

# **ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS**

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**ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS**

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**Unit - I**

Introduction

**Unit - II**

Phonetics

**Unit - III**

Phonology

**Unit - IV**

Morphology

**Unit - V**

Syntax

**References**

**V.Shyamala.** *A Textbook of English Phonetics and Structure for Indian Students.* Trivandrum, Sharath Ganga Publishers.

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**UNIT-1****Lesson 1.1- Introduction****Structure**

- 1.1 Objectives
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**1.1 Objectives**

- To introduce the learners with a comprehensive knowledge of the History of English language.
- To know the significance of English Language against the backdrop of the socio-political, economical and cultural conditions of the periods in which they were produced.
- To acquire various theories of the origins of language, growth of vocabulary and change of meaning
- To show the descent of the English language from Indo-European languages and its branches to the level of Anglo-Saxon i.e Old English and to the position of Standard English.

## 1.2 Introduction

The history of the language is closely connected with the people of different periods and their cultures. It also shows how the making of the language involves the replacing of some grammatical rules by others from time to time. The two basic functions of language besides the informative are the expressive and the directive functions. Each individual may vary the movements of his vocal organs according to his personal habits and may thus form his individual speech habit. What relates to the speech habit of other members of his community who are living together in close contact with one another. This act of speech is responsible for the differentiation of a language into several different dialects. When these dialects over a long period of time are the root cause for new languages.

## 1.3 Definitions of English Language

Definitions of the English language are every time increased based on the hypothetical values and its application theories.

Henry Sweet defines that the language is 'the expression of ideas'. He says that speech is the composition of words. And similarly the words are joined together and formed a sentence. This the way of expression the thoughts into the form of language.

Bernard Bloch and George L. Trager had propounded the theory of language that language is a system. The social groups use collective symbols as word form and then as sentence form.

The principles of any language periodically change due to an individual's suppositions and a number of questions. Each and every individual acquires the skill of communication right at the stages of a child. As a child it reaches need or demand by means of gesture and noise which can be detected easily by the mother. The mother surprisingly reacted to the communication of the child effectively. This is the first level of a child to send its message through its own symbols and gestures. The mother also instructed the child some standard forms of symbols to prune the communication more effectively. The spoken language will be the voice if it is connectively detected by the receiver if it is not so it will only a noise to the receiver like animal sounds, birds notes etc.

## 1.4 The Origin of Language

There are many approaches to discover the origin of language but always ended with speculative imagination. Primitive men lived a wandering life in the form of earnings for food and yearning for luxury. He started to learn other's communication in the form of dialect, sociolect, Idiolect or language. Of the various theories advanced to explain the origin of language. A hypothetical derivation of language is categorized into four distinct popular theories.

**1.4.1. The Bow-wow Theory:** This theory argues that human speech must be derived from the sounds of nature. Animals like dogs which communicate their feelings "bow-wow". This theory is acceptable because of the imitative influence of animals, birds or human beings at the time of communications. This imitation of words are freely available in all languages. In English vocabulary words like cuckoo, hiss, whistle, etc. originate under an imitation process which is to be called as onomatopoeic.

**1.4.2. The Ding-dong Theory:** Max Muller proposes this theory in another dimension. Each and every individual expresses in a rhythmic way unconsciously. The sense and sound are correlated with human communication that is resulted with some sound which is to be identified as words. This type of communication exclusively analyzed human voices and its messages. This theory further explores the connections between sound and sense by means of nature's influence. A man's voice from hot countries versus cold countries varies because of this. The habit of whistling is the influence of ancestors' particularly the primitive man's only way of communication from one end to another end.

**1.4.3. The Pooh pooh Theory:** This theory also advocates that man's speech begins with emotional expressions word / noise frequency heavily stressed on pooh-pooh sound so it gained its name pooh-pooh theory. This theory further explains that the origin of language is an involuntary exclamations or interjections of pain or gain. It also supports that most of the words gain its place still now without deliberated meaning like oh! ah! implies that exclaiming sorrowfully or joyfully. It is only associated with the sender and receiver's understanding of the meaning.

**1.4.4. The Gesture Theory:** This theory is initially propounded by Wilhelm Wundt. Later Sir Richard Paget redefined the theory. This theory studies human behaviour with his communicative skill other than oral. Again it is clearly known that human communication is heavily centred

on gesture than oral or written. Deaf and dumb people are trained even today through this theory. The movement of the hand, lips, and eyes are so important for this type of communication. Gesture communications are selectively registered. It lost its meaning from one generation to another generation. For example, the raising of two fingers by Winston Churchill at the time of World War II signifies 'V' for victory but today it is a symbol of a political party. Most of the vocabulary lost its colour because of too much use of gesture communication. If sense and sound are used effectively, communication will be recorded in the form of speech or written.

All the four theories discussed have been helpful to improve the standard of English language periodically. Every time a new theory about language has been promoted based on the said four theories. Though there is some level of truth in each of these theories, there is still ambiguity in the field of origin of language not origin of speech. Written documents throw some light on the seniority of certain languages. But most of the primitive stage people use the communication as a process of sending or receiving their feelings instead of registering their code for language.

### **1.5. The Descent of English Language**

Linguists have roughly accounted for three thousand languages at present. English gained its significant position because of its large number of stakeholders. The descent of the English Language means that it did not directly begin as 'one language' but belongs to the members of Indo-European languages. It is also traced that languages have slowly multiplied into several languages and these languages may be the cause for more languages. The origin of the language is almost like a covalent bond. The parent language is the root cause for many daughter languages. The people of each community spoke the same language in a slightly different manner region wise. This dialectal divergence is almost common even today. Due to migration to a distant place with their family or social group, they carried not only their belongings but also their day to day spoken forms. Slowly, their own dialect or sociolect attracted the nearby people and so boosted it to the status of a language. Ultimately this new form of immigrant communication gained a large number of people to recognize it as a new language.

This kind of dialectal divergence forced the people around 600 B.C. who were speaking different languages to bring a common language



for communication with the social groups. Initially, the Bible was not allowed to translate into other languages because people believed that God knows only Hebrew. This kind of belief is the reason that many spoken languages are only used by a small social group. The philologists had led the investigation and its findings in order to give a way for language. They have identified several families of languages. As per the philologists, the origin of English may fall under the category of Indo-European family of Languages. At the same time there is no trace of any parent language so far. A.C. Baugh categorizes the Indo-European family of languages through the tree diagram of nine main groups and then its branches

1. Indian
2. Iranian
3. Armenian
4. Albanian
5. Balto-Slavic
6. Hellenic
7. Teutonic
8. Italic
9. Celtic.

The English language originated around the six century A.D. The inhabitants of England during this period are the Celts. Their communicative languages were Gaelic or Britanic branches. England gained the name Britain based on the majority people's spoken language which is a branch of Britanic family language. The Romans' conquest and their regiment in England, a mixed race of Jutes, Saxons and Angles, gained a common language subsequently called Anglo-Saxon or Old English. These people's Old English is different from the language now, in grammar, pronunciation, spelling etc.

English Language slowly underwent mutational change during the Middle Ages due to the influence of Norman conquest. The marriage alliance between French and England and subsequently the King's French friends and courtiers unintentionally corrupted the French vocabularies as well as English vocabularies. This act of the Normans' language and the natives of Britain or England's language greatly mixed and brought the second level of English which is identified as Middle English. The topography of the Indo-European chart further assures that the invasion and the extension of Asiatic hordes towards Europe also project that the Indian

language Sanskrit to be considered as parent language. Particularly, the primitive Germanic group of languages directly descended from Primitive Germanic to West Germanic and then Anglo Saxon. The Anglo-Saxon is identified as the old English. Latter the language is further perfected under the head of Middle English. Again the influence of scientific inventions and discovering, the adaptability nature of the language moved toward Modern English.

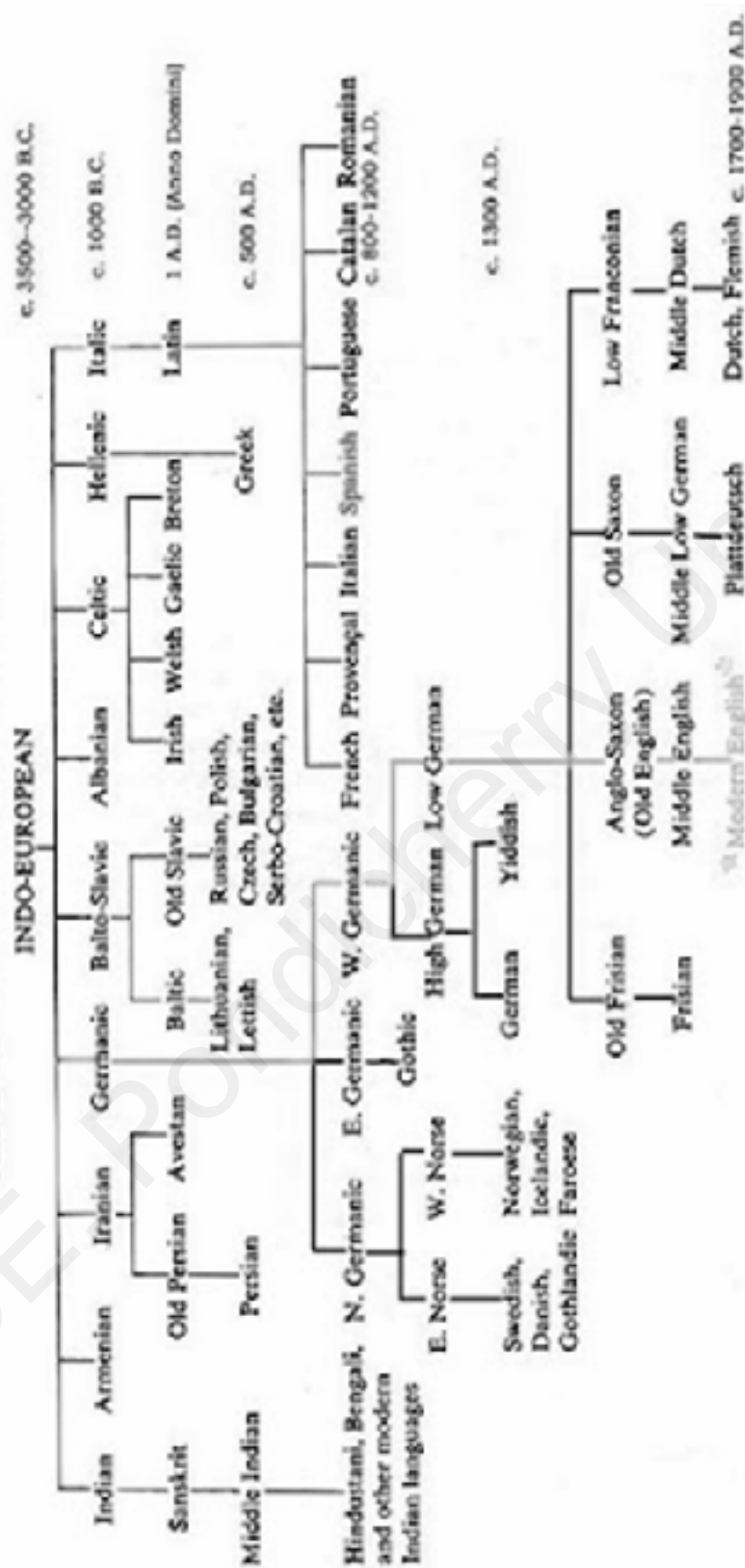
It is not an easy thing to differentiate the Indo- European languages into the various languages. According to Schleicher, the differences of Indo - European languages can be done by means of analyzing the main branches through a continuous and successive bifurcation of the nodes based on the similarities from the language. The word " hundred" occurs in word in the parent language and was affected by the means of the eastern and western division of Indo - European families have come to be termed as the 'satem' and the 'centem' accordingly. This kind of division between eastern and western has some association with the sound of the word. Early period, vocabulary was also used in a very limited manner. If they use more vocabularies it is easy to find the association or dissociation with other languages. Simplicity and directness of expression are the outcome of higher groups of intelligent and civilized societies. So the state of the language as static or dynamic is purely based on the influence of literacy versus illiterate people.

It is observed that the verbal system simplification is reflected in all the languages of the Germanic branch. Germanic languages use verb phrases instead of inflected forms. For adjectives, Germanic languages had a weak declension to be used mainly preceded by pronoun. The Great consonant shift underwent modification in Germanic languages. This tree diagram outlined the Indo - European family languages.

As per the above tree diagram, the English language descended from the Germanic language. The family relationship words like father, mother, brother etc. are not the same meaning for distant relationships like aunt, uncle, cousin etc. As per philological research, English might have originated from the primitive Germanic. Sanskrit, Latin, Greek, Gothic, Old English, for example:

Sanskrit	Latin	Greek	Gothic	Old English	English
padam	pedem	poda	fotus	fot	foot

## THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES



All these clearly describe the similarities among the Indo-European languages. In fact, the rules and regulations relating to the consonant shift also proved that the English language has been descended from the Indo-Germanic family of languages. According to the German philologist Grimm analyzed that the consonant shift among the languages had generated from the Primitive Germanic. Later this law was rectified by Verner. The below table clearly identifies the similarities between the English and the German languages.

Sl.NO.	English Word	German Word
1	ox	ochse
2	to sing	singen
3	to hear	horen
4	good	gut
	I	ich
5	we	wir
6	to go	gehen
7	I hear	ich hore

F.T. Wood further analyzes with some numericals and tries to prove the similarities among certain languages instead of Germanic languages alone. He views that at the time of segregation of the Indo European Languages only ten numbers were available because of fingers in the hands only ten. After the development of languages individually the numbers may have increased based on the need of the hour. Today numbers are unnumbered because of its infinity stage. Each and every language has its own extension to modify and also beautify through the available sources.

**Table for Indo-European languages closeness as per F.T. Wood analysis**

English	Anglo - Saxon	Gothic	German	Dutch	Danish	Latin	Greek (English Literals)
one	an	ains	eins	een	een	unus	eis(en)
two	twa	twai	zwei	twee	to	duo	duo
three	ðri	orija	drei	drie	tre	tres	treis
four	feower	fidwor	vier	vier	fire	quattuor	tessara
five	fif	fimf	funf	vijf	Fem	quinque	pente
six	siex	saihs	sechs	zes	sex	sex	hex
seven	seofon	sibun	sieben	zeven	syv	septem	hepta
eight	eahta	ahtau	acht	acht	otte	octo	okto
nine	nigon	ninun	neun	negen	ni	noven	ennea
ten	tien	taihun	zehn	tien	ti	decem	deka

This above table analyzes the possibility of the English language through the Indo - European eight language group mentioned in the table. The Germanic language is base for the growth and development of the English language. The period between 2000 to 1000 B.C. also significantly proved that a large number of people from northern and central Europe spoke this language. During this period language has also changed steadily and deviates from its parent tree.

### 1.6. Growth of English Vocabulary

The growth of English vocabulary ultimately increase the English speaking people more and more because of its adaptability nature of accepting borrowing or loan words into English. In addition, this language is further multiplied into many number of new words based on composition of words (screw + driver =screwdriver), derivation (Edit, editor, editorial, edition, editing) and root creation (faith, faithful, unfaithful, faithfulness) The impact of Renaissance and Restoration has also paved ways to increase the volume of vocabularies due to loan words and also word makers in English. Due to the growth of science and technology, the vocabulary has been increased. This tremendous growth of the vocabulary is one of the main reasons to perfect the word with meaning and synonyms to the stakeholder. There is an urge to give semantic values to new ideas and ideologies for the modern trend. This growth of vocabulary may vary considerably from person to person. For example Shakespeare implemented some around twenty thousand words through his drama. Milton coined eight thousand foreign or loan words

freely in his poems. These two examples are only visibly known. Similarly many enter into this language because of its adaptability and its readiness to convey the meaning as per expressions expressed by the speaker. The cause and effect of the growth of English vocabulary has been categorized based on F.T. Wood's analysis as follows:

1. A new significance to the older word.
2. One part of speech is used for another.
3. By addition of Suffixes or Prefixes
4. English words derived from abbreviation
5. Syncopation
6. Imitation or Onomatopoeia
7. Telescoping
8. Metanalysis.
9. Portmanteau Words
10. Words manufactured from Initials
11. Back-Formation
12. Corruption or Misunderstanding
13. False Etymology
14. Slang accepted as vocabulary
15. Words from Proper Nouns
16. Combination of two words as one word
17. Deliberate Coinages
18. Adapted loan words
19. Freak Formation

#### **1. A new significance to the older word.**

Certain old words gained new meaning and sometimes even reversed their original meaning in the course of time extended. For example,

S.No.	word	original meaning	new meaning	extension
1	manufacture	to make by hand	now industry based with the help of machines.	hand made articles
2	radical	going to the root of things	group of theologians to search the truth for themselves	now in politics as radicalist

3	board	a plank of wood	people who sit in front of the board is called board members, the deck of a ship	any material for any use: black board, notice board etc. boarding!
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## 2. One part of speech is used for another.

English language easily adopts one particular part of speech into other parts of speech as follows:

Sl.No.	verb	noun	adjective	adverb
1	create	creation	creative	creatively
2	converse	conversation	converse	conversely

The most frequent change is possible between verb and noun and also adjective

word	originally as a	now used as
park	noun - open space for car	verb - to park
panic	adjective- Pan is the name of god. His anger is mixed as 'Panic fear'	Pan
wireless	adjective part of wireless telegraphy	telephone, wifi etc.

