n/	Alveolar	Nasal	neat, win
/l/	Alveolar	Lateral	lip, will
/r/	Alveolar	Approximant	run, crunch
/ʃ/	Palato-alveolar	Fricative	shoes, cushion
/ʒ/	Palato-alveolar	Fricative	beige, measure
/tʃ/	Palato-alveolar	Affricate	catch, patch
/dʒ/	Palato-alveolar	Affricate	badge, judge
/j/	Palatal	Approximant	yoke, yonder
/k/	Velar	Plosive	keep, poke
/g/	Velar	Plosive	game, bag
/ŋ/	Velar	Plosive	sing, ring
/h/	Glottal	Fricative	help, cohort

The following is a table showing the words in which the respective consonants come at initial, medial and final positions.

Sound	Initial	Media	Final
/p/	pen	apple	cap
/t/	tap	cattle	cut
/b/	bag	cabbage	club
/d/	duck	conduct	bad
/k/	king	chicken	duck
/g/	girl	tiger	leg
/tʃ/	chalk	butcher	bench
/dʒ/	join	pigeon	stage
/f/	face	traffic	thief
/v/	van	heavy	drive
/θ/	thank	birthday	both
/ð/	that	brother	smooth
/s/	salt	glasses	glass
/z/	zero	lazy	buzz
/ʃ/	ship	nation	British
/ʒ/	-	usual	collage
/m/	man	common	come
/n/	nose	connect	can

/ŋ/	-	English	bring
/h/	hall	rehab	-
/l/	lamp	eleven	seal
/r/	raw	carrot	disaster
/w/	wish	always	-
/j/	union	educate	-

5. Cardinal vowels:

Cardinal vowels refer to a set of reference vowels that are used as a standard in phonetics to describe and analyze vowel sounds in languages. The concept was developed by Daniel Jones, a British phonetician, in the early 20th century. These cardinal vowels are represented on a vowel chart that maps vowel qualities based on the position of the tongue and lips. Here are some key points about cardinal vowels:

Representation: Cardinal vowels are typically represented by symbols such as /i/, /e/, /ɛ/, /a/, /ɑ/, /ɔ/, /o/, /u/, etc., each corresponding to a specific vowel sound.

Vowel Chart: The cardinal vowel chart is a graphical representation that shows where each cardinal vowel is positioned in terms of tongue height (high or low) and tongue advancement (front or back).

Standard Reference: These vowels serve as a standard reference for describing vowel sounds across different languages. They help linguists and phoneticians to analyze and compare vowel systems in various languages.

Use in IPA: In the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), symbols for cardinal vowels are used to transcribe and document pronunciation in a standardized way.

Tongue Position: Each cardinal vowel is associated with a specific position of the tongue in the mouth, which determines the quality of the vowel sound (e.g., high, mid, low; front, central, back).

Acoustic Characteristics: Cardinal vowels also have distinct acoustic characteristics, such as formant frequencies, which help distinguish them perceptually.

Primary cardinals	Description	Primary cardinals
1	/i/	Close front unrounded vowel
2	/e/	Close-mid front unrounded
3	/ɛ/	Open-mid front unrounded
4	/a/	Open front unrounded vowel
5	/ɑ/	Open back unrounded vowel
6	/ɔ/	Open mid back rounded
7	/o/	Close mid back rounded

8	/u/	Close back rounded vowel
	Secondary cardinals	Description
9	/y/	Close front rounded vowel
10	/ø/	Closed mid front rounded
11	/œ /	Open mid front rounded
12	/ ɛ /	Open front rounded
13	/ʊ/	Close back rounded
14	/ɤ/	Close mid back
15	/ʌ/	Open mid back
16	/ɒ/	Open back rounded

6. Phonetic transcription:

Over a time, the pronunciation of all the words change, but appropriate changes are not made in the spelling of these words. As a result of this, there would be no correspondence between the spelling of the word and how it is pronounced. Sometimes, the word might be borrowed from a foreign language and its original spelling is not changed, as a result of which there would not be any correspondence between the word and its pronunciation. Hence, we make use of IPA where in the phonetic transcription, we denote the visual representation of speech sounds using symbols. In IPA, we have a one to one correspondence between the sound that is produced and the symbol that represents it.