## 3. By addition of Suffixes or Prefixes:

This is the most common form of word formation in almost all the languages. Root word is used for both prefix and suffix respectively or simultaneously based on the use of stakeholders. There are no hard and fast rules regarding this type of word derivation. Common prefix and suffix is listed here as follows:

word	prefix	suffix
honest	dishonest	dishonestly
loyal	disloyal	disloyally
faith	unfaith	unfaithfully

Prefixes have been used more extensively than suffixes and most of the prefixes are derived from Latin words like ex-, pre - inter- etc. There is no limitation to use the prefix in English vocabulary.

## 4. English words derived from abbreviation:

This is also a very common derivational form for words in most languages. There is no particular documentary evidence for this use

of abbreviation. Abbreviations are freely used in spoken form; later it gained a place in the dictionary. Almost most of the loan words are used in abbreviations because of their spelling or difficulty in pronunciation, particularly scientific terms that are more comfortably used with abbreviation or symbols than its original words like 'lab' instead of 'laboratory', infinity as a symbol ' $\infty$ ' than the word infinity in use. Some common words now used only its abbreviated words as follows:

Abbreviated words	original word & meaning	now used for
bus	omnibus	omnibus, minibus, airbus etc.
maths	mathematics	
exam	examination	Exams
chap	chapman -dealer	chap - smart boy
fan	Fanatic means the spectators act at the time of football match	fan- for celebrities or electrical

Each community has developed their own pattern of abbreviation. Here is a sentence which is full of abbreviations but any one can understand easily.

“The chap goes to the varsity to meet the prof. and wants to know the date of exam and vac”.

### 5. Syncopation.

This is another form of abbreviation. Here the word is shortened or changed due to vowel ellision and the consonants run either side together. For example:

words	original word	syncopation
pram	perambulator	vowel 'e' is removed
once	ones	'es' sync with 'ce'
else	elles	'les' sync as 'lse'
born	boren	vowel 'e' is removed
woren	worn	vowel 'e' is removed

By this process a number of syllables in the word would be reduced.



## 6. Imitation or Onomatopoeia.

As per bow-wow theory most of the words are promoted through this process ie. imitation through the sound of individuals. This method is an age-old practice and people with very little educational background even today use this method to communicate their message from one end to another.

word	imitation / onomatopoeia
giggle, click	imitation of sound produced at the time of haughtiness
click	twisting sound literarily
hiss	hissing sound of snake
cuckoo	repetition sound of birds note
slithe	slips noiselessly

A number of words in English vocabulary are of imitative nature. The vowel sound in many words gives slenderness and also consonants such as p, t, k suggests quick actions. All these findings are not compulsorily applicable to words but most of the words are made under this category.

## 7. Telescoping:

Telescoping is the word process which combines two different words and framed as a new word. Nowadays this method is so common in all scientific and computer fields.

word	derived from
overall	over + all
atone	at + one
do on	to + don
do off	to + off

This process is more common in almost all languages. The new word is more freely in use than the two different words.

## 8. Metanalysis.

The re-analysis process is very close to telescoping. Some words which have long been in normal use in English find new meaning to the words as per the reanalysis process. Duet to the pitch and syllable confusions some words lost its original spelling an attached to the next

words' first letter. For example 'an nick name' slowly becomes 'a nick name' because of the consonant 'n' is moving toward 'ick' becomes 'nick'. In English 'ick' means 'also'. This type of reanalysis is occurred due to the mispitch or mispronunciation.

word	derived from	due to re-analysis
nick name	ick + name	an 'ick name' = a 'nick name'
orange	a + norange	a 'norange' = an orange
apron	a + napron	a napron = an apron
umpire	a + nampire	a nampire = an umpire

### 9. Portmanteau Words.

Two words, particularly nouns, combined and formed a new word. This is also very common in most of the languages.

word	derived from
tragi-comedy	tragedy + comedy
melodrama	melody + drama
lunch	lump + hunch
brunch	breakfast + lunch
radiogram	radio set + gramophone
smoke	smoke + fog

### 10. Words manufactured from Initials.

This type of coinage of words worldwide in use and almost conveys the meaning uniformly. Most of the time initials are in use rather than its the original words. Nowadays UN NATO, UNESCO are so freely used than its extensions. This type of initials also formed acronyms like JIPMER, AIIMS etc.

initials	derived from
B.A.	Bachelor of Arts
M.B.B.S (two degree course)	Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery
C.I.D.	Criminal investigation Department
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
WHO	World Health Organization

## 11. Back-Formation

This process of word formation occurs because of misunderstanding or the reverse process of using words. Most of the words may be loan or foreign words that is also the main reason for this back formation.

word	derived from
begger (noun)	to beg (verb)
peddler (noun)	to peddle (verb)
editor (noun)	to edit (verb)
donation (noun)	to donate (verb)
to diddle (verb)	Jeremy Diddler a cheat from <i>Raising the wind</i> character (noun)

## 12. Corruption or Misunderstanding.

Some of the words, particularly foreign words wrongly pronounced or misunderstood, slowly gained its place as a word with new meaning. Most of popular words are derived under this process.

word	derived / corrupted
whitsun day	White sunday (signifies white dress on sunday for church goers) now whitsun monday, whitsun week etc.
goodbye	god be with you
civil play	S'il vous plait (french word meaning if you please) highly corrupted and wrongly used as civil play

## 13. False Etymology

Without knowing the original meaning of a word through its origin, certain words are used by mistake. Later, the mistaken meaning of the word entered into the dictionary rather than its original meaning.

word	derived from
posthumous	'postumous' means 'coming after in order of time' but the addition of 'h' changed the meaning as 'after death'.
helpmate	'help meet' means 'companion to man'
salt-cellar	'vessel hold salt is named as saler , then salt saler finally as salt -cellar

#### 14. Slang accepted as vocabulary

Slang is easily recognised as a vocabulary because of its wide range of usages. Particularly sports journals, popular novels increased the vocabulary into English. In fact, slang is an informal spoken language used within a particular group for particular meaning. Most of the words ironically lost their original meaning and gained a new meaning, sometimes a diagonal opposite meaning also.

word	original meaning	now known as
chap	dealer who steals goods	fellow / man / boy
trip	short voyage	any mode of travel
kidnap	child stealing / kid nabbing	any type of stealing human

#### 15. Words from Proper Nouns.

Certain personal names enter the dictionary due to their popularity and also its significance. This method is already familiarized by scientists who coined their names for their invention or discovery.

word	derived from
utopia	Thomas Moore's <i>Utopia</i>
lilliputian	Swift's <i>Gulliver's Travel</i>
teddy bear	from American President Theodore Roosevelt

#### 16. Combination of two words as one word

Here two nouns are combined without losing any syllable or slight change in syllable utterances.

word	derived from
balckbird	black + bird
goldfish	gold + fish
weekday	week + day
daisy	days + eye

#### 17. Deliberate Coinages.

When inventions or discoveries are made, it is still in practice to coin names deliberately with some kind of association with the product. For example the bird shaped Aeroplane is named as Aviator (Latin root avis means bird)

word	derived from
sanitary	Latin word 'sanitas' means - health
glaxo	Gk. 'galaktos' means - milk
ovaltine	Latin 'ovum' means - egg
vital	Latin 'vita' means - life

### 18. Adapted loan words.

It is already stated that based on war, colonization of the English language expands its vast semantic and semiotic field by means of adapting foreign words under the category of loan words. Poets like Chaucer used Latin words more freely in his writings and later such words acquired as English words.

word	derived from
liberty	Latin libertas ("freedom")
Gesundheit	In German, this word means "health."
plaza	Spanish 'large open areas'
tsunami	Japan word tsunami
mammoth	"Mammoth" comes from the Russian word мамонт (mamont)

### 19. Freak Formation.

The term freak means caprice or vagary. Here the word lost its original meaning and gains a new meaning. The reasons for this kind of change are not traceable. Example: Teetotaller: originally it means the stammer of the anti-alcohol advocate when he fails to pronounce the word total abstainer. Now the meaning for teetotaller means one who abstains from alcohol.

Thus, the growth vocabulary has not been ended with the above discussed categories. Religious, political and social development are the main reason for the introduction of many new words. Trade plays a large number of words transacted between people from different countries. Initially these words are coined as registers but frequent use of such words gains a place in English dictionary. No words in any language to be static. New words are always germinates based on the need of the hour.

### 1.7. Change of Meaning

Change is the continuous process due to 'survival for the fittest'. Certain words naturally disappear because of passivity or outdatedness. In tracing the history of the semantic changes most of the time are misled by false or misunderstanding etymology. Some words in the language have been so commonly employed in regular usage or euphemistic ways of using words have undergone total reversal in meaning. The development of new meanings in words is not only a blessing of the language but also the flavour of original meanings may be collapsed by this kind of cross pollination. Certain words abundantly enrich the English vocabulary such as 'box'. Originally this word is derived from a tree named 'box'. This tree's trunk is significantly used for making containers (slowly it gained a name as truck box) Now the word box supplies hundreds of new vocabulary ignoring its origin and its symbolized terminology. In this way, too many words change their meaning and bring many new words. The process of change of meaning is too complex which cannot be easily understandable or traceable. The methods of change of meaning of English words is here discussed as follows:

#### 1. Generalization:

Generalization is the process of a word in particular meaning and gradually change its particular meaning to general meaning is called Generalisation.

Word	Original meaning	Generalization
Box	a tree name. It was used to make caskets. Then as a wooden box.	made of any material and any size.
Journey and Journal	The French noun 'journ' means 'day'. A day's walk or ride is a journey. Day records are journals.	a long journey, monthly journal, weekly journal etc
companion	Latin con=with panis=bread i.e 'one who eats bread with another person.'	any associated / accompanied persons
comrade	Latin camera-a room. i.e. 'one who shares a room'	political comrade, school comrade etc.
catastrophe	concluding act of tragic drama	'great suffering' / disaster etc.

## 2. Specialization:

Specialization is the process of a word in general meaning and then slowly change its general meaning to a particular specialized meaning is called specialization.

Word	Original meaning	Specialization
fowl	Anglo-Saxon 'fugol' means any bird	a bird, especially a chicken, that is kept on a farm
deer	Germ. term 'tier' a wild animal.	deer is a particular species of animal
wedd	Anglo- saxon noun - a pledge or promise.	matrimonial pledge alone
to read	to guess a riddle.	the action of reading only
to write	to scratch on a piece of wood	restricted to writing on paper
slay	Anglo- saxon word - 'slagen' (to strike) related to sledge hammer.	to kill by any method
Toy	things of little value	child's plaything.
cousin	close friend without family connection	person who has blood relationship
starve	old English to die	fasting or going without food
sad	old English 'satiated or full' then 'calm and serious'	opposite to merry i.e. unhappiness
grocer	French grossier means 'whole saler'	one particular class of commodities

## 3. Extension of meaning:

The meaning of a word is enlarged through the period by means of various reasons. The use of such extended words becomes wider and wider and covers a large number of people. This type of word enlargement is known as extension or widening. Through some kind of association a word is generalised and lost its earlier meaning is also falls under this category.

Word	Original meaning	Extension / enlargement
allergy	cause illness due to unsuitable food or medicine	a strong dislike for something
butch(er)	French word 'bouc' for goat who slew the goat	sells meats of any animals

uncle	Latin word 'avunculus' means mother's brother	Mother and also father's brother
virtue	Latin word 'virtus' means manliness	moral qualities
fast	firmness	quick moving, remaining firm
brand	A piece of burning wood taken from the fire. Then metal redhot for marking wine caskets.	good quality
fine	finished work	quality, minuteness
window	'wind eye' hole for air	structured ventilation
black and white	document in white paper written with black ink pen	now blue ink is used

#### 4. Association of Ideas

Often a word obtains some special meaning through the accidental prominence of some association in which it is used. Metaphorical usage has provided all the words denoting the different parts of the body with new meaning or addition to the primary ones.

word	origin	association
villain	a labourer on the manorial estate ready to do any menial work	ill-natured person ready to anything - killing or stealing etc.
tramp	moving from place to place	shabby and untidy person
vulgar	Latin 'vulgus' (crowd) behaviour of the crowd.	individual's filthy act
traffic	trade or commerce involve the fetching goods through the vehicles.	any vehicle congestion / any congestion
head	organ of human body	head of the institution etc.
sabotage	sabot means shoe. negligence or deliberate wrecking the quality of the shoe is called sabotage	Destroying another person's work

#### 5. Polarisation or Colouring:

Polarisation or colouring is a semantic change by which words in the course of time acquire an emotional significance which is in no way



connected with their etymology. Here words gain its own meaning due to political or religious prejudice.

word	origin	polarisation / colouring
gothic	'relating to gothic'	uncouth
propaganda	A committee for organize and propagate mission work in RC church.	Person who popularize the scheme / doctrines of political, social etc
amateur	one who does a thing for the love of it.	who is not an expert and whose work is expected to be not perfect.
to harbour	to give shelter. One could harbour a traveller or a pilgrim	a place on the coast where ships can be tied up

## 6. Loss of Distinctive Colouring:

In fact, this type of distinctive colouring does not often occur, but there are a limited number of words in the English language which have undergone a change towards this direction. Due to figurative influence, people may use this type of distinctive colouring. Simultaneous its original meaning of the word will be lost and gain a new reputed meaning. This type words mostly bThis happens mostly with words with a religious or political significance, especially those which in the beginning were applied to minorities or to unpopular views.

word	origin meaning	distinctive colouring
policy	dishonesty	principled
brave	boastful	courageous

## 7. Metaphorical Application:

Almost most of the words are capable of being used metaphorically. Again this type of words are derived figuratively and used accordingly. For example the word 'silly' means 'happy' but the words gained its meaning as 'foolish'. Here the analogy is he / she may be foolish because of happiness.

word	origin meaning	Metaphorical meaning
bias	technical term from the game of bowl	one's inclination
hypocrite	Gr. word means 'a play actor	one who pretend to be what he is not

silly	happy	appearing ridiculous
bombast	cotton wool which was used for padding	high-sounding language with little meaning
cemetery	sleeping-place	a place where dead people are buried
fustian	originally meant 'thick, strong, coarse cloth'	high sounding, empty talk

## 8. Euphemism

Euphemism is the description given to that figure of speech by which one seeks to hide the real meaning of something unpleasant. At the same time the real meaning can be traceable by means of a proper deductive method. Normally, in conversation, most of the time people use euphemisms in order to avoid unpleasant words. For example:

- The old man kicked the bucket means
- The old was dead.

Euphemistic words	meaning
Kicked the bucket	death / dead
mental	mental deficient
deceased	passed away

## 9. Prudery

Prudery is another version of euphemism. Here the words gain deliberate excessive meaning. For example the word 'birth' original meaning is 'an interesting event' Now we mean that birth is specified as 'the young one comes out of the womb'.

- paying guest for boarder
- financier for money lender
- turf-accountant for bookmaker
- sanitary engineer for plumber
- rest room for toilet

## 10. Reversal of meaning

This type of word has its reversed meaning: generalization to specialization words or specialization to generalization words. The change

has been occurred under any specific reasons.

grocer	→	wholesaler	→	retailer
restive	→	obstinate	→	impatient
to scan	→	to read carefully	→	to read rapidly

## 11. Popular Misunderstanding

When one word has been mistakenly associated with another this type of misunderstanding may occur. On such occasions the original meaning has been changed as per the assumed meaning.

- **preposterous:** origin from Latin praeposterus "before-behind" (compare topsy-turvy, cart before the horse), from prae "before" (see pre-) + posterus "subsequent, coming after," from post "after" (see post-).  
**Now it means :** contrary to nature, reason, or common sense,
- **Premises:** Latin prae-missus = "placed before"  
**Not it means:** Premises are land and buildings together considered as a property

## 12. Proper Names become ordinary Parts of Speech

Proper names entered into vocabulary because of its wide range of stakeholders who have used certain names to stress the importance of the word power. For example Shylock in the Merchant of Venice used the word "Daniel Judgment".

Name	Identified for	Today meaning
Atlas	holding the globe on his shoulder	a book or collection of maps.
Bedlam	Abbreviated form of Bethlehem Hospital for lunatic hospital	madman
father-in-law	step-father	the father of husband or wife
bureau	Cloth covered the table then the place of the place	Room or office
gossip	god-parent	often unkind or not true

Thus many words in English have undergone more than one kind

of change of meaning in the course of their history. Romance originally was an adjective derived from Rome. But later, a new type of literature arose in Romance languages. As love and adventure were the main elements in this new literature. Later the term was extended as romance in the sense of love. It is significant that the gradual change of words is a universal feature of human language. Words go on acquiring new senses because even the richest vocabulary will be found inadequate to express all possible varieties of distinctions of thought. The ever increasing necessities of expressions can be met only by using words in temporary deviations from their ordinary senses.

When a new application of a word is seen to supply a generally felt and it becomes the permanent part of the language. Slowly such words give rise to newer senses, even more remote from the original one. This process has been carried out to such an extent that the entire reversal of the original meaning of the word is ascertained. Such progressive changes that many words in the language now possess senses which are often dissimilar and sometimes even contradictory.

### **1.8. Standard English**

English as a language has been spoken by millions of people all over the world, comprising different social groups, cultures and also occupations. The language needs some perfection because of the large number of people's consumptions. Across the world various kinds of people speak English and never use identical sounds for pronouncing the vocabularies accordingly. All of them are contributors for increasing the vocabulary list by means of misunderstanding or misusing the words. Apart from the different groups of people speaking the English language, there are people who use this language for their trade proficiency like the writers, the poets, the scholars, the business people and media such as radio, TV and newspapers influence the language. So inevitably, across the world people use this language as a common way of communication. But the spoken form of such people is always varying mainly because of the environmental basis.

Firstly, the local dialects play a major role to confine its limited area neither to be mixed nor to be perfected. Secondly, some people in England use English in a very formal and orthodox manner. Thirdly, Wales, Scotland and Ireland also speak English under the influence of

their own regional or mother tongue. All these three categories influenced the need for Standard English. In England, till the 15th century almost all the people spoke the language English as a regional dialect that means they use this base but not uniformly throughout the country. Spoken form of this language is not unified because of the mixed people of literate or illiterate. The introduction of Printing Press changed the form of English. The printers sought the need of correct spelling. England's regional dialects have been gradually lost its colouring and was forced to use common code of language under the banner of Standard English. Slowly specified dialects' words are easily mixed and also gained a place in Standard English.

Standard English has its own place in England by means of stressing the importance and also the need for growth of the language. During the Middle Ages there were rapid changes occurring in the shapes and sounds of English words and affecting particularly the pronunciation of the vowels. The English language had become Standardized in its form and also allowed certain minor modifications in spelling and pronunciation. Modified Standard English is the most important variety of English and people are willing to accept Standard English and slowly many dialects lose their track and give way to Standard English.

English Public schools also undertake this new ordeal through their students. This school approach is also very much useful to the college level students. The speech of a large number of people readily associate with the Received Standard English which they received through the Schools and Colleges. This impact is not sufficient to standardize the English language. The influence of local dialects greatly affected the flavour of the language..

The implementation of Modified Standard in each region is a wide one, ranging from a speech hardly distinguishable from Received Standard to the inferior speech of low grade people in England and the surrounding villages where their ancestors spoke the regional dialects only. The school and college has produced a good number of people to use this Standard English for their regular day to day life and also they avoid jargons and cliches during their conversation. They have developed a particular personality in such a way through the language. They also normally use the coded pronunciation with the keen interest of listening and acquire the purity of the English language. They never allow poor listening habits to spoil the flavour of the language. It is also identified that 'Received Standard' not only attracted the elite and educated people to good pronunciation and spelling in England, but also applies the people

from outside of England such as Edinburgh in Scotland, Pennsylvania or New York in America are also use this Standard English more accurately which gained a wide range of popularity of this language. In written form of this language, there was not much problem arisen at the time of using the Standard English. Particularly, educated circle people constantly use this language without any problem. They also consciously use the language based on the notion of Grammar of lexicon.

Standard English is now attracting people from all over the world. They want to use the language to gain more knowledge across the world. No doubt, the communication of the best educated people in English has a social reputation in which they gain more material advantage based on this. Four hundred years ago, the conditions in England were not favourable for the growth of a standard form of the languages. Global education, rapid and frequent movement from place to place and broadcasting have brought people of all classes into closer contact than ever before. As a result of this there has been a greater degree of standardization of English in Britain.

Now it is recognised that the real life of language lies in its speech, though formerly the written tradition alone was considered worthy of study. The written form of the language is more self-conscious and less spontaneous than the spoken one. It is also more formal in nature which is the barrier of the spoken language, in pronunciation and idiom. Like every language, Standard English is also subject to change and development. Sound changes because of the speech habits of the speakers or the influence of one sound upon another is an almost unconscious operation, going on all the time in all spoken languages. Change in grammatical structure is also the reason for the growth of Standard English. Another change is in vocabulary, discarding of old words from time to time and the adoption of new ones, either freshly coined or borrowed from another language. The makers of new words who enrich the vocabulary of Standard English include the poets, the scholars, the scientists and the creators of slang terms. The common man with no claims to literary or scientific genius, also becomes the author of new and picturesque words which are usually called slang and then finds its way into Standard English. Though the great masters of English literature have been the makers of a considerable proportion of English words, the literary artists at the present day do not hold the place that they once had in the making of English vocabulary. Presently, the vocabularies have been enormously enriched by means of scientific inventions and new ideas through the creators. The common

man also makes his contribution of vivid words and phrases which express feelings and images of Standard English. Because of their colloquial nature these words and phrases find their way into Standard English.

Thus, Standard English is evolved through the unifying influences like tace, reading, the schools and broadcasting are more powerful than they ever before. The English speech also became more and more Standardized and homogeneous throughout Great Britain. It is well known that no one speaks exactly like another and there will always be variations in speech between persons and between speech communities. As different kinds of words are continually falling out of use and new ones are being coined from time to time as a result of precise deliberation or the effects of poetic genius, or the creations of popular fancy, the vocabulary of English is continually undergoing change. The increased interest in the study of speech and speech-therapy, the deliberate attempt to conform to the accepted standard and the results of universal schooling have also influenced the Standard English spoken today.

### 1.9 References

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3. Krishnasamy.N., S.K. Varma, M.Nagarajan. Modern Applied Linguistics. Delhi. Macmillan. 2013
4. Wood, Frederick T. An outline History of The English Language. Chennai. Trinity Press (An imprint of Laxmi Publications Pvt. Ltd.)

### Questions

1. Write a note on bow-vow theory.
2. Write a note on ding-dong theory.
3. Write a note on pooh-pooh theory.
4. Write a note on the gesture theory
5. Write a note on Primitive Germanic
6. Which dialect was the most dominant during the Old English period.



7. Which language became the language of courts and government at the time of Norman conquest in England?
8. Write a brief note on Max Muller ,the German Philologist
9. Write a brief note on Anglo-Saxon.
10. Give an account on Indo-European language
11. Comment on the original language of Britain.
12. Write down the reason for 'The Latin' influence in the Old English period.
13. How many disting language groups in the original Indo-European?
14. What are the three important branches in Primitive Germanic?
15. Define Homonyms.
16. What is the 'semantic change' in English? Give an example
17. What is the role of metaphor in changing semantics?
18. What is the meaning of 'standardization' of the English language?
19. Discuss the standardization process in English.
20. Give an account of the nature and origin of language.
21. Write a note on Old English.
22. Write an Essay on the Descent of the English Language.
23. Illustrate The Indo- European family of Languages.
24. Illustrate F.T.Woods numerical number table with Indo-European languages
25. Write a note on: A new significance to the older word .
26. Write a note on: One part of speech is used for another in the growth of vocabulary.
27. Write a note on: By addition of Suffixes or Prefixes in the growth of vocabulary
28. Write a note on: English words derived from abbreviation in the growth of vocabulary
29. Write a note on: Syncopation in the growth of vocabulary
30. Write a note on: Imitation or Onomatopoeia in the growth of vocabulary
31. Write a note on: Telescoping in the growth of vocabulary
32. Write a note on: Metanalysis in the growth of vocabulary
33. Write a note on: Portmanteau Words in the growth of vocabulary
34. Write a note on: Words manufactured from Initials in the growth



of vocabulary

35. Write a note on: Back-Formation in the growth of vocabulary
36. Write a note on: Corruption or Misunderstanding in the growth of vocabulary
37. Write a note on: False Etymology in the growth of vocabulary
38. Write a note on: Slang accepted as vocabulary in the growth of vocabulary
39. Write a note on: Words derived from Proper Nouns in the growth of vocabulary
40. Write a note on: Combination of two words as one word in the growth of vocabulary
41. Write a note on: Deliberate Coinages in the growth of vocabulary
42. Write a note on: Adapted loan words in the growth of vocabulary
43. Write a note on: Freak Formation in the growth of vocabulary
44. Describe the growth of English vocabulary
45. Illustrate Generalisation in the change of meaning.
46. Illustrate Specialization in the change of meaning
47. Illustrate Extension in the change of meaning.
48. Illustrate Association of Ideas in the change of meaning.
49. Illustrate Polarisation or Colouring in the change of meaning.
50. Illustrate Loss of Distinctive colouring in the change of meaning.
51. Illustrate Metaphorical Application in the change of meaning.
52. Illustrate Euphemism in the change of meaning.
53. Illustrate Prudery in the change of meaning
54. 5Illustrate Popular Misunderstanding in the change of meaning.
55. Illustrate how proper names become ordinary parts of speech in the change of meaning.
56. Write an essay on Change of meaning in the English Language.
57. Write an essay on the evolution of Standard English.

DDE, Pondicherry University

**UNIT-II****Lesson 2.1 - Phonetics****Structure**

2.1 Objectives

2.2. Introduction

2.3 Definitions of Phonetics

2.4 Branches of Phonetics

2.4.1. Articulatory phonetics

2.4.2. Acoustic phonetics

2.4.3. Auditory phonetics

2.5. The Production of Speech

2.5.1. The Air-Stream Mechanism

2.5.1.1: The pulmonic airstream mechanism

2.5.1.2: The glottalic airstream mechanism

2.5.1.3: The velaric airstream mechanism

2.6. The Organs of Speech

2.6.1. The Respiratory System

2.6.2. The Phonatory System

2.6.3. The Articulatory System

2.7 Classification and Description of Speech Sounds

2.7.1. Vowels

2.7.1. 1. Position of the Lips

2.7.1. 2. Front, back and Central Vowels

2.7.1. 3. The height of the tongue

2.7.1. 4. Cardinal Vowels

2.7.1.5 Pure Vowels or Monophthongs

2.7.2. The 8 English diphthongs

2.7.2. Consonants

2.7.2. 1. The place of articulation of consonants

2.7.2.2. The manner of Articulation of Consonants

2.7.2.3. Three term label consonants

2.8. Suggested Readings & Questions

## 2.1 Objectives

- To identify the speech sounds
- To understand the anatomy of speech organs, how sounds are produced, transmitted, and perceived.
- To differentiate vowels and consonants through its descriptions and its classifications with three term labels.

## 2.2 Introduction

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds and how the sounds have been produced, transmitted and received. The sound for language is the production which has taken place through various processes from symbols and signs as a spoken form. The sender sends the message and it was to be linguistically decoded by the receiver. The sender has to choose the words that should be known to the receiver otherwise the communication system proved to be an utter failure.

## 2.3 Definitions of Phonetics

Phonetics is derived the Greek word *fōnē*. This is a linguistic study that deals with the production of sound at the time of speech. The speech sounds are produced with the help of physiological and acoustic mode. This study helps to know the functions of the vocal cords that play an important role to produce speech sounds. In speech sounds there are articulatory phonetics and acoustic phonetics. Further, the study focuses on the combination of sounds which naturally make syllables, words, and sentences.

## 2.4 Branches of Phonetics

Phonetics is divided into three main branches according to:

58. Production: Articulatory phonetics,
59. Transmission: Acoustic phonetics
60. Perception: Auditory phonetics.

### 2.4.1. Articulatory phonetics

Articulatory phonetics describes the sounds of the language at the time of articulations. The movements of vocal cords play a vital role

during the period of articulation. The vocal cord is one of the articulators. The International Phonetic Association's main objective is to implement standard phonetic symbols for the units of phonemes in English language. At this stage, the speech is analyzed depending upon the speech segments i.e. consonants and vowels. Each and every word is produced through the coordination of the articulatory phonetic elements.

#### **2.4.2. Acoustic phonetics**

In acoustic phonetics, the study of the physical properties of sounds is determined by means of measuring pitch such as loudness - amplitude, and quality - timbre. Further speech sounds are measured in terms of sound waves. The composition of harmonics, frequencies, and formants has been created at the time of phonation. Accordingly the process of speech production is to be divided into three different physical elements as larynx, vocal tract and the output through oral or nasal.

#### **2.4.3. Auditory phonetics**

In auditory phonetics, the ear, auditory nerve, and brain facilitate the speech sounds effectively. It helps to assess / access the process of human speech. Initially this study mainly concentrates on the hearing system. The anatomy and physiology of the human ear, brain, nerves, or even the entire body are related to the hearing system. Subsequently this study helps to explore the level of auditory phonetics. It connects the between speech stimuli and a listener's responses.

### **2.5. The Production of Speech:**

During the time of speech production a coding system is involved between a speaker and a listener. These codes carry a particular meaning of the speaker to the receiver / listener. The message the speaker invariably varies because of the speaker's dialect, socioeconomic background, his age and his psychology. No doubt, the listener is at his challenge to decode effectively with the speaker's knowledge than his.

In the production of speech, respiratory organ lungs played the main role for speech production. Secondly, the phonatory vocal cords also played a major role for producing the sound effectively, The third element for speech production articulatory is routed through the vocal tracts such as glottis, uvula,

In the respiratory system for communication or speech production the air is exhaled out of the lungs, then passes through the trachea to the larynx. Then the larynx allows the air to pass through the two vocal cords based on the speed of the air. If the air moves slowly then the word must be voiceless, If the air comes out speedily it must be voiced. Whereas for the voiceless sounds like [p] and [s], the vocal cords leave the space to pass through the air without any vibration. They do not block the airflow and so there is no vibration i.e. voiceless. But the voiced consonants such as [b] and [d], vocal cords move closer, and the pressure of air increases and there is a vibration ultimately resulting in voiced sounds.

### **2.5.1. The Air-Stream Mechanism**

Among the three main constituents of speech production, phonation, articulation, and air stream mechanisms, the airstream mechanism refers to the process by which the vocal tract creates airflow. Sound cannot be produced in the absence of airstream mechanism.. The organs generating the airstream are known as initiators. These initiator used to stimulate sound production in spoken language. The initiators, the diaphragm, the glottis, and the tongue are the elemental source for airstream mechanism. The functions of these organs by means of decreasing or increasing the pressure at the time of production of speech is used the airstream mechanism. The functions of inward and outward flow of air is referred to as ingressive and egressive respectively.

#### **Three types of Air-stream mechanism:**

1. The pulmonic airstream mechanism is initiated from the lungs (diaphragm). The diaphragm role is to control the movements of chest muscles at the time of producing the speech sound. In fact, the pitch sound is decided by the expansion of the muscles.
2. Some words came out feebly because of the influence of the glottis which moistened the word and reduced the rate of speech through the glottalic airstream mechanism.
3. The velaric airstream mechanism is initiated in the oral cavity by the action and / or movement of the tongue. The organs involved to produce the speech is illustrated through the Human Respiratory System diagram (Figure: 2.5.1.)

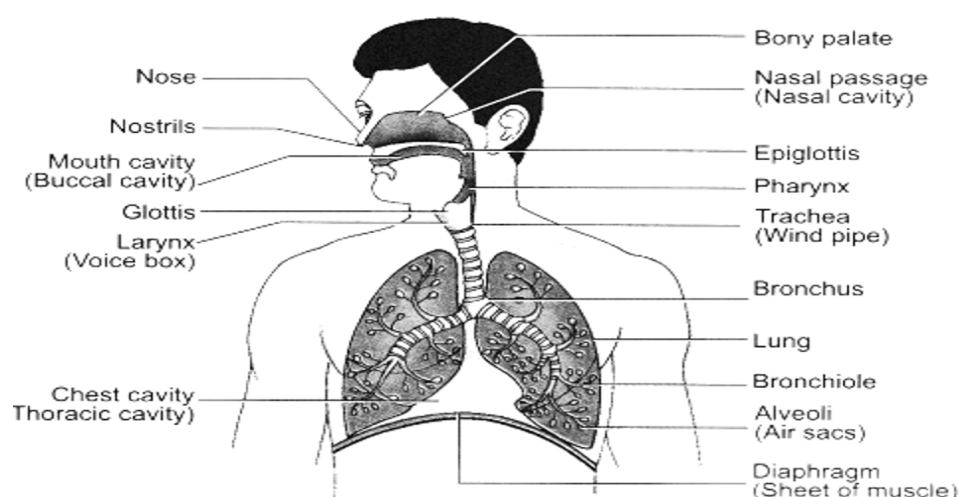


Figure: 2.5.1.1 (Courtesy wiki)

#### 2.5.1.1: The pulmonic airstream mechanism

Lungs played a major role in speech production. The initiation of speech sounds is through the lungs. Most of the speech sounds in language generate under the pressure of pulmonic egressive. Not only in English but also most of the language has been produced through the 'breath in' and 'breathe out' system i.e the pressure of the diaphragm muscles in such a way. The inhaled air is released out of the lungs with the association of diaphragm and passed either through the mouth or the nose. The airflow which is produced in the lungs is referred to as "pulmonic". In the same way, the air moving out of the lungs is referred to as "egressive pulmonic air flow. If there is any stop at the time of pulmonic airstream mechanism is referred to as a "plosive."

#### 2.5.1.2: The glottalic airstream mechanism

The glottalic airstream mechanism is said to be the way airflow produces the speech sound through the upper vocal tract with the help of either the glottis or the vocal cords or both. At this juncture, the air from the pharynx is released with the association of the glottis and moves upward towards the mouth. This is also reversed by means of downward movement of the glottis which is closed and will allow the suction of air into the mouth.

In order to produce a speech sound through the glottis as egressive, a system to be followed. He must lower the glottis and close it ie. glottal stop Then, the raise of glottis gives an amount of pressure in the upper trachea and oral cavity and then released as the form of 'Ejectives' that are the egressive glottalic by nature.

In order to produce a speech sound through the glottis as ingressive, again the system to be followed accordingly. This time he should raise the glottis and close it ie. glottal stop Then, the lowering of the glottis gives some kind of suction in the upper trachea and oral cavity and then released as the form of 'implosives' that are the ingressive glottalic by nature.

### **2.5.1.3: The velaric airstream mechanism**

The velaric airstream mechanism is said to be the way airflow produces the speech sound through the oral cavity without the help of lung's air. At this stage, a suction happened to create air pressure and produced a sound by means of the closure of the two articulators. This act of speech production is called velaric airstream mechanism. Based on the movement of the tongue, this velaric airstream mechanism produces different speech sounds.

In order to produce a speech sound through the velaric as egressive, a system to be followed. That is the back of the tongue and the lips closed completely and then released the air abruptly. This bilabial stop creates voiced, voiceless or nazalised sound at the time of speech production.

In order to produce a speech sound through the velaric as ingressive, again a system to be followed accordingly. He must close the vocal cavity with front as well as back of the tongue and also the cheeks and middle of the tongue to be moved upward in order to increase the oral pressure. This type of lingual egressive is used for bilabial nasal ingressive click.