	word	Phonetic transcription
/ɪ/	bit,city,pretty	/bɪt/ /sɪtɪ/ /prɪtɪ/
/e/	met,sell,rent	/met/ /sel/ /rent/
/æ/	sat,sand,bank	/sæt/ /sænd/ /bæŋk/
/ə/	Doctor, postman,woman	/dɒktə/ /pəʊstmən/ /wʊmən/
/ʌ/	One, run, come	/wʌn/ /rʌn/ /kʌm/
/ʊ/	good,put,pull	/ɡʊd/ /pʊt/ /pʊl/
/ɜ:/	Burn, first, third	/bɜ:n/ /fɜ:st/ /θɜ:d/
/i:/	Cheese, cheat, prestige	/tʃi:z/ /tʃi:t/ /preʃ'ti:ʒ/
/u:/	Flute,pool who	/flu:t/ /pu:l/ /hu:/
/ɑ:/	Father, calm, large	/fɑ:ðə/ /kɑ:m/ /lɑ:dʒ/
/ɔ:/	Cord, cause, walk	/kɔ:d/ /kɔ:z/ /wɔ:k/
/ɒ/	Cot, dock, doctor	/kɒt/ /dɒk/ /dɒktə/
/ɪə/	Near, fear, dear	/nɪə/ /fɪə/ /dɪə/
/eɪ/	Say, make, great	/seɪ/ /meɪk/ /greɪt/
/ʊə/	Sure, tour, poor	/ʃʊə /tʊə/ /pʊə/
/ɔɪ/	Toy, boy, oil	/tɔɪ/ /bɔɪ / ɔɪl/
/əʊ/	Sew, foam, go	/səʊ/ /fəʊm/ /ɡəʊ/
/eə/	Pear, air, fair	/peə/ /eə/ /feə/
/aɪ/	Die, lime, fly	/daɪ/ /laɪm/ /flaɪ/
/aʊ/	Round, allow, cow	/raʊnd/ /ə'laʊ/ /kaʊ/
/p/	Pen, sprain, clasp	/pen/ /spreɪn/ /kla:sp/

/b/	Bend, absent, club	/bend/ /æbsənt/ / klʌb/
/t/	Ten, cattle, cat	/ten/ /kætəl/ / kæt/
/d/	Dark, adapt, card	/dɑ:k/ /ədæpt/ / kɑ:d/
/k/	Kit, account, kick	/kɪt/ /əkaʊnt/ / kɪk/
/g/	Get, snuggle, bug	/get/ /snʌɡl/ / bʌɡ/
/tʃ/	Chin, question, torch	/tʃɪn/ /kwɛstʃən/ / tɔ:tʃ/
/dʒ/	Judge, margin, bridge	/dʒʌdʒ/ /mɑ:dʒɪn/ / brɪdʒ/
/f/	Fund, telephone, cough	/fʌnd/ /tɛlɪfəʊn/ / kɒf/
/v/	Van, vivid, alive	/væn/ /vɪvɪd/ / ə/laɪv/
/θ/	Thin, method, earth	/θɪn/ /mɛθəd/ / ɜ:θ/
/ð/	This, either, rhythm	/ðɪs/ /aɪðə/ /rɪðəm/
/s/	Sun, cinema, seats	/sʌn/ /sɪnəmə/ / si:ts/
/z/	Zoo, nose, seeds	/zu:/ / nəʊz/ / si:dz/
/ʃ/	Shine, cushion, dash	/ʃaɪn/ /kʊʃən/ / dæʃ/
/ʒ/	Pleasure, usual, beige	/plɛʒə/ /ju:ʒuəl/ / beɪʒ/
/m/	Man, among, summer	/mæn/ / ə'mʌŋ/ /sʌmə/
/n/	Name, animal, can	/neɪm/ /ænɪmə/ / kæn/
/ŋ/	Ring, sting, angle	/rɪŋ/ / stɪŋ/ /æŋɡl/
/h/	Heat, ahead, humour	/hi:t/ / ə'hɛd/ /hju:mə/
/l/	Leaf, blue, call	/li:f/ / blu:/ / kɔ:l/
/r/	Run, arrange, scream	/rʌn/ / ə'reɪndʒ/ / skri:m/
/w/	Win, twelve, squash	/wɪn/ / twelv/ /skwɒʃ/
/j/	Yes, unity, Europe	/jes/ /ju:nəti/ /jʊərəp/