## **2.6. The Organs of Speech**

The production of speech sounds is only with the support of active and passive articulators. Articulatory phonetics which are already discussed above are connected with the place and manner of articulation. The breath out of what is called exhale of the air passes through the vocal tract and its rate of speed is based on the consonant's manner and place of articulation. The audibility of the speech sound is also connected with the way the airflow releases.



**Speech organs (articulators)** Further, the speech sound is produced on the outcome of muscle movements. Particularly, the movement of chest muscle during the time of breathing produces the air and is released as speech sounds. At the same time the congestion of sound also occurred because of the muscles in the larynx side. The release of air through the larynx and the vocal tract move towards the mouth or nasal passages. In this way, every time the complex set of muscles changes the shape of the vocal tract and releases the air accordingly. The speech organs both active and passive articulators are discussed as follows:

- **The Diaphragm and lungs:** The rhythm of airflow is very important for speech production. Diaphragm controls the expansion of the lungs and also the chest muscles. This act of controlling mode is very important for auditory phonetics. Lungs is the source of speech production. The way in which it releases the air through the breath out is very important for the process of speech production. .
- **Pharynx:** It is known as throat which is also important to carry out the airflow process almost channelised through its tunnel shaped passage. The length of the pharynx depends upon the person, the normal size is 5 inches. It links the distance between the lungs and mouth / nasal almost like a cable.
- **Soft palate (velum)** plays the role of allowing the air either to pass through the nose or through the mouth based on the intuition or pressure of the air. If there is confusion of releasing the air the mingled noise will be produced. Depending upon the speaker during the production of speech it will be raised. Most of the words necessarily pass through the mouth. At this juncture the soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage and so release the air through the mouth.
- **Hard palate:** It is also known as 'the roof of the mouth'. It can be felt by its smooth curved surface with the help of the tongue.
- **Alveolar ridge** is situated between the top of the front teeth and the hard palate. The shape of the alveolar ridge and the surface of the alveolar ridge can be felt by the tongue. The little ridges are more helpful to produce the sounds accordingly.
- **Teeth (upper and lower)** are usually seen through the advt. or by means of seeing through the mirror the front teeth. Both upper and lower teeth are responsible to control the tongue and produce the speech audibly. Most of the speech sounds are produced by means

of the tongue's contact with the upper teeth. Dental means the manner of the tongue which touches the front teeth at the time of speech production.

- **Lips:** It plays an important role to produce the speech sound to be oral or nasal based upon its position. If the lips are tightly closed inevitably the blocked air will be released through the nose. The articulation manner will be decided based on the movements of lips as rounded or unrounded. The way of opening the lips is also categorized as voiced or voiceless speech sounds. Speech sound produced through the contact of both lips is called bilabial. When the speech sound produced lip to teeth are called labiodental.
- **Uvula** is a soft pendant-like structure of flesh hanging at the end of the soft palate. It plays an important role in producing the speech sounds. The hanging flesh gives number of scope to create guttural voice and other sounds.

The organs of speech is divided into three groups as follows;

- a. The respiratory system
- b. The phonatory system
- c. The articulatory system

#### 2.6.a. The Respiratory System

Speech sound is destined only through the respiratory systems particularly lungs and diaphragm. The 'in' and 'out' of air to the lungs is known as inhale and exhale. The air flow through these respiratory systems speculates the prospects of the speech sounds. In science, it is known that oxygen is inhaled and carbon dioxide is exhaled. At the same time the process of respiration involves speech production. The contraction of the diaphragm plays the main role to determine the sound of the speech. Singers and actors are very much skillful to use diaphragm for their achievement in their respective field. .

#### 2.6.b The Phonatory system

The vocal cord is situated just behind the larynx i.e. Adam's apple. The modulation of one's voice is decided by this Adam's apple. In fact, the voice of male and female is distinguished based on this thyroid cartilage. The breathing process is a regular mode to inhale and exhale. But at the time of speech production this regular breathing process is additionally

loaded with speech sounds. Almost all the organs connected with the breathing process are involved in various modes to distinguish the speech one with another. Wherever the air is blocked or released the vocal cords oscillates with confusion to open wide or to close, the speech sound will be varied as plosives or fricatives or affricate or glottal or nasal. The confusion half close and half open produced the speech sound as voiced or voiceless. Let us take the speech sound of the consonant 'b' is voiced whereas 'p' is voiceless. The art of pronunciation is closely connected to RP. So the speaker's mode of producing the speech sounds depends upon his own mother tongue and also the regional influence. The diagram of vocal cords in 2.6.b is describing the components of vocal cords involved at time of speech production through this phonatory system.

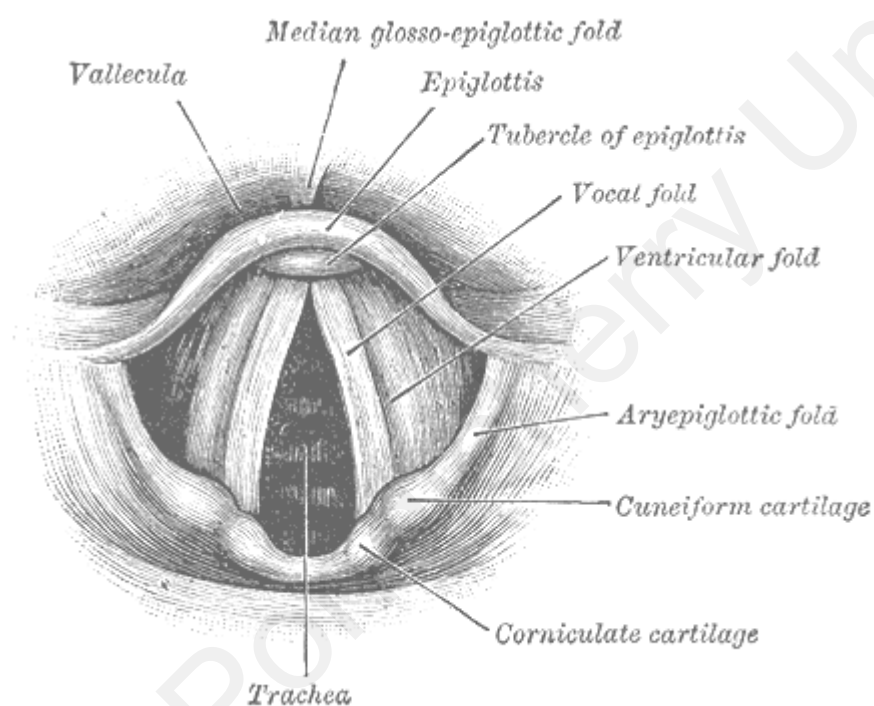


Figure: 2.6.b. (Courtesy wiki)

### 2.6.c. The Articulatory system

The Articulatory system has been discussed just above in the same unit. The movements of the vocal cord plays a vital role in articulation. Unlike the Phonatory system, this system plays the key role in deciding the sender / receiver based communications. In phonatory the art of communication is purely based on the quality of the vocal cords / larynx etc. For example, some people who suffer from tonsil may have phonatory problems called singer's nodes.. But in articulatory system the entire articulators are forced to involve at the time of speech production. Most

of the time human speech has been delivered before he felt the meaning of his message.

The way of releasing the speech sound is known as the place of articulation and the manner of articulation. Take for example, the consonant 't' in plosive is produced by means of blocking the air and then released abruptly at the time of release the vocal cord vibrates silently as voiceless. Whereas, the same sort of plosive consonant 'd' release in the manner but the vocal cord comparatively vibrates higher level is called voiced consonant. The articulatory outline diagram 2.6.3. illustrates the organs involved at the time of production of speech through articulation systems.

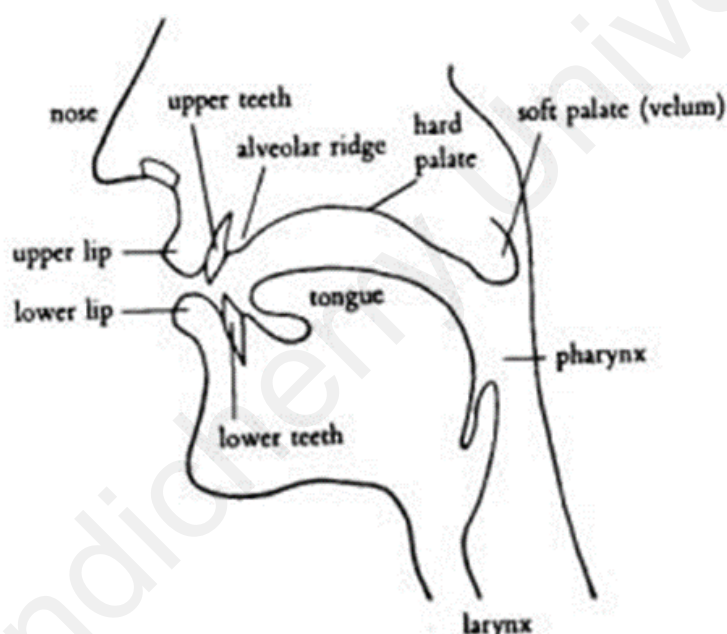


Figure: 2.6.c (Courtesy wiki)

The articulatory system is inevitably holding the role of speech production deliberately and also effectively. A child's babbling is entirely different. It speaks without knowing the sound or meaning of the word. Whereas grown ups are highly responsible for the mode of his speech. If the articulatory system of the individual is properly trained the speech production is natural. Academicians fumbled vocabulary at the time of delivering his speech to the audience because he was trained like a politician. On the other hand, politicians are highly commendable at the time of delivering his speech to the audience. Speech is a habit. It should be trained properly then only one can achieve the target accordingly. The entire anatomy of human beings is activated at the time of communication. In the vocal tract, the space accommodate for the airflow is known as the

cavity in the articulatory system. The three cavities of the vocal tract are nasal, oral and pharyngeal.

In addition to the above three cavities, the articulatory system comprises the articulators for speech production. The active and passive articulators are already discussed in the same unit.

Here we refer to the fixed articulators / passive which means the anatomical structures like bone carry out the communication process without moving its place like tongue. For example the bone system controls or stimulates the hard palate and alveolar ridge at the time of speech production. Movable articulators are active articulators like tongue, lips that will carry out the message by means of its own physical movements.

## 2.7 Speech sounds: classification and its description

Speech sounds can be classified based on the mechanism of speech production by means of the acoustic and auditory sounds functions. It can be further analyzed through the process of communication. There are three stages for communication which is the base to identify the types of classification. Firstly, communication is began with the help of articulatory organs. Secondly the production of the speech sound is transmitted through the mouth or nasal. The third stage is external to observe the reaction of the receiver as reception. If the reception is not good the communication will end abruptly. Here we have to understand that the psychology of the receiver is important to react under a stimuli process that is physiologically. Then only the physical articulators functions accordingly. This unit further analyzes how the speech production produce symbolized form into words. An utterance of the word:

‘Classmate’ - /'kla:s,mert/

The vowel ‘a’ is similarly produced in the above word. ‘a’ in ‘class’ as /'ɑ:/, whereas ‘a’ in ‘mate’ as /ei/. This type of complex system of pronunciation is inevitable. On such occasions the production of speech sounds may be clipped or jammed to give a particular sound which is to be RP. The description and classification of sounds is purely depend upon consonants. As per phonetic alphabets we have 20 vowels and 24 consonants. Here English alphabets are phonetically classified based on the production of word. The word ‘classmate’ is an example of how the vowel ‘a’ is pronounced differently in two places in the same word and ‘c’ is pronounced as ‘k’ in phonetic transcription. The consonant ‘s’ in two for

the word 'class' is jammed into one as's'. The flow chart 2.7 outlines the 44 numbers of RP sounds as 24 numbers of consonants and 20 vowels of both 12 monophthongs and 8 diphthongs in English language.

Flow Chart - 2.7.

### 2.7.1. Vowels

In fact, vowels do not produce any sound specifically like consonants. But at the same time its association with consonants are important to produce the word energetically. Though in English the alphabet has 5 vowels as 'a,e,i,o,u' but in phonetic symbols it gains 20 vowels mentioned in flow chart 2.7. Base on the movement of mouth, tongue and lips at the time of vowels association classified as:

1. The position of the lips,
2. The part of the tongue that is raised and
3. The height to which it is raised.

#### 2.7.1. 1. Position of the Lips

Speech sound volume or accuracy is decided by the position of the lips. The diagram 2.7.1.1 displays the three levels of position of the lips as rounded, unrounded and neutral based on the association of vowels; it is categorized into two as rounded and unrounded.

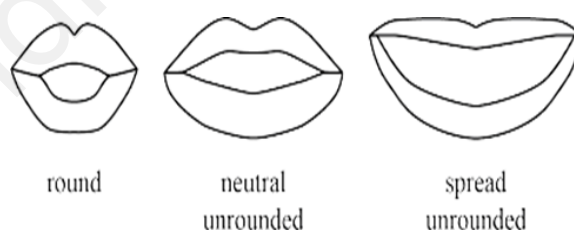


Figure: 2.7.1.1 The position of the lips (Courtesy wiki)

#### 2.7.1. 2. Front, back and Central Vowels

Tongue's place and position are categorized as front vowels, back vowels and central vowels.

**Front vowels** means the vowels at the time of production of speech sound, the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate.

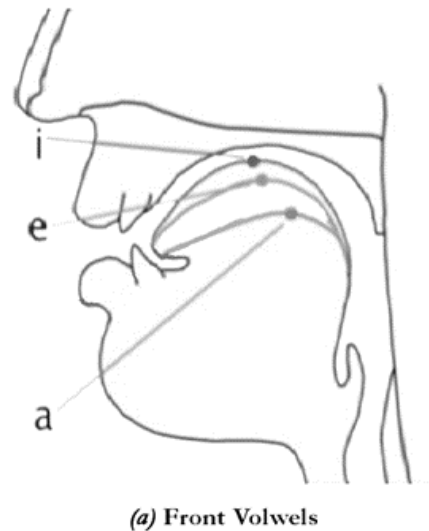


Figure - 2.7.1.2.a (Courtesy wiki)

**Back vowels:**

Back vowels are those vowels that have been produced by means of the back position of the tongue being raised to the soft palate, leaving sufficient space between them for the air to escape without any friction.

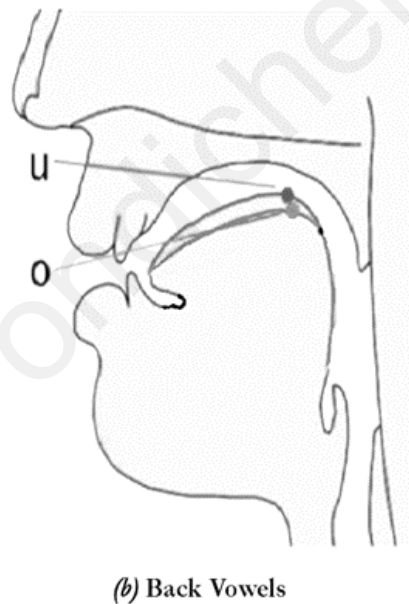


Figure - 2.7.1.2.b (Courtesy wiki)

**Central vowels :**

The central part of the tongue i.e. between the front and back of the tongue is raised at the time of speech production. For example the word above is pronounced in such a way that the centre of the tongue is raised to release the sound as /ə'bʌv/ and the 'ə' is produced with the help



of centre part of the tongue.



(c) Central Vowels

Figure - 2.7.1.2.c (Courtesy wiki)

### 2.7.1. 3. The height of the tongue

It depends upon the rise of the tongue at the time of production of the speech sounds. Based on the height of the tongue the vowels acquired four levels:

- high,
- low,
- close
- open

and also the mid points of the tongue is further classified as four stages as

- half-high
- half-close
- half-low
- half-open.

The production of high or close vowels are decided by RP because of the speaker's random and careless way of producing the vowel will lead to utter confusion in speech production. The tongue positions and the place of vowels are described in Figure - 2.7.1.3



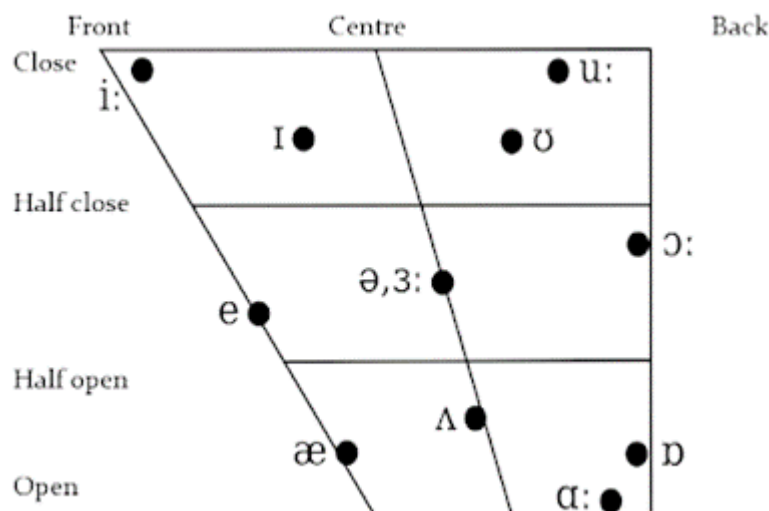


Figure - 2.7.1.3

The key factor for the speech production is the tension of the tongue because the quality of the vowel is fixed based on the tension of the tongue. The tension of the tongue naturally creates the distinguishing tense vowels from lax vowels. Tense vowels are categorically longer than lax vowels. But the height of the tongue remains in the same place for both. In lax vowels the tongue is positioned as neutral neither moving forward as in tense vowels nor withdrawing back as "r" and "l".

#### 2.7.1. 4. Cardinal Vowels

The position of the tongue is to be assessed based on the vowel production. The most extreme of the tongue is coined as the cardinal vowels. Cardinal vowels are further classified as primary cardinal and secondary cardinal.

The primary cardinal vowels are /i/, /e/, /ɛ/, /a/, /ɑ/, - unrounded

/ɔ/, /o/, and /u/. - rounded.

The secondary cardinal vowels are related to the primary ones by reversing the lip- position

for example vowel /i/ in primary is close, front, unrounded

vowel ɛ in secondary is also in close, front, rounded.

**Cardinal vowels: Primary and Secondary - Table - 2.7.1.4.**

	Primary		Secondary	
	Front	Back	Front	Back
close	i	u	y	ɯ
close - mid	e	o	ø	ɤ
open - mid	ɛ	ɔ	œ	ʌ
open	a	ɑ	ɶ	ɒ

It should be noted that the cardinal vowels in the above table are not actual vowels existing in any particular language. These vowels are useful to identify the vowels in actual language. It is one time parameter to describe the vowels in various levels and forms. The following diagram 2.7.1.4. outlines the position of the tongue at the time of producing the cardinal vowels for primary and secondary accordingly. The especially mentioned numbers 17 and 18 also show the position of the cardinal vowels.

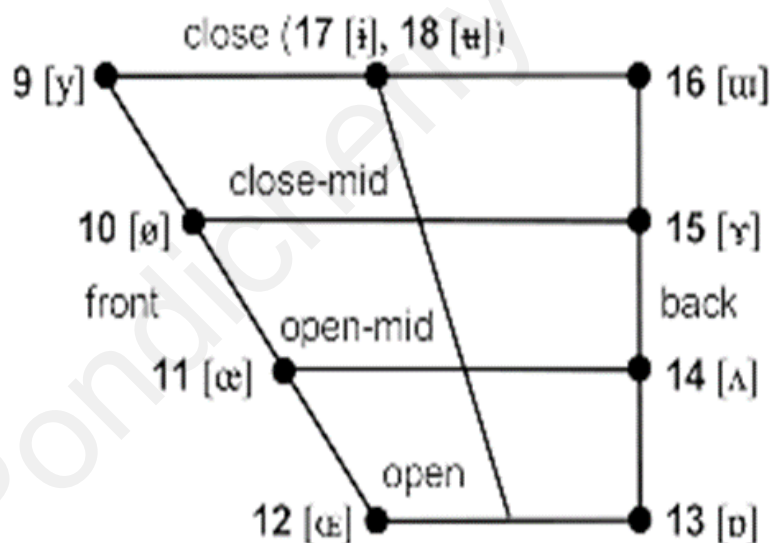


Figure - 2.7.1.4

#### 2.7.1.5 Pure Vowels or Monophthongs:

A **monophthong** is derived from the ancient Greek word 'monóphthongos' which means 'one sound', i.e. 'mónos' is 'single', and 'phthóngos' is 'sound', ultimately it refers to a single sound. These pure vowels produce the speech sounds without having any friction or gliding. The position of the lips and the height of the tongue are also controlled to produce these vowels. This type of vowels are known as pure vowels or

monophthongs. This chart 2.7.1.5. describes the tongue position during the production of pure vowels both long and short vowels.

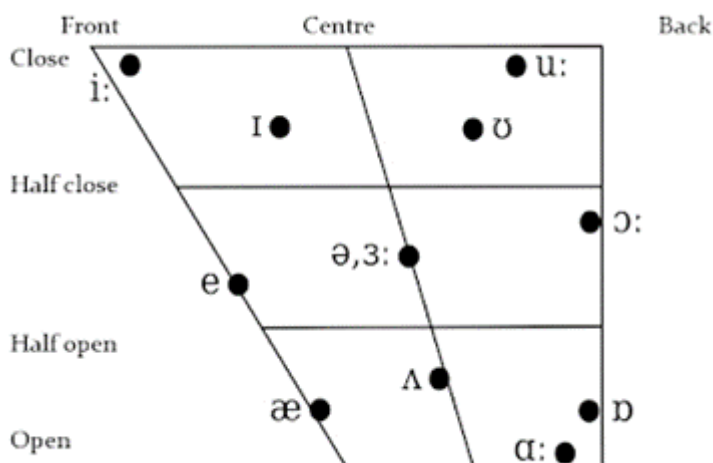


Figure - 2.7.1.5

#### 2.7.1.5.1 Descriptions of pure vowels with three term labels:

1. The position of the lips,
2. The part of the tongue that is raised and
3. The height to which it is raised.

##### 2.7.1.5.1.a. Short Vowel: Three term label

Sl. No.	Vowel symbol	Examples	Position of the lips	The part of the tongue	The height of the tongue
1	/ɪ/	sit / sɪt/,	unrounded	front	half-close
2	/ʊ/	put / pʊt/,	rounded	back	half-close
3	/e/	bed / bed /,	unrounded	front	half-close and half-open
4	/ə/	about / əbʌt/,	unrounded	central	half-close and half-open
5	/æ/	pat / pæt /	unrounded,	front	open
6	/ʌ/	sun / sʌn /	unrounded	central	half-open
7	/ɒ/	hot / hɒt /	rounded	back	open

### 2.7.1.5.1.b. Long Vowels: Three term table

Sl. No.	Vowel symbol	Examples	Position of the lips	The part of the tongue	The height of the tongue
1	/i:/	tree / tri:/	unrounded	front	close
2	/u:/	soon / su:n/	rounded	back	close
3	/ɜ:/	bird / bɜ:d/	unrounded	central	half-close and half-open
4	/ɔ:/	born / bɔ:n/	rounded	back	half-open
5	/a:/	pass / pa:s/	rounded	back	open

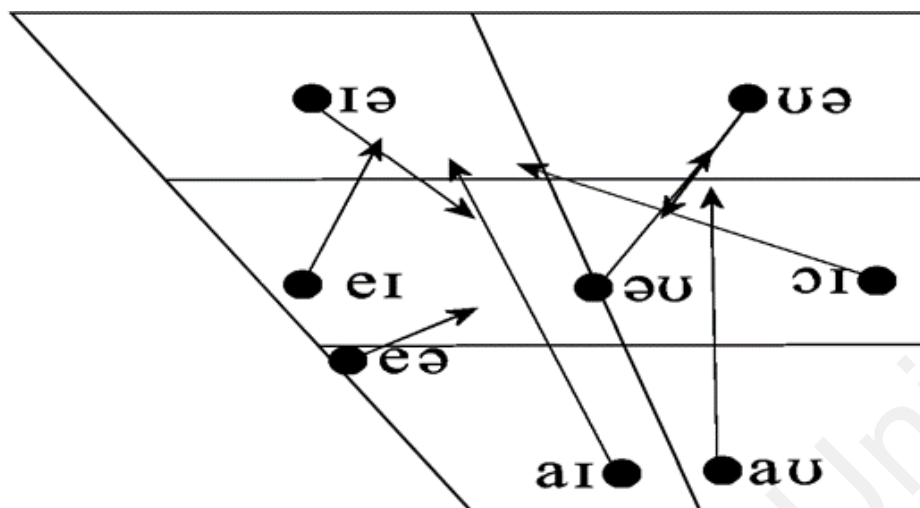
### 2.7.2. The 8 English diphthongs

A **diphthong** means 'two sounds', i.e. 'di' means two 'phthong' means 'sound'. At the time of articulation, the tongue starts with one vowel and ends with another vowel. This type of gliding one vowel to another vowel is called diphthong or gliding vowel. For example the word 'my' has phonetic transcription as /maɪ/ the two vowels /a/ and /ɪ/ grouped into one as /aɪ/. In fact, the alphabet 'y' produces the diphthong sound as /aɪ/ in phonetic vowel sound.

Diphthongs are not another version of monophthongs. In monophthongs, the vowel sound fixed at the initial stage itself and there is no more intrusion during the time of speech sound production. Whereas diphthong starts with one vowel or vowel sound and ends with another vowel or vowel sound. For example the pronoun "I" is pronounced as /aɪ/ as a diphthong instead of monophthong. In the word 'of' the phonetic transcription is /ɒv/ here the vowel is single as /ɒ/.

Diphthongs often form as the vowels are run together rapidly at the time of speech production. Though diphthong contains a single syllable, the sound is produced with two vowels. For example the third personal plural pronoun 'they' consist one vowel and one syllable but due to phonetic process it acquires the two vowel sound as /ðeɪ/. i.e. /eɪ/ Here the vowel 'e' is glided with the consonant 'y' and again produced another

vowel and the grouped vowel is /eɪ/ instead of 'e' as diphthongs. The stress of the syllable is always fixed on the first element of the diphthong. The tongue position during the production of diphthongs is illustrated in Figure 2.7.1.5.2



2.7.1.5.2

## Examples of Vowels and Diphthongs

### 1. Short Vowels

/ɪ/ – fit /fɪ:t/, pick /pɪ:k/, 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/.

### 2. Long vowels

/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:.fɪs/

/u:/ boot /bu:t/, group /gru:p/, beautiful /'bjʊ:.tɪ.fəl/

### 3. Diphthong vowels:

/eɪ/ place /pleɪs/, late /leɪt/, dangerous /'deɪn.dʒə.rəs/

/oʊ/ home /hooʊ/, phone /foʊn/, global /'gloʊ.bəl/  
 /aʊ/ mouse /maʊs/, brown /braʊn/, accountant /ə'kaʊn.tənt/  
 /ɪə/ clear /klɪə/, 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/

### 2.7.2. Consonants

To produce a speech sound the role of vowel is known that it assimilates the speech sound in another sense; it is the designer of speech sound, whereas consonant is the key factor to release the speech sound audibly. Speech sounds variations mainly occurred. Out of 26 letters in the English alphabet 21 letters fall under consonants and the remaining as vowels. Consonants play a significant role in the art of articulation by means of accuracy of the spelling as well as pronunciation at the time of writing as well as speaking.

The description and classification of consonants are based on the place in which it begins and the manner of releasing airflow cum words during the time of articulation. The way of releasing the consonants fall into two levels before its releasing as a word .Firstly, the place of articulation i.e. bilabial, dental etc. Secondly, the manner of articulation such as plosives, fricatives etc.

In consonants, the list of consonants further classified into two one is voiced and another one is voiceless. For example the consonant word 't' is differentiated with another consonant word 'd', though both are categorized as 'plosives' but 't' is termed voiceless. The word 'd' is termed 'voiced' because of the sound and vibration that can be felt at adam's apple.

#### 2.7.2. 1. Consonants: The place of articulation

The place of articulation refers to the articulators' position in the part of tongue, teeth, lips or glottis making contact in the vocal tract to produce the consonant sounds. Here is an outline to glimpse the process of consonant production and also the place of articulation connected:

1. The releasing air collects in the lungs;
2. Then the air moves toward the trachea, larynx and pharynx

3. The diaphragm and chest muscles control the airflow;
4. The vocal cords start a vibration cycle which builds up air pressure and generates acoustic waves;
5. The airflow has to be moved either through the oral or the nasal, depending upon the speech sound.
6. Finally, the modification of the sound occurs when the air is reaching the articulators -lips, tongue, teeth and palate.

The place of articulation has been identified as follows:

1. **Labial:** At the time of the speech sound both lips played a significant role as oral. Here if the sound released through the lips alone it is called bilabial, if the sound involves both lips and teeth is known as labio-dental.

**Bilabial** - If the stricture involves only lips and the sounds released audibly is called bilabial .

**Labio-dental** Here the lower lip and the upper teeth come in contact with each other. For example the consonants - /f/ and /v/ are the labio-dental sounds in English

2. **Dental:** In dental, the tip of the tongue touch the teeth during the production speech sound is called Dental For example in the word 'they' /ðeɪ/ the consonant /ð/ is pronounced through the tip of the the tongue against the teeth.
3. **Palatal:** This speech sound production exclusively released in between the font of the tongue the hard palate. For example the consonants in English semi vowel is /j/ as a palatal.
4. **Alveolar:** Here for alveolar the sounds are released with the tip or blade of the tongue against the teeth-ridge which is also called the alveolar ridge. In Alveolar, the sounds involve the alveolar ridge which is the passive articulator. The active articulator may be either the tongue blade or the tongue tip For example the consonants in English alveolar sounds include /t/, /d/, /n/, /s/, /z/, /l/.
5. **Post-alveolar:** In postalveolar the tip of the tongue and the back part of the alveolar ridge which is the part of the roof of the mouth that lies immediately behind the teeth ridge produced the sound. For example the consonant, the voiced /r/ is the sound for post-alveolar.
6. **Palato-alveolar:** These sounds are produced by raising the blade of tongue towards the part of the roof of the mouth that lies just

behind the alveolar ridge is called palato-alveolar. For example the consonants /ʒ/, /ʃ/, /dʒ/, and /tʃ/ are palato-alveolar..

7. **Velar:** The back of the tongue is the active articulator and the soft palate is the passive articulator. When we pronounce 'k' as 'kit' the consonant sound 'k' has been released through the back of the tongue with the association of the soft palate. For example the consonants /k/, /g/ and /ŋ/ are velar sounds in English.
8. **Glottal:** Here the glottis release the airflow freely with the association of the vocal cords. For example the consonant /h/ in 'hat' is released through these passages particularly less audible at the same releasing effortlessly little bit later.

### 2.7.2. 2. Consonants: The Manner of Articulation

In the manner of articulation, again consonants played a vital role to release the word as per spelling or its accurate pronunciation. The manner of releasing the airflow with speech sound is varied based on the place of articulation. For example the word 'bin' and 'pin' cannot be pronounced in the same manner. Even though they are plosives they will be produced as voiced or voiceless. Likewise, the other categories also identify the word based on the manner of articulation. The manner of articulation has been termed as follows:

**1. Plosives / Stop:** As far as plosives are concerned, the airflow is temporarily holded and abruptly or suddenly released. The period of holding is stop and the moment of explosion is called plosives. A plosive or stop consonant is the articulation of sound in which suddenly obstructed and then released with full form abruptly is called plosives. At the time of releasing the airflow there will be noise in the form of an explosion.

**2. Affricates:** An affricate is a single sound consisting of a stop and a release. Unlike plosive, the obstructed airflow takes time to move slowly through the available space in the articulators. The airstream mechanism is connectively release the air and produce the speech sound in such a way.

**3. Fricatives:** In the production of speech sound the airflow passes easily through the narrow space of articulators because the two articulators becoming very close. For example, the word sail the consonant sound 's' is released slowly almost with some whistling sound. Such type of sound production is called fricatives .



**4. Trill or Roll:** The consonant /r/ is produced with the tongue tip tapping against the teeth-ridge. Mostly /r/ is less stressed particularly English people. For example the words 'Father', 'matter' the ending 'r' is almost lost its sound. Whereas in the 'red' the tongue tapped the teeth ridge and also brings the sound by means rolling the tongue in such a way. In this way the speech sound for 'r' is called trill or toll. The tap[ing of the teeth is called as tap.

**5. Lateral:** The consonant moves through the airstream along one or both of the sides of the tongue, but it is blocked by the tongue from going through the middle of the mouth. An example of a lateral consonant is the English /l/, as in Larry.

**6. Nasals:** In nasal, the manner of articulation is blocked in the oral cavity and so the air to be released only through the nasal passage. The sound itself varies due to the stricture of complete oral closure and so create resonance there. When the word 'talking' is produced the 'ing' sound at the end is necessarily released through the nasal passage. This type is called as Nasal.

**7. Frictionless continuants (Approximants):** In frictionless continuants, both the articulators closed approximately not completely and so the airflow is moved towards the space available at the time approximate closure. Consonants produced in this manner are, therefore, called as frictionless continuants.

**8. Semi-Vowels (Approximants):** These vowels are glided at the time of speech production. Their sound is frequently changed based on its combination or composition of words. The /w/ and /y/ are called semi-vowels. In the first person singular pronoun 'my' the consonant 'y' is pronounced as 'aI' so this type of consonants are categorized in semi-vowels.

Thus, the frictionless continuants and semi-vowels are also known as approximants. The 24 consonants in English as per RP is explained below and the table also includes the place and manner of articulation, with suitable examples.