5.7 QUESTIONS

1. Describe in detail the organs of speech.
2. Explain the air stream mechanisms.
3. What are diphthongs? Explain
4. What is manner of articulation? Divide the consonants based on their manner of articulation.
5. Transcribe the following words

Run

Judge

Earth

Unity

ring

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INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Unit Structure

- 6.0 Objective
- 6.1 Definition of Language
- 6.2 Characteristics of Language
- 6.3 Varieties of Language
- 6.4 The Origins of Language
- 6.5 Biological Basis of Language and the Brain
- 6.6 Significance, Origin and Development of English Language
- 6.7 Questions
- 6.8 References

6.0 OBJECTIVES

The primary objectives of this unit are:

- To acquaint you with the meaning of language in general and the English language in particular.
- To explain the characteristics of language.
- To familiarize you with the varieties of language and the origins of language.
- To analyze the biological basis of language and its relationship with the brain.
- To trace the origin and development of the English language over the centuries.

6.1 DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE

Language is a communication system that utilizes sounds (spoken language) or symbols (written language) to convey meaning. It is a crucial aspect of human cognition and social interaction, enabling individuals to express their thoughts, emotions, ideas, and intentions.

6.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE

- **Arbitrariness:** The connection between linguistic signs (words, symbols) and their meanings is not inherent; it is established by convention within a specific language.
- **Productivity:** Languages are capable of generating an infinite number of new utterances. This is achieved through the combination of words and grammatical rules, allowing speakers to form sentences that can be understood by others.
- **Displacement:** Language enables speakers to refer to things, events, or concepts that are not immediately present. This includes the ability to discuss past, future, or hypothetical situations, which is vital for abstract thought and planning.
- **Cultural Transmission:** Language is learned and passed down within communities, reflecting and shaping cultural values, norms, and beliefs.
- **Duality:** Languages consist of two layers: a phonetic or visual form (sound or symbol) and a semantic meaning. This dual structure facilitates complex communication and symbolic representation.
- **Structure:** Languages have systematic rules for organizing and combining sounds (phonology), words (morphology), and sentences (syntax), contributing to linguistic diversity.

6.3 VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE

- **Dialects:** These are regional or social variations within a language that differ in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Dialects often represent geographical or social distinctions and may be mutually intelligible with standard forms.
- **Standard Language:** A standardized form of a language considered the norm, often used in education, government, media, and formal contexts. Standard languages typically emerge through a process of standardization from dialects.
- **Sociolects:** These are language varieties associated with specific social groups or classes, characterized by differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, and discourse patterns.
- **Registers:** Different language styles used in specific contexts or situations, ranging from formal to informal speech, technical language, and casual conversation. Registers vary in formality and complexity depending on the communicative purpose.
- **Pidgins and Creoles:** Pidgin languages develop when speakers of different languages need to communicate. Creoles evolve from

pidgins when they become the primary language of a community, gaining native speakers and more complex grammar.

Sign Languages: These languages use visual gestures, facial expressions, and body movements to convey meaning, with their own grammatical rules and syntax, used by deaf communities worldwide.

Standard vs. Non-Standard Varieties: Standard language is the accepted form used in formal settings, while non-standard varieties may include colloquialisms or regionalisms.

Understanding the characteristics and varieties of language helps in appreciating the complexity and diversity of human communication, which plays a crucial role in shaping identity, culture, and social dynamics.