### 2.7.2.1,2: Table of 24 Consonant Sounds in English: Place and Manner of Articulations

Sl.No.	Consonant Sounds	Place of Articulation	Manner of Articulation	Examples
1	/p/	Bilabial	Plosive	<b>pet, top</b>
2	/b/	Bilabial	Plosive	<b>bat, tub</b>
3	/m/	Bilabial	Nasal	<b>mat, palm</b>
4	/w/	Bilabial	Approximant	<b>wind, always</b>
5	/f/	Labio-dental	Fricative	<b>front, leaf</b>
6	/v/	Labio-dental	Fricative	<b>vase, advise</b>
7	/θ/	Dental	Fricative	<b>think, teeth</b>
8	/ð/	Dental	Fricative	<b>this, with</b>
9	/t/	Alveolar	Fricative	<b>trunk, what</b>
10	/d/	Alveolar	Fricative	<b>dose, ward</b>
11	/s/	Alveolar	Fricative	<b>save, case</b>
12	/z/	Alveolar	Fricative	<b>zest, doze</b>
13	/n/	Alveolar	Nasal	<b>neat, win</b>
14	/l/	Alveolar	Lateral	<b>like, will</b>
15	/r/	Alveolar	Approximant	<b>rest, torch</b>
16	/ʃ/	Palato-alveolar	Fricative	<b>shoes, cushion</b>
17	/ʒ/	Palato-alveolar	Fricative	<b>beige, measure</b>
18	/tʃ/	Palato-alveolar	Affricate	<b>catch, patch</b>
19	/dʒ/	Palato-alveolar	Affricate	<b>badge, judge</b>
20	/j/	Palatal	Approximant	<b>yoke, yonder</b>
21	/k/	Velar	Plosive	<b>keep, poke</b>
22	/g/	Velar	Plosive	<b>game, bag</b>
23	/ŋ/	Velar	Plosive	<b>sing, wing</b>
24	/h/	Glottal	Fricative	<b>heap, cohort</b>

### 2.7.2.3. Three term label consonants:

The consonants are classified into the three term label as follows:

- place of articulation
- manner of articulation
- Voiced / voiceless

Sl.No.	Consonant Sounds	Place of Articulation	Manner of Articulation	voiced / voiceless	Examples
1	/p/	bilabial	plosive	voiceless	pat. pin
2	/b/	bilabial	plosive	voiced	bag, bull
3	/t/	alveolar	plosive	voiceless	tap, tip
4	/d/	alveolar	plosive	voiced	dog, day
5	/k/	velar	plosive	voiceless	king, kite
6	/g/	velar	plosive	voiced	girl, glass
7	/f/	labio-dental	fricative	voiceless	fan, fish
8	/v/	labio-dental	fricative	voiced	van, vase
9	/θ/	dental	fricative	voiceless	Think, three
10	/ð/	dental	fricative	voiced	this, then
11	/s/	alveolar	fricative	voiceless	sing, say
12	/z/	alveolar	fricative	voiced	zoo, zinc
13	/ʃ/	palato-alveolar	fricative	voiceless	ship, shape
14	/ʒ/	palato-alveolar	fricative	voiced	pleasure, measure
15	/h/	glottal	fricative	voiceless	hot, his
16	/tʃ/	palato-alveolar	affricate	voiceless	church, chair
17	/dʒ/	palato-alveolar	affricate	voiced	jam, judge
18	/m/	Bi-labial	nasal	voiced	man, ham
19	/n/	alveolar	nasal	voiced	pin, name
20	/ŋ/	velar	nasal	voiced	sing, king
21	/j/	palatal	semi-vowel	voiced	young, you
22	/w/	bi-labial	semi-vowel	voiced	wind, wail
23	/r/	post-alveolar	Frictionless continuant	voiced	right. record
24	/l/	alveolar	lateral	voiced	light, late

### Suggested Readings:

### Reference Book:

1. Dr.V.Shymala, A Text Book of English Phonetics and Structure for Indian Students.

**References**

1. Gimson, A.C., 2001. Gimson's Pronunciation of English. Sixth edition, revised by Alan Cruttenden. London: Arnold. ISBN 0340759720. An essential reference work
2. Wells, J.C. and Colson, G., 1971. Practical phonetics. London: Pitman.
3. Catford, J.C., second edition 2001. A practical introduction to phonetics. Oxford: Clarendon Press. ISBN: 0199246351.
4. John Clark and Colin Yallop. An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology. Oxford: Blackwell, 1995.

**Questions****Exercise: 1 Transcription: Transcribe the following words:**

- |                  |               |
|------------------|---------------|
| 1. peg .....     | 1. catch..... |
| 2. bag .....     | 2. large..... |
| 3. tin .....     | 3. thin.....  |
| 4. din .....     | 4. then.....  |
| 5. kit .....     | 5. larry..... |
| 6. gist.....     | 6. mail.....  |
| 7. fan.....      | 7. nail.....  |
| 8. van.....      | 8. sing.....  |
| 9. sail.....     | 9. hat.....   |
| 10. zeal.....    | 10. red.....  |
| 11. rush.....    | 11. yes.....  |
| 12. measure..... | 12. win.....  |

**Short and Essay Questions**

1. Name the term for the study of speech process.
2. Write a note on Articulatory phonetics
3. Write a note on Acoustic phonetics
4. Write a note on Auditory phonetics.
5. Name the three types of Air-stream mechanism
6. Give an account of Air-stream mechanism

7. Give an account of pulmonic air-stream mechanism
8. Give an account of the glottalic air-stream mechanism
9. Give an account of the velaric air-stream mechanism
10. Give an account of the organs of speech
11. What is phonetics, and are its main branches?
12. What is the utility of the IPA (International Phonetic Association) alphabet?
13. Describe the air-stream mechanism used in speaking English.
14. What role do the lungs play at the production of speech?
15. Where is the larynx? What is another name for it?
16. Where are the vocal cords? What do they consist of?
17. Draw the diagram of the vocal cords and name the parts.
18. Where and what is the glottis?
19. What are the active and passive articulators?
20. What kind of sounds can make when the vocal cords are wide open?
21. What controls the quality and resonance of a sound?
22. How do the pharynx and the mouth cavity change their shape?
23. How do you produce different vowel sounds?
24. How do you produce different consonant sounds?
25. How do we classify (a) vowels (b) consonants? Give examples from English.
26. Describe the state of the vocal cords for (a) a voiceless sound; (b) a voiced sound. Give examples from English.
27. What happens to the soft palate during normal breathing?
28. What happens when the soft palate is raised?
29. What English consonants are produced with the mouth completely closed and the nasal passage open?
30. What is voice? Explain the difference between a voiced and a voiceless sound?
31. What is glottal?
32. What is the position of the soft palate for (a) an oral sound; (b) a nasal sound? Give examples of each kind of sound from English.
33. What are (a) plosives; (b) fricatives?
34. What is the difference of sound between /p/ and /b/?
35. What is the difference of sound between /t/ and /d/?

36. What is the difference of sound between /k/ and /g/?
37. What is the difference of sound between /s/ and /z/?
38. What makes the difference of sound between /f/ and /v/?
39. Give three examples of bilabial sounds.
40. Give three examples of alveolar sounds.
41. Give three examples of fricative sounds
42. Give three examples of affricates sounds
43. Give three examples of lateral sounds
44. Give three examples of retroflex sounds of English
45. Describe the kind of stricture involved in the articulation of a plosive consonants
46. Describe the kind of stricture involved in the articulation of a lateral consonants
47. Describe the kind of stricture involved in the articulation of a vowel,
48. Describe the kind of stricture involved in the articulation of a semi vowel,
49. Describe the kind of stricture involved in the articulation of a nasal consonant
50. Describe the kind of stricture involved in the articulation of an affricate consonants
51. Describe the kind of stricture involved in the articulation of a a frictionless continuant.
52. Give three term label for monophthongs
53. Give three term label for diphthongs
54. Give three term label for plosives
55. Give three term label for affricate
56. Give three term label for fricatives
57. Give three term label for affricates
58. Give phonetic symbols for – a voiceless dental plosive
59. Give phonetic symbols for – a voiced dental plosive
60. Give phonetic symbols for – a voiced velar nasal
61. Give phonetic symbols for – a palato-alveolar fricative
62. What is meant by a front vowel?
63. What is meant by a back vowel?
64. What is meant by a central vowel?

**UNIT-III****Lesson 3.1 - Phonology****Structure**

- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2. Introduction
- 3.3 Definition of Phonology
- 3.4 The Phoneme
- 3.5. Allophones
- 3.6. Distribution (Phonotactics)
  - 3.6.1 Distribution of English RP consonants
  - 3.6.2. Distribution of Pure Vowels
  - 3.6.3. Distribution of Diphthongs
- 3.7. The Syllable
  - 3.7.1. Consonant Clusters in English
  - 3.7.2. Vocoids and Contoids
- 3.8. Suprasegmentals
  - 3.8.1: Word Stress
  - 3.8.2: Sentence Stress and Rhythm
    - 3.8.2.1. Rhythm
    - 3.8.2.2 Strong and Weak forms
  - 3.8.3. Sentence Stress and Rhythm Juncture or Transition
  - 3.8.4. Pitch and Intonation
- 3.9. Assimilation and Elision
- 3.10. Transcription
- 3.11. Suggested Readings & Questions

**3.1. Objectives**

- To identify speech sound and its phonemes in English (Phonology).
- To distinguish phonemes and allophones.
- To differentiate between consonants and vowel distributions.
- To know the types of syllables, stress in English.

- To know the types of connected speech processes like assimilation, elision, linking, etc.
- To learn the intonation and pitch patterns of English

### 3.2. Introduction

Each language has its own system of speech sound. Based on their own sounds, they produced the words accordingly. For example in English the suffix 'tion' is pronounced as 'shion' /ʃn/ not pronounced as 'tion'. In this way, the selection of sound for the word and the mode of alignment of the word in such a way for the convenience of pronunciation, spelling and meaning. The word 'attendance' is pronounced as /ə'tendəns/ i.e. at, ten, dance in such way you can acquire the spelling, its meaning more accurately. Such type of study comes under this category i.e. Phonology

### 3.3 Definition of Phonology

According to Robins, phonology is mainly deals with the speech sounds to give the best result of articulation audibly. Whereas John Lyons opinioned that phonology is the speech sound sound of combination of syntagmatic and paradigmatic in a particular language. Whatever the definitions available so far, the study of organized sound pattern is inevitably acknowledge definition for Phonology

### 3.4 The Phoneme

A word into its minimal part is known as phoneme. It is the smallest unit with sound is necessary for phoneme. It cannot be divided the unit as per the letters. It cannot be split like a morphological unit. Here sound is the prime thing to analyze phonemically. The word phoneme is derived from the Greek phōnēmat that means an utterance made by a human or animal. The word "phone" means sound. It is known that each language has its own phonemes. Most of the time, many languages have similar phonemic sounds but different writing forms due to the influence of their own alphabet. The word 'cat' is phonemically written as /kæt/. In phonemic alphabet there is no 'c' ; its sound is replaced by 'k' . So word and sound are not connected as far as phonemes are concerned. In pronunciation the word 'phone' is pronounced as 'fone' than 'phone'. The consonant p is replaced by the consonant 'f' phonemically. The written form of phonemic words are called graphemes.



The phonetic symbols regulated by the International Phonetic Alphabet. The phonemic symbols to be written in between two slashes

- for example the consonant 'k' in phonemic symbol is /k/,
- the word 'cat' in phonemic symbols is /kæt/

In transcription, the symbols to be used are only IPA symbols. Capital letters, punctuation marks are to be avoided. Again sentences are also to be slashed as per sentence. Pause between two sentences to be identified with two slashes.

- For example: He is a boy. He learns German

In transcription it should be written as follows:

- /hi: ɪz ə bɔɪ/ / hi: lɜ:nz 'dʒɜ:mən/

The phoneme is composed of vowels and consonants i.e. without a sound a phoneme cannot occur. For example, 'kic' is a phoneme whereas 'kic' is not a phoneme. Even though both words do not have any meaning, the word 'kic' is connected with pronunciation whereas 'kic' cannot be pronounced without the role vowel or semivowel or glide. So, Pitch, intonation, syllable are identified through their own markings. Many linguists felt that the phoneme is a set of simultaneous distinctive features rather than as an unanalyzable unit. The Table 3.4.1. Illustrates the phoneme in English.

Even though the English alphabet is restricted to 26 letters, there are 44 phonetic unique sounds through the IPA symbols in the English Language. The 44 English phonetic sounds fall into two categories: 24 consonants and 20 vowels. The table 3.4.(i) and 3.4.(ii) are the list of the 44 phonemes along with their International Phonetic Alphabet symbols with some examples.

## 24 Consonants graphemes

Table - 3.4.(i) :24 Consonants graphemes

Sl. No.	IPA Symbol	Examples
1	b	ball
2	d	doll
3	f	fat
4	g	gun
5	h	hop

6	dʒ	edge
7	k	cat
8	l	live
9	m	palm
10	n	funny
11	p	pin
12	r	run
13	s	sit
14	t	tin
15	v	vine
16	w	wit
17	z	buzz
18	ʒ	treasure
19	tʃ	chip
20	ʃ	pension
21	θ	thing
22	ð	they
23	ŋ	ring
24	j	you

### 20 Vowels

Sl.No	IPA Symbol	Example words in sound related
25	æ	cat
26	eɪ	mate
27	ɛ	said
28	i:	be
29	ɪ	gym
30	aɪ	sky
31	ɒ	honest
32	oʊ	bone
33	ʊ	look

34	ʌ	father
35	u:	blue
36	ɔɪ	boy
37	aʊ	shout
38	ə	pencil
39	eə <sup>r</sup>	chair,
40	ɑ:	arm
41	ɜ: <sup>r</sup>	burn
42	ɔ:	poor
43	ɪə <sup>r</sup>	ear
44	ʊə <sup>r</sup>	cure

### 3.4.1. Minimal pairs

Minimal pairs are often used to distinguish the two sounds in the words as tin / din. The difference in the sound 't' versus 'd' gives a difference in meaning. At the same time words like 'I', 'eye' are different in spelling and meaning but pronunciation is similar as /aɪ/, /aɪ/ respectively.

This type of similar pronunciation with dissimilar spelling is connotatively associated with the growth of vocabulary words like no, know etc. In certain cases, similar spelling pronounced differently for the sake of stressing the message differently. In grammar the word read is pronounced as /ri:d/ /rēd/ in order to differentiate present and past tense. The list of minimal pairs in the English language is mentioned below.

### Minimal pairs in the English language

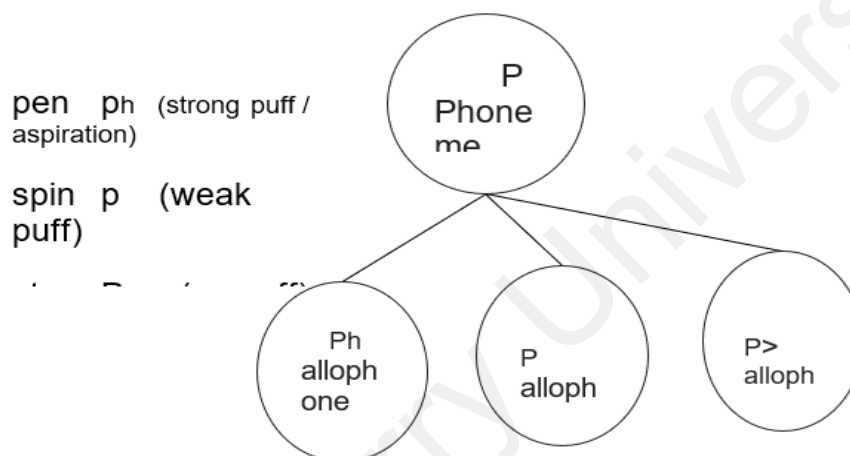
1. fit, sit
2. fan, pan
3. beat, bit
4. pet, met
5. pin, tin

### 3.5. Allophones

An allophone is a variant of phoneme. For example the sound 's' in 'spin', 'tissue', 'hiss' differs. This type of phonemic difference is called

allophones. Here the phonemic variant i.e. allophone of 's' as in the front consonant, middle consonant and arresting consonant. Each consonant release or arrest does not produce the same 's' sound uniformly; such a variant is possible depending upon the composition of vowels and consonants in languages.

The variation of the phoneme /p/ in allophone is illustrated in figure 3.5. a.



The allophones differ in speech sounds but the meaning of the word remains the same. All variations of a sound are allophones as far as that word's meaning remains the same. In the **Complementary** allophones the phonetic environment in which the phoneme exists. On the other hand, a **free variation cannot predict** the environment. This another example, that the English plosive /t/ phoneme is pronounced differently due to the environments: as an unaspirated [t] in stop [stap], as an aspirated [t<sup>h</sup>] in captain and as a tap sound [ɾ] before unstressed vowels as in 'bottle' and glottal stop [ʔ] in mountain which is shown in figure in 3.5.b.

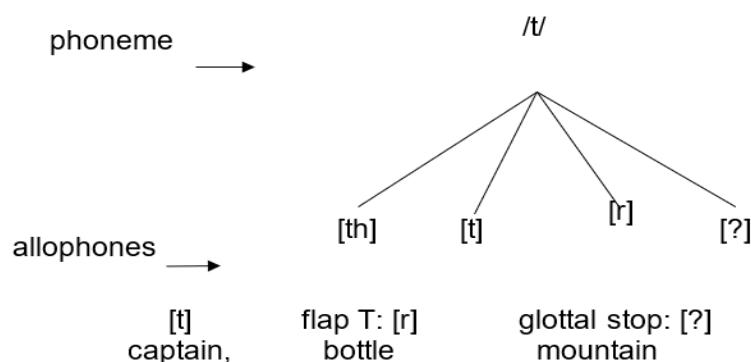


Figure: 3.5.b.

## Definition of Free Variation

There is a good deal of flexibility, both grammatically and geographically, regarding where free variation can be found. For example the word 'economics' can be pronounced as /,i:kə'nɒmiks/ and also /,ekə'nɒmiks/. Both are the same word 'Economics' It is accidentally produced by one more phonetic pronunciation. This kind of variation is called free variation. Too many minimal pairs are coming under this category. Regional influence, cultural problems and social problems are the main cause for using this type of variation.

### 3.6. Distribution (Phonotactics)

Phonotactics is the subdivision in phonological study. In phonotactics, it controls the combination of phonemes. Phonemes should not only have a minimum level of unit but also have some connectivity in the given word. For example the word

**'superintendent' can be splitted**

- as 'super', 'in', 'ten', 'dent'

**not to be split like this**

- 'sup', 'eri', 'nte', 'ndent'.

This type of work is under the control of phonotactics. Words to be divided the minimum level of phoneme and also the division must be meaningful. The possible combination of words is destined by phonotactics.

#### 3.6.1 Distribution of English RP consonants

Consonants normally occurred in the beginning, middle and also at the end. Certain consonants like /ŋ/ i.e. -ing never occurs in the beginning of the words and mostly at the end of the word like 'talking', 'walking', etc or in the middle of words like 'hinge', 'wings', etc.. Through the distribution of English RP consonants, the scope of combination of consonants are identified.