6.4 THE ORIGINS OF LANGUAGE

The origins of language have intrigued scholars and scientists for centuries, yet they remain a complex and debated topic due to the absence of direct evidence from ancient times. The study of language origins is inherently interdisciplinary, drawing from fields such as linguistics, anthropology, cognitive science, genetics, and archaeology. Several theories and perspectives on how language may have originated include:

6.4.1 Evolutionary Perspective:

Biological Foundations: Language is a unique human trait linked to the evolution of specific cognitive and anatomical structures, including brain regions like Broca's area and Wernicke's area, which are essential for language processing. One hypothesis suggests that language evolved to enhance social cohesion and cooperation among early human groups, thus aiding survival. Another theory posits that language development paralleled the use of complex tools and the capacity for planning and coordination. The ability to use language may have provided cognitive benefits, such as improved problem-solving, information sharing, and cultural transmission.

6.4.2 Cultural Evolution and Language Diversity:

It is possible that early humans initially used a proto-language—a basic system of vocalizations, gestures, and expressions—before developing more complex and syntactically structured languages.

The need to express abstract concepts, emotions, and intentions may have driven the evolution of symbolic communication, a key step in the development of language.

Over time, languages evolved and diversified into distinct families and branches. Studies in historical linguistics attempt to trace these relationships and reconstruct proto-languages, such as Proto-Indo-European.

Language evolves as it is passed down through generations, adapting to social, environmental, and technological changes. This process contributes to the diversity of languages, reflecting human migration, cultural exchange, and adaptation to various environments.

6.4.3 Linguistic Diversity and Change:

The development of different languages is influenced by geographical isolation, cultural factors, and historical events. Language change and divergence occur through processes like phonetic drift, lexical borrowing, and grammatical evolution.

Languages are grouped into families based on shared ancestry and linguistic features. For instance, the Indo-European languages share a common origin.

6.4.4 Archaeological and Genetic Evidence:

Archaeological findings, such as cave art, personal ornaments, and tools, offer indirect evidence of early human communication and complex cognitive abilities.

Research into the genetic makeup of humans provides insights into the evolutionary history of language-related cognitive abilities.

6.4.5 Continual Evolution and Adaptation:

Languages are not static; they evolve and adapt to changes in society, technology, and culture. New words and expressions emerge over time, reflecting these shifts.

The development of language is closely linked to the theory of mind—the ability to understand that others have thoughts, intentions, and emotions. This cognitive skill is vital for effective communication.

Language likely evolved within the context of social interactions, facilitating activities like hunting, food gathering, forming alliances, and transmitting cultural knowledge.

6.4.6 Symbolic Behavior and Communication:

The capacity for symbolic thought—the use of symbols to represent objects, actions, and concepts—is fundamental to language. This ability distinguishes humans from other animals and likely played a crucial role in the emergence of language.

Evidence of symbolic behavior, including cave paintings and ritualistic artifacts, suggests that early humans possessed complex cognitive abilities and means of symbolic communication before the advent of spoken language.

6.5 BIOLOGICAL BASIS OF LANGUAGE AND THE BRAIN

Language production and comprehension involve complex neurological processes.

6.5.1 Brain Regions Associated with Language: Key brain regions associated with language are given below:

Broca's Area: Located in the frontal lobe, typically in the left hemisphere, it is crucial for speech production and grammatical processing. Damage to this area can lead to Broca's aphasia, characterized by difficulty in producing coherent speech.

Wernicke's Area: Situated in the left temporal lobe, this region is essential for understanding and producing meaningful speech. Damage here can cause Wernicke's aphasia, where individuals may produce fluent but nonsensical speech.

Arcuate Fasciculus: A bundle of nerve fibers connecting Broca's area and Wernicke's area, playing a key role in language processing.

Angular Gyrus: Involved in reading and understanding written language, it integrates visual information with language comprehension.

Primary Auditory Cortex: Processes auditory information, crucial for comprehending spoken language.

6.5.2 Language Lateralization:

Left Hemisphere Dominance: In most individuals, language functions are primarily localized in the left hemisphere of the brain. This lateralization extends to aspects such as grammar and syntax.

Right Hemisphere Contributions: The right hemisphere also contributes to language, particularly in areas like prosody (intonation and rhythm) and pragmatic understanding (contextual nuances).

6.5.3 Neuroplasticity and Language Development:

Critical Period Hypothesis: Research suggests that there is a critical period during early childhood when the brain is particularly sensitive to language acquisition. During this time, exposure to language is essential for the development of normal language skills.

Neuroplasticity: The brain's ability to change and adapt, known as neuroplasticity, persists throughout life. This adaptability allows the brain to reorganize itself in response to language learning, injury, or other environmental factors. Neuroplasticity is crucial for the brain's capacity to recover language functions after damage, such as through rehabilitation following a stroke.

6.5.4 Genetics and Language Disorders:

Certain genetic factors can make individuals more susceptible to language disorders, including specific language impairment (SLI) and developmental dyslexia. Investigating these genetic influences helps researchers gain a deeper understanding of the biological underpinnings of language disorders.

6.5.5 Evolutionary Perspectives:

The development of language likely involved specific adaptations in the human brain, especially in areas associated with communication, social interaction, and tool use. Studies comparing human and non-human primates, along with fossil evidence, offer valuable insights into the evolutionary origins of language.

The biological basis of language underscores the complex interactions between brain regions, neural pathways, and genetic factors that enable human communication and language processing. Ongoing research continues to explore how the brain supports various aspects of language, from basic speech production to the subtleties of meaning and structure. A better understanding of these foundations not only reveals what makes human language unique but also aids in developing therapies for language disorders and strategies for rehabilitation after brain injuries affecting language.

6.6 SIGNIFICANCE, ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English is a widely spoken language with a deep and varied history. It has developed over many centuries, shaped by numerous cultures and languages, becoming a major global language. This summary explores the English language, including its origins, growth, features, and worldwide importance. With over 1.5 billion speakers, English stands as a major language in global communication, business, science, and diplomacy. It belongs to the Indo-European family, specifically the Germanic branch, and has been significantly influenced by Latin, French, and other languages through historical events like the Norman Conquest.

English uses the Latin alphabet with 26 letters, written from left to right. It adheres to specific grammar rules for constructing sentences, punctuation, and capitalization. English boasts a large vocabulary, estimated between 250,000 and over a million words, reflecting its historical growth and incorporation of terms from various languages. English grammar includes rules for sentence formation, tense usage (past, present, future), question formation, and more. It is relatively flexible, allowing for creative expression. English displays considerable regional differences (such as British, American, and Australian English) in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar, shaped by cultural and historical factors. Pronunciation in English can vary widely, presenting challenges for non-native speakers. The language features a complex system of stress and intonation that

affects meaning and communication. English functions as a common language in international settings, including business, science, technology, and culture, facilitating global interaction and trade. English literature ranges from medieval works like *Beowulf* to contemporary novels and poetry. It has produced influential writers such as William Shakespeare, Jane Austen, and Ernest Hemingway, impacting global literature and culture. English continually evolves, incorporating new words from technology, social media, and cultural trends, adapting to the needs of its speakers.

English enables cross-border communication, promoting international cooperation and understanding. Mastery of English broadens educational and professional opportunities worldwide. Much global information, research, and literature are in English, providing broad access to knowledge. English facilitates the sharing of ideas, literature, and perspectives across cultures.

Origins and Development:

English originated with the Germanic tribes that migrated to Britain around the 5th century AD. The main tribes were the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. Their languages evolved into Old English, influenced by the Celtic languages and later by the Vikings. The Norman Conquest of 1066 introduced French elements which led to Middle English. During this period, English absorbed many French terms, especially in governance and culture. Geoffrey Chaucer's works in the 14th century marked the transition to Early Modern English.

The 16th-century Renaissance further transformed English, with Latin and Greek contributions expanding its vocabulary. The invention of the printing press by William Caxton in 1476 played a key role in standardizing English and making it more widely accessible.

English is known for its ability to adopt words and expressions from other languages, resulting in a rich vocabulary with diverse origins. Generally, English spelling reflects pronunciation, though some exceptions exist. English grammar is relatively simple compared to many other languages, with a fixed word order (subject-verb-object) and fewer inflections. English is spoken in various forms worldwide, including American, British, and Australian English, each with its own pronunciation, vocabulary, and sometimes grammar.