Regarding the consonant /r/ there are a number of restrictions for its use. The English people never produce the sound 'r' prominently like Indian English speaking people. Certain consonant sounds are environmentally controlled or liberated. The two consonants 'h' and 'r' are

notably different in pronunciation from one region to another. For example the word 'father' is to be pronounced as /'fɑ:ðə/ here the consonant r is missing but the vowel sound 'e' is prominent. This type of speech sound is almost possible in British English.

### Linking /r/

The consonant /r/ sound is purely associated with its combinations. In fact, it will not produce speech sound strongly like /b/ or /d/ etc. Again you see the above father which is ended with /r/ but the /r/ is silent at the time of speech production as /'fɑ:ðə/.

At the same time if /r/ is followed by another word beginning with vowel / vowel sound, the /r/ will gain its sound accordingly. For example:

- Fear angel → /fiər 'eɪndʒəl/
- Manager of → /'mænɪdʒər ɒv/
- tear eyes → /teər aɪz/
- Air India → /eər 'ɪndiə/

But if the /r/ is followed by another word beginning with consonant / consonant sound, the /r/ will lose its sound accordingly. For example:

- Fear grip → /fiə grɪp/
- Manager Tom → /'mænɪdʒə tɒm/
- tear gas → /teə gæs/
- Air fare → /eə feə/

### Intrusive /r/

Some words even without /r/ in spelling acquire the sound through pronunciation. Such types of words are categorized as intrusive /r/. This intrusive /r/ is optional because it depends purely upon the speaker's unintentional addition of the sound at the time of conversation. So it is very difficult to justify through phonetic transcription like linking /r/. For example:

- law **R**and order
- draw **R**and paint

The letter R is intrusive because it is not necessary to pronounce or to write. But such a gliding sound is common in all languages. As far as English is concerned we discussed the consonant /r/.

### 3.6.2. Distribution of Pure Vowels:

Though vowels play a key role to produce or pronounce the word, all the vowels are not uniformly occurring in a word as initial, medial or final. For example the vowel /æ/ can be used in a word as initial or medial sound not as in final. Likewise, each and every vowel is discussed here in table 3.6.2. as initial / medial / final with examples of both word and its phonetic transcription to identify the difference among the twelve pure vowels.

Table: 3.6.2. Distribution of Pure Vowels

Sl. No.	Vowel sound	Initial	medial	Final
1	æ	at: /æt/	can: /kæn/	-
2	ə	about: /ə'baʊt/	even: /'i:vən/	agenda: /ə'dʒɛndə/
3	ɛ	egg: /ɛg/	forget: /fə'gɛt/	-
4	ɪ	image : /'ɪmɪdʒ/	lift: /lɪft/	high: /haɪ/
5	ɒ	office: /'ɒfɪs/	job: /dʒɒb/	-
6	ʊ	urdu: /ʊədu:/	full: /fʊl/	slow: /sləʊ/
7	ʌ	uptown: /ʌp'taʊn/	butter: /'bʌtə/	-
8	i:	eve: /i:v/	bleed: /bli:d/	free: /fri:/
9	u:	ooze: /u:z/	blue: /blu:/	shoe: /ʃu:/
10	ɑ:	ask: /ɑ:sk/	father: /'fɑ:ðə/	bar: /bɑ:/
11	ɔ:	August: /'ɔ:gəst/	daughter: /'dɔ:tə/	draw: /drɔ:/
12	ɜ:'	early: /'ɜ:li/	burn: /bɜ:n/	occur: /ə'kɜ:/

### 3.6.3. Distribution of Diphthongs

But in diphthongs, almost all the diphthongs are uniformly occurring in a word as initial, medial or final except /eə/ . For example the diphthong /eə/ can be used in a word as medial or final sound not as in initial. Likewise, each and every diphthong is discussed here in table 3.6.3. as initial / medial / final with examples of both word and its phonetic transcription to identify the difference among the eight diphthongs.

Table: 3.6.3. Distribution of Diphthongs

Sl. No.	Vowel sound	Initial	medial	Final
13	eɪ	age: /eɪdʒ/	cake: /keɪk/	day: /deɪ/
14	aɪ	ice: /aɪs/	child: /tʃaɪld/	cry: /kraɪ/
15	ɔɪ	oil: /ɔɪl/	avoid: /ə'vɔɪd/	boy: bɔɪ
16	aʊ	out: /aʊt/	found: faʊnd	now: /naʊ/
17	eə	aerial: /eəɪəl/	invariable: / ɪn'veəriəbəl/	tear: teə
18	ɪə <sup>r</sup>	ear: /ɪə/	dial: /'daɪəl/	clear: /klɪə/
19	ʊə <sup>r</sup>	-	purely: / 'pjʊəli/	pure: /pjʊə/
20	oʊ	open: /'əʊpən/	phone: /fəʊn/	go: /gəʊ/

The restriction in distribution of pure vowels is comparatively greater than diphthongs. The single vowel form is the main reason for dissociation of certain sounds at the initial / medial / final. Whereas diphthongs are comfortably mixed with two vowels so naturally it associates with almost all positions to produce or pronounce the word accordingly.

### 3.7. The Syllable

A speech sound is produced with the association of vowels and consonants. As far syllables are concerned, the way of producing the sound recurrently depends upon the prominence of the word in particular. For example

- the athletic has three syllables as a- thle- tic. So
- the vowel 'a' is a syllable 'thle' and 'tic' are the remaining two syllables.
- the first syllable 'a' comes independently only a vowel
- the second syllable 'thle' consists both vowel and consonants
- the third syllable 'tic' also consists both vowel and consonants

The above example clearly stated that the syllable is naturally fallen at the time of speech production. Some people may produce the same word into two syllables as 'athle', 'tic'. But the sound 'a' even though less pronounced voluntarily split into two divisions. Misspelt or mispronunciation may not be taken into account regarding this syllable division.



## Open Syllable

In an open syllable, the syllable ends with a vowel. For examples:

- he
- they
- see
- two
- I
- tea
- key

## Closed Syllable

In a closed syllable, the syllable ends with a consonant. For example:.

- tic
- call
- mask
- gin
- weak
- kick
- van
- sit

## Monosyllabic Words:

**single vowel sound.** For example the word 'man' has two consonants as 'm' and 'n' and one vowel 'a'. The one vowel sound (the short "a") joins with the two consonants to create one syllable.

**Double vowels with single sound.** For example the word 'brain' has three consonants and two vowels. The two vowels 'a' and 'i' create one vowel sound (a long "a" sound). The single vowel sound joins with the three consonants to make one syllable.

## Disyllabic Words:

**two vowel sounds.** For example the word 'palmer' has two syllable as palm - er. And also has one vowel each syllable as 'a' in 'palm' and 'e' in 'er'. such type of two syllables are called disyllabic words

**Polysyllabic words:**

**Words with more than two syllable:** For example the word 'cultivation' has three syllables as cul-ti-va-tion. Each syllable associate with vowels as 'u', 'i' and 'a', 'i', 'o'. More than two syllable in a word is called polysyllable.

**Arresting and releasing consonants:**

- **Releasing consonant:** It means in a syllable the word begins with consonant / consonants. The word 'tree' begins with releasing consonants 't' and 'r'
- **Arresting consonant:** It means in a syllable the word ends with consonant / consonants. The word 'kick' ends with arresting consonants 'c' and 'k'
- **Nucleus:** The most prominent sound in a syllable is called nucleus for example the word. Maximum vowel / diphthongs acquire the role of nucleus in a syllable. The word 'cat' as /'kaet'/ - /ae/ is nucleus. In the word 'rain' as /reɪn/ - /eɪ/ is the nucleus.

**A consonant is symbolized by C and the Vowel as V.**

**The** word 'cat' has the syllable structure as CVC.

The releasing consonant, the vowel also the nucleus of the syllable and the arresting consonant are in the following table:

English word	c	a	t
Transcription	k	ae	t
Syllable structure	C	V	C
CVC	Releasing C	V (vowel)	arresting C

Example for nucleus alone in a syllable either only vowel or diphthongs.

I: /ai/

eye: /ai/

oh: /au/

ah: /a:/

Example for arresting consonant(s) in a syllable

am: /æm/ /a:m/

all: /:I/

up: /ʌp/

ass: /æs/

Example for releasing consonant(s) in a syllable .

be: /bi/ she: /Si:/

so: /su/ see: /si/

taper: /tei-p/ go: /gu/

Example for both releasing and arresting consonant(s) in a syllable.

boat: /b ut/ room: /rum/

come: /kʌm/ some: /sʌm/

gone:/gʌn/

### 3.7.1. Consonant Clusters in English

In a syllable, more than one consonant continuously (arresting / releasing) is called a consonant cluster. Consonant cluster to be identified through the phonetic transcription of the word

- up to three consonants can be a releasing / initial cluster of consonants.
- up to four consonants can be a arresting / final cluster of consonants

#### Initial clusters of two consonants: Examples

- blast → /blɑ:st/
- fried → /fraɪd/
- store → /stɔ:/
- cluster → /'klʌstə/
- class → /klɑ:s/

#### Initial clusters of three consonants: Examples

- strange → /streɪndʒ/
- sprit → /sprɪt/
- spray → /spreɪ/
- script → /skrɪpt/
- strong → /strɒŋ/

**Final clusters of two consonants: Examples**

- tact → /tækt/
- kept → /kɛpt/
- talked → /tɔ:kt/
- clasp → /kla:sp/
- pulp → /pʌlp/

**Final clusters of three consonants: Examples**

- pretext → /pri:tekst/
- tempt → /tempt/
- asks → /ɑ:sks/
- index → /'indeks/

**Final clusters of four consonants: Examples**

- prompts → /prɒmpts/
- contexts → /'kɒnteksts/

**3.7.2. Vocoids and Contoids**

- Vocoid means the vowel or vowel-like sound released without any obstruction through the oral cavity is called vocoids.
- Contoid means the consonant or consonant-like sound released with friction and obstruction through the oral cavity is called contoids.

For example, such sounds as [w, j, r]. They have no closure or contact of the tongue, their friction is very slight. In this respect they may be called semi-vowels. Yet, they are never syllabic. They are called contoids.

At the same time such consonants as [l, m, n, ] have a closure, but in them voice prevails over noise and they are syllabic, when preceded by a consonant. They are sometimes called semi-consonants, or contoids.

**3.8. Suprasegmentals (Prosodic Features)**

The phonemes as vowels and consonants are called as primary phonemes. They produce the speech sounds with the above discussed categories.. Consonants and vowels are not the only releasing the speech sounds though they are primary phonemes. In addition there are also

other features involved in the speech production. The other components of speech production such as stress, pitch, intonation etc also played a significant role in spoken form. A single structured sentence can be multiplied its meaning based on the stress or pitch variations. Such types of variation are called suprasegmental. These elements are called as secondary phonemes. They have separate markers to define the change through the written form. As far as primary phonemes i.e. consonants and vowels, its function is almost similar both in spoken and written. Whereas the secondary phonemes, required as specified marker in written otherwise it will not give its changed meanings. These suprasegmentals create a greater level of meaning change in phrases and clauses.

### 3.8.1: Word Stress

If a word consists of more than one syllable there is only one prominent syllable which is known as primary stress of the syllable and the remaining syllables are secondary stress syllables.

There are four levels of stress in a word or syllables.. Primary, secondary, Tertiary and weak stress. The first two stress are discussed as below:

**Primary stress:** It means the prominent sound has been produced at the time of pronouncing the syllable. It is marked as a short vertical bar on the top of the beginning of the syllable. [ ' / ]

**Secondary stress:** Other than primary stress is called secondary stress. This is less significant in producing the speech sound. It is marked as a short vertical bar below the beginning of the syllable. [ , / ]

The following two syllables with the stress on the first syllable:

(i) 'agent	(ii) 'awkward	(iii) 'certain	(iv) 'courage
(v) 'crayon	(vi) 'curious	(vii) 'drunkard	(viii) 'effort
(ix) 'exile	(x) 'interest	(xi) 'knowledge	(xii) 'moment
(xiii) 'output	(xiv) 'question	(xv) 'second	(xvi) 'subject
(xvii) 'therefore	(xviii) 'upward	(xix) 'workman	(xx) 'yellow

The following two syllables with the stress on the first syllable:

(i) ac'count	(ii) ad'dress	(iii) a'go	(iv) al'though
(v) ap'pear	(vi) be'fore	(vii) be'tween	(viii) ca'nal

(ix) col'lect	(x) di'rect	(xi) di'sease	(xii) ef'fect
(xiii) in'tend	(xiv) in'crease	(xv) ne'glect	(xvi) o'mit
(xvii) per'mit	(xviii) pro'tect	(xix) re'gret	(xx) re'turn
(xxi) su'perb	(xxii) sup'port	(xxiii) tech'nique	(xxiv) to'wards

In fact syllables and stress are fixed by the way of using the word either as noun or verb. See the table below how the word in noun changed its stress in verb and also how the verb changed its stress into noun.:

Word	Noun / adjective	Verb
absent	'absent	ab'sent
abstract	'abstract	ab'stract
accent	'accent	ac'cent
combine	'combine	com'bine
compress	'compress	com'press
concert	'concert	con'cert
conduct	'conduct	con'duct
contract	'contract	con'tract
contrast	'contrast	con'trast
convict	'convict	con'vict
desert	'desert	de'sert
digest	'digest	di'gest
export	'export	ex'port
frequent	'frequent	fre'quent
object	'object	ob'ject
perfect	'perfect	per'fect
permit	'permit	per'mit
present	'present	pre'sent
produce	'produce	pro'duce
progress	'progress	pro'gress
project	'project	pro'ject
protest	'protest	pro'test
rebel	'rebel	re'bel
record	'record	re'cord

There are also some words that have the same stress both as a noun or verb. For example words like:

- 'limit, 'visit, the stress on the first syllable
- re'mark the stress on the second syllable.

### Compound Words:

The composition of two separate words into one is called compound word. It may

either affixes based word like

- 're' + 'write' = rewrite
- or two different words as one like

- 'book' + 'case' = 'bookcase'

the primary accent falls usually in the first syllable of the compound word.

1. weak-prefixes have the primary accent on the root for example:

- pretended → /pɪ'tendɪd/
- remark → /ɪ'mɑ:k/

2. The inflectional suffixes -ed, s, -es and -ing do not affect the accent.

- remark / remarked → 'rɪ'mɑ:k / 'rɪ'mɑ:kt
- remark / remarks → 'rɪ'mɑ:k / 'rɪ'mɑ:ks
- remark / remarking → 'rɪ'mɑ:k / 'rɪ'mɑ:kɪŋ

3. The derivational affixes -age, -ance, -en, -ess, etc., do not affect the accent.

- carry / carriage → /'kæri / , /'kærɪdʒ
- work / worker → /'wɜ:k / , /'wɜ:kə/
- perform / performance → /pə'fɔ:m / , / pə'fɔ:məns/

(but 'prince as prin'cess except when used attributively)

4. Words ending in '-ion' suffixes, the primary stress is on the syllable connected with -ion for example:

- the word cultivation is stressed as → / kʌltɪ'veɪʃən /

5. Whereas words such as ending in -ic, -ical, -ically, -ial, ially, -ity, -ious and -ian , the primary accent is immediately preceding the suffix.

- economic → i:kə'nɒmɪk
- economical → i:kə'nɒmɪkəl
- economically → i:kə'nɒmɪkəli
- industrial → ɪn'dʌstriəl
- industrious → ɪn'dʌstriəs

### 3.8.2: Sentence Stress and Rhythm:

**Sentence stress** means the emphasis of certain words at the time of utterances. In written it is very difficult to mark or identify the stress in sentences. It is always happened to place stress on the stronger syllables of content words viz. verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, demonstratives, and question words rather than on function words viz. auxiliary verbs, preposition, conjunctions, articles, personal pronouns etc.. Sentence stress results in a particular rhythm the English language has, where not all syllables receive the same emphasis. Meaning of the sentence is differed based on the stressed words Look at the sentence below as an example: (here bold words stessed ):

**This** is the way to the kingdom of heaven. (emphasizes the demonstrative pronoun)

This **is** the way to the kingdom of heaven. (emphasizes the verb )

This is **the way** to the kingdom of heaven. (emphasizes the object)

This is the way to **the kingdom of heaven**. (emphasizes the phrase)

The above sentences convey the same meaning grammatically. But phonologically the meaning is changed based on the role of suprasegmentals i.e. the secondary phoneme plays the key role to change the meaning of the sentences.

#### 3.8.2.1. Rhythm:

The stressed syllables at a regular intervals creates the rhythm of a word or sentence. Again the importance of the prominence of the syllable is fixed by the speaker. In nursery rhymes, the syllables are stressed in such a way to attract the children though the onomatopoeic than its meaning. So rhythm in speech as well as in written is important to deliver the message emotionally. The word 'look' can be pronounced several ways to convey the speaker's meaning than the dictionary meaning of the word 'look'.



### 3.8.2.2 Strong and Weak forms

In languages, it is common that the words have two or more syllables at the time of speech production, So naturally there will be two types of stress occurring, one is 'strong' form and other syllable must be 'weak' forms. The strong form is based on the speaker's emphasis on the particular words intentionally or deliberately. There is no hard and fast rules regarding stress marks. Speakers' voice modulation and dependency are the main cause for creating such strong and weak forms.