The English language boasts a complex and extensive history that spans over 1,500 years. Its evolution has been shaped by numerous historical events, cultural interactions, and linguistic influences. Let's look at a detailed account of English's origins and development:

Proto-Indo-European Origins:

English's roots trace back to Proto-Indo-European (PIE). The PIE is a prehistoric language spoken by people who migrated from the Eurasian steppes around 4500-2500 BCE. The PIE is the ancestor of the Indo-

European language family, which includes languages such as Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, and the Germanic languages.

Germanic Developments:

Around 500 BCE, Proto-Germanic, a subgroup of the Indo-European family, began to emerge in Northern Europe. Over time, Proto-Germanic diversified into several branches, including East Germanic (e.g., Gothic), North Germanic (e.g., Old Norse), and West Germanic, which directly contributed to the development of English.

Old English:

Old English, the earliest form of the English language, emerged during the Anglo-Saxon period from the 5th to the 11th centuries. This form of English developed when Germanic tribes such as the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes migrated to Britain from what is now Germany and Denmark. Old English, influenced by Old Norse due to Viking invasions from the 8th to the 11th centuries, adopted numerous Norse words.

Initially written using a runic alphabet, Old English later transitioned to the Latin alphabet, introduced by Christian missionaries. The language featured grammatical structures quite different from Modern English, including various inflectional endings. Key texts from this period include the epic poem *Beowulf* and the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which offer insights into Anglo-Saxon culture and values.

Middle English:

Middle English, spanning roughly from the 11th to the late 15th century, represents a significant shift in the English language following the Norman Conquest of 1066. This event introduced Old Norman French influences, which blended with Old English to create Middle English. This period was marked by extensive borrowing from French, particularly in legal, governmental, and cultural vocabulary.

During this time, English underwent significant changes as it absorbed French elements, leading to a rich mix of vocabulary and grammar. Middle English literature, exemplified by Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, played a key role in establishing English as a prominent literary language. Orthographic changes included the adoption of the Roman alphabet and the beginning of standardized spelling, influenced by Norman scribes. The Great Vowel Shift (14th-18th centuries) also played a crucial role in altering pronunciation.

Early Modern English:

Early Modern English, from the 15th to the 17th century, marked a period of substantial linguistic and cultural transformation. This era saw the standardization of grammar and spelling, significantly influenced by the printing press and Renaissance humanism.

The introduction of the printing press by William Caxton in 1476 was pivotal in standardizing English spelling and grammar. The Great Vowel Shift, a major phonological change, altered vowel pronunciation and contributed to modern English pronunciation patterns. The Renaissance revived interest in classical languages, enriching English with Latin and Greek borrowings. Literary figures such as William Shakespeare and Christopher Marlowe advanced English literature, showcasing the language's expressive potential. The King James Bible, published in 1611, further standardized English prose and idiomatic expressions.

This period also saw the expansion of English due to exploration, trade, and colonization, spreading the language globally and leading to regional dialects and variations.

Late Modern English:

Late Modern English, from the 18th century to the present, witnessed considerable evolution in vocabulary, grammar, and usage, driven by historical, social, and technological changes. The Industrial Revolution introduced new terms related to technology and industry, while the publication of dictionaries like Samuel Johnson's and Noah Webster's contributed to grammatical and spelling standardization.

Literary figures such as Jane Austen and Charles Dickens influenced the style and narrative techniques of this period. The expansion of English during the British Empire and the rise of global communication through mass media and the internet further shaped the language, introducing new vocabulary and adapting to contemporary needs.

Global Lingua Franca:

Today, English is a global lingua franca, spoken by over 1.5 billion people as a first or second language. It continues to evolve with technological advancements and cultural exchanges, maintaining its importance in international diplomacy, business, science, and popular culture.

6.7 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the historical development of the English language from its Anglo-Saxon roots to the present day. How have invasions, colonization, and globalization influenced its evolution?
2. Explore the influence of Latin and Greek on English vocabulary. How did these classical languages contribute to the development of scientific, legal, and literary terms in English?
3. Examine the factors that led to the spread of English as a global language. What role did British colonialism, American economic power, and the internet play in making English a lingua franca?
4. Explore the development and significance of different dialects and regional variations of English. How do these variations reflect historical, social, and cultural influences?

5. Discuss how the English language has adapted to the digital age. How have social media, texting, and the internet influenced the evolution of English in the 21st century?

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