Here the function class words listed out its strong and weak forms as follows:

#### Articles:

Articles	Strong form	Weak form
a	eɪ	ə
an	æn	ən
the	ði:	ði, ðə

#### Articles:

Pronouns	Strong form	Weak form
me	/mi:/	/mɪ/
we	/wi:/	/wɪ/
us	ʌs	əs, s
you	/ju:/	/jʊ/
he	/hi:/	/hɪ/
his	/hɪz/	/ɪz/
him	/hɪm/	/ɪm/
she	/ʃi:/	/ʃɪ/
her	/hɜ:/	/hə/
them	/ðem/	/ðm/

#### Articles:

Auxiliary verbs	Strong form	Weak form
am	/æm/	/əm/
are	/ɑ:/	/ə/

is	/ɪz/	/z/, /s/
was	/wɒz/	/wəz/
were	wɜː	/wə/
has	/hæz/	/həz/
have	/hæv/ hæd	/həv/
have	/hæd/	/həd/
do	/duː/	/də/
does	/dʌz/	/dəz/
can	/kæn/	/kən/
could	/kʊd/	/kəd/
shall	/ʃæl/	/ʃəl/
should	/ʃʊd/	/ʃəd/
will	/wɪl/	/l/
would	/wʊd/	/wəd/
must	/mʌst/	/məst/

### Prepositions

Prepositions	Strong form	Weak form
at	/æt/	/ət/
for	/fɔː/	/fə/
from	/frɒm/	/frəm/
of	/ɒv/	/əv/
to	/tuː/	/tə/

### Conjunctions

Conjunctions	Strong form	Weak form
and	/ænd/	/ənd/
as	/æz/	/əz/
but	/bʌt/	/bət/
than	/ðæn/	/ðən/

**Relative pronouns**

Relative pronouns	Strong form	Weak form
who	/hu:/	/hu/
that	/ðæt/	/ðət/

**3.8.3. Juncture or Transition:**

The term juncture means the pause between two words happened during the time of speech production. The closeness of the speech sound of the pair mentioned below may be varied from speaker to speaker. So by means of repeating the words phonetically it can be felt through the utterance. Again this type of pairing or grouping will not provide any differences in written form. The following set of words describes the differences between the two words juncture.

Underhill (2005, 68) provides the following examples:

grey tapes /'gɪeɪ + teɪps/	great apes /'gɪeɪt + eɪps/
ice train /'aɪs + tɹeɪn/	I strain /'aɪ + stɹeɪn/
grade 'A' /'gɪeɪd + eɪ/	grey day /'gɪeɪ + deɪ/
send the maid /'send + ðə + meɪd/	send them aid /'send + ðəm + eɪd/
already /ɔl'ɪeɪdi/	all ready /'ɔl + ɪeɪdi/
altogether /,ɔltə'gɛðə/	all together /,ɔl + tə'gɛðə/
always /'ɔlweɪz/	all ways /'ɔl + weɪz/

**3.8.4. Pitch and Intonation**

**Pitch** is varied from person to person. The meaning of the word cannot be identified without the proper pitch movement. In speech sound the pitch is decided by the frequency with which the vocal cords vibrate. The pitch level is based on the size of the vocal cords. As per research analysis, the pitch of a man's voice is generally lower than that of a woman or a child. There are four levels of pitch.

1. The lowest pitch is marked as [1]
2. The normal level pitch is marked as [2]
3. The voice normally rise is marked as [3]
4. The highest pitch is marked as [4]

**Intonation:** The rise and fall of voice is termed as intonation. The rise and fall of voice is decided by the stress in the syllable and also frequency through the pitch variations. Intonation main functions are:

1. To identify the sentences as statement / question / command / exclamation,
2. To identify the speaker's emotive reaction through this
3. To draw the listeners attention with proper intonation.

In statement sentences the pitch will move from low to high and also the last word will also end with from high level to lower level. For Example: the sentence:.

- Sita who passed the ↗test, / joined the↗ Institute/.

Here 'test' is moving from low to high at the same time the last word 'institute' moves from high to low level intonation.

- ↗Pen, ↗pencil, ↗paper, ↗ink ...

Here the words are uttered individually so the pitch movement is from low to high.

The word yes can be uttered with the pitch of your voice falling, the pitch movement being represented as: ↘Yes

- The falling intonation is identified as ↘three
- The rising intonation marked as :↗One
- The fall and rise intonation is marked as vyes
- The rise and fall intonation is marked as ↗yes

When we pronounce a sentence, there will be a pause. This type of pause is termed tone group. Intonation is further classified as tonality, tonicity and tonic

### 1. **Tonality**

The division of speech sound into a tone group is called tonality. The pauses of the sentences naturally fall on the clauses or punctuation marks in the sentence. For example:

- When I reached the station, the train had left already

This sentence has two clauses and a pause in between the two clauses as termed as tonality.

## 2. Tonicity

The tone group is further analyzed the importance of the particular word in the tone group i.e. stressed strongly on a particular word is called tonicity. For example the sentence

- Ram is smart boy
- If the stress on Ram - Ram is the tonicity of the sentence
- If the stress on smart - smart is the tonicity of the sentence

## 3. Tonic

This is the stage of the above two levels. Once a sentence is identified into tone groups i.e. tonality then a word in the tone group is identified as tonicity now the tonicity is further analyzed the process of which tone to be used i.e. rise, fall, fall-rise is called Tonic. It is known the pitch or rhythm is highly depended on speakers modulation of voice.

- Falling tone: The pitch moves from high to low
- Rising Tone The pitch moves from low to high.
- Falling-rising' tone The pitch moves from high to low and again from the low to high.
- Rising-falling tone The pitch moves from from the low to high and again high to low.

During the production speech sound, it is known that the utterances of the word or sentences are varied from one speaker to another speaker. The above discussed units are suggestive to improve the standard of language communication.

### 3.9.1. Assimilation

**Assimilation** is a sound that can either be influenced by the sound that comes **before** it or **after** it. The way in which sounds are influence one with another is called assimilation

The sound is influenced by another sound at the time of the combination of two phonemes. If the influence of the sound is from the preceding word, it is called progressive assimilation. For example the word 'bag' by addition plural 's' it gains 'bags' but phonetically it gains as /bægz/. Here instead of 's' the word 'z' is added under the influence preceding constant 'g'.

If the influence of the sound is from the succeeding word, it is called regressive assimilation. For example the word 'news + print' by addition the consonant 's' from 'news' moves towards 'p' in print and phonetically it gains as new sprint /nju:s print/ instead of newsprint /nju:z print/. Here instead of 'z' the consonant 's' is added under the influence succeeding constant 'p'

### 3.9.2. Elision

Unlike assimilation, elision lost its consonants / vowel due to the unstressed syllables at the time of producing the speech sound hastily. Moreover, this kind of elision is so common in almost all the languages. American English versus British English is the best sample of how the word lost its sound as a consonant or vowel. Words like colour in British English are almost found as 'color' because of the computerized American English spellings. This type of dropped word is termed as Elision. Table 3.9 illustrates elision of English word,

**Table: 3.9.2 Elision**

Word	Phonetic Transcription	Elision after	dropping
history	/'hɪstəri/	/'ɪstəri/	/h/
he is a teacher	/hi: ɪz ə 'ti:tʃə/	/hi: ɪz ə 'ti:tʃ/	/ə/
he knows Hindi	hi: nəʊz 'hɪndi	/hi: nəʊz 'ɪndi/	/h/
His father is a doctor	hɪz 'fɑ:ðər ɪz ə 'dɒktə	/hɪz 'fɑ:ðər ɪz 'dɒktə/	/ə/
he is a smart boy	/hi: ɪz ə smɑ:t bɔɪ/	/hi: ɪz smɑ:t bɔɪ/	/ə/

It is not necessary to spell the word as per mentioned in the table above. These illustrations are hypothetically discussed because most of the time we use to spell the word more conveniently than phonetically. As per pronunciation the word

- pneumonia is transcribed as /nju:'məʊniə/

The consonant 'p' is missing, consonants 'n', 'j' are added and the vowel 'e' is also missing in the phonetic transcription. Such kind of assimilation and elision is inevitable due to foreign language influences into regional languages. General Indian English aims to reduce the space between GIE and RP.

### 3.10. Transcription

Daniel Jones' dictionary of English Phonetics recognised the RP English strongly for words in IPA symbols. So gaining pronunciation is solved through the dictionary. Today computers do wonders in the field of phonetic transcription also. Too much software and websites helped to convert the word into phonetic transcriptions. Not only words but also sentences into this process.

The purpose of the transcription is to regularize the spelling and pronunciation issues related to the English language. Through this transcription the 44 phonetic sound is familiarized. In addition, the weak form, the strong form, the syllable and the stress are also gained through this transcription. Here the phonetic transcription for select word is given through the table:

Table: 3.10. Phonetic Transcription Table

Sl. no	Words	Phonetic transcriptions
1	far	fə:
2	meat	mi:t
3	pole	pəʊl
4	want	wɒnt
5	find	fænd
6	rough	rʌf
7	chirp	tʃɜp
8	sound	səʊnd
9	bash	bæʃ
10	sheep	ʃi:p

### 3. 11 Suggested Readings & Questions

#### Text Book:

1. Dr.V.Shymala, A Text Book of English Phonetics and Structure for Indian Students. Trivandrum, Sharath Ganga Publications

#### References

1. J. C. Catford. Practical Introduction to Phonetics. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1988.

2. N. Chomsky and M. Halle. The Sound Pattern of English. New York: Harper and Row, 1968.
3. John Clark and Colin Yallop. An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology. Oxford: Blackwell, 1995.

### Questions

1. Define phonology.
2. Differentiate phonology and phonetics,
3. What is a phoneme?
4. Differentiate phone from phoneme.
5. Give an account on phoneme.
6. Give an account on allophone.
7. Differentiate between allophone and phoneme.
8. Illustrate minimal pairs.
9. Write a note on the phonotactics of a language.
10. What is a syllable?
11. What do you mean by the term monosyllabic words?
12. How do you mark syllable -division?
13. What is orthographic representation of syllable-division?
14. Which form is better to mark syllable-division?
15. Is there any rule for syllable-division?
16. What are the two classes in syllables?
17. What is called the nucleus of a syllable?
18. What do you mean by the term arresting consonant?
19. What do you mean by the term releasing consonants?
20. Give examples of syllables that have only the nucleus.
21. Write down the symbols of nucleus and marginal elements.
22. What do you mean by the term marginal elements?
23. How many consonants in English allow the beginning of a syllable?
24. How many consonants in English allow the end a syllable?
25. What do you mean by the term consonant clusters?
26. What do you mean by the term abutting consonants?
27. What do you mean by the term closed syllable?
28. What do you mean by the term open syllable?



29. How do you use the term syllabic consonants?
30. Give two examples of a final consonant cluster with two consonants.
31. Mark syllable –division of “mispronounce” and “relationship”.
32. What is RP?
33. What is the use of General English’s prescriptive model?
34. How do the vocal cords produce ‘voice’?
35. What do you mean by the term ‘the frequency of vibration’?
36. How does the intonation of a language constitute?
37. What do you mean by the term ‘high fall’ in intonation?
38. What do you mean by the term ‘low fall’ in intonation?
39. What do you mean by the term ‘high rise’ in intonation?
40. What do you mean by the term ‘fall-rise’ in intonation?
41. What do you mean by the term ‘rise fall’ in intonation?
42. How do you mark high and low level pitch in intonation?
43. What is a static tone?
44. What is a kinetic tone?
45. What do you mean by the term ‘breath-groups’?
46. What do you mean by the term ‘sense-groups’?
47. What do you mean by the term ‘tone-groups’?
48. What do you mean by the term ‘nucleus syllable’?
49. What do you mean by the term ‘tonic-syllable’?
50. What does intonation serve in English?
51. Write a paragraph on syllable-division.
52. Bring out the composition of the Syllable.
53. Illustrate arresting consonants with examples.
54. Illustrate releasing consonants with examples.
55. Describe syllabic consonants from English
56. Discuss the syllable structure of CVC in English with suitable examples.
57. Comment on abutting consonants.
58. The phonological system of their mother tongue will have an influence of their
  - a. English. How?
59. Describe Indian English.

60. Illustrate the system of General Indian English with examples.
61. Draw the diagram of the tongue-positions of the pure vowels of RP. and explain.
62. Write a paragraph on the frequency of vibration in intonation.
63. List out the accented syllable changing its pitch and mark with its signs.
64. Write a paragraph on the division of an utterance into group in intonation.
65. Describe tone groups in intonation.
66. Write a paragraph on the choice of a tone in intonation.
67. Describe Low fall tone.
68. Describe Low rise tone.

Word	Noun / adjective	Verb
import		
permit		
present		
decide		
conduct		

69. Transcribe phonetically and mark the accent in the following English words:

Sl. No	Words	Phonetic transcriptions
1	summer	
2	political	
3	conduct (N)	
4	academy	
5	hairbrush	
6	afternoon	
7	linguistics	
8	photographer	
9	import	
10	accent	

**UNIT - IV****Lesson 4.1 - Morphology****Structure**

- 4.1. Objectives
- 4.2. Introduction
- 4.3 Definition of Morphology
- 4.4 The Morphemes
  - 4.4.1. Morphemes and Phonemes
  - 4.4.2. Morphemes and Syllables
- 4.5. Allomorphs
- 4.6. Conditioning
- 4.7. Classification of Morphemes
  - 4.7.1. Lexical and Grammatical
  - 4.7.2. Free and Bound Morpheme
  - 4.7.3. Roots and Affixes:
    - 4.7.3.i.. Stem
    - 4.7.3.ii. Stem Formatives
    - 4.7.3.iii. Classification of Affixes: Prefix, Infix, suffix.
    - 4.7.3.iv. Derivational and Inflectional Affixes.
- 4.8. Simple, Complex and Compound Words
- 4.9. Word formation: Homophones and Homonyms
- 4.10. Outline of English Morphology:
  - 4.10.1. Parts of Speech
  - 4.10.2. Form, Function and Meaning
  - 4.10.3. Word Classes, Form Classes, Function Classes
  - 4.10.4 Inflectional Suffixes in English
  - 4.10.5. Derivational Affixes in English
- 4.11. Suggested Readings & Questions

#### 4.1 Objectives

- To identify the word structure by means of morpheme. The role of morpheme and phoneme in a word.
- To enable the students to understand the significance of Morphological decoding, and polysyllabic word reading; relation with reading comprehension.
- To help the students to acquire various form, functions and meanings of Words
- To improve the skill to understand the word formation and derivation.

#### 4.2 Introduction

Morphology is the study of the structure of words grammatically. Through morphology, the study of sentences can be done as Syntax. The combination of morpheme to form a word is also known as morphology. It not only helps to identify the word origin but also helps to know the method of word formation. Morphological analysis aims to describe the elements of grammar and its form and function to gain meaning of the word.

#### 4.3 Definition of Morphology

Morphology forms a main part of the linguistic field. The term morphology is derived from Greek 'morph' meaning 'shape, form', and -ology which means 'the study of something'. Each and every word in languages vary widely in the degree of morphemes. The processes of word formations are interestingly analyzed through this category. According to Bloomfield, the study of the constructions of words in which a kind of bound forms appear for the constituents of a sentence. There is also another definition from Dorfman who defines that the method of grouping sounds as a word or words in such a way to convey the conventional meaning.

#### 4.4 The Morphemes

A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a word with meaning. For example, the word 'top' is a morpheme. This word cannot be divided further, if it is so it will lose its meaning. At the same time the word 'rewrite' can be divided into two as 're' and 'write'. Here 'write'

gains its meaning whereas 're-' also gains its role as an affixes for any number of words such as 'remark', 'reset', 'regain' etc. But 'write' cannot be divided into 'wr' and 'ite' further and ultimately it will lose its meaning. Thus, morpheme may be described as a meaningful phoneme or series of phonemes which is not further divisible without destruction or alteration of meaning in a given language.

Some morphologists describe morphemes as the 'smallest recurrent elements of grammatical patterning' and ignore meaning. Thus the word 'receive' may be broken down into smaller units, 're-' and '-ceive', since -ceive is grammatically significant and recurs in words like conceive and perceive. Other words of this type are transport, report, export etc. However, this point of view is not accepted by many linguists since it totally excludes meaning.

Similarly identify the following sentences through a number of morphemes.

- Thousands of tourists visit the Grand Canyon every year.  
Thousand + s + of + tourist + s + visit + the + Grand Canyon + every + year = 10 morphemes
- The homeowners remodeled the house to help it sell.  
The + home + owner + s + remodel + ed + the + house + to + help + it + sell = 12 morphemes
- The saltwater corroded the metal beams.  
The + salt + water + corrode + ed + the + metal + beam + s = 9 morphemes
- Kangaroos carry their joeys in their pouches  
Kangaroo + s + carry + their + joey + s + in + their + pouch + es = 10 morphemes

#### 4.4.1. Morphemes and Phonemes

Morphophonemics in linguistics is the study of the relationship between morphemes and phonemes. When a morpheme is combined with another morpheme there is a change through the phonetic environments. Such process is called Morphophonemics. For an example, take the plural suffix. "-s" or "-es" as in bags, glasses, and boys, respectively. The plural suffix "-s" changes the phonetic sound directly by means of this addition. The word bag is ended with a plosive sound 'g' prominently. But the suffix 's' in addition to the word bag as 'bags' the word lost its prominence at the

end of the word 's' in fricatively. So morphophonemics is governing the word order by means of its morpheme and also its phoneme.

The following table 4.4.1. describes the differences between morpheme and phoneme:

**Table: 4.4.1.**

<b>Morpheme</b>	<b>Phoneme</b>
the smallest meaningful unit is morpheme	the smallest sound system of a word is phoneme
at least single word	Single word is consists of several phonemes
meaning and structure of word or sentence in a language	sounds and pronunciation of word in a language
For Example: "Submarine" is a word made up of two morphemes: 'sub' and 'marine'.	However, in the same word there are eight phonemes: /'sʌbməri:n/ (e is silent). as /'s/, /ʌ/, /b/, /m/, /ə/, /r/, /i:/, /n/

#### 4.4.2. Morphemes and Syllables

Morpheme is a meaningful morphological unit of a language which cannot be further divided. Whereas, a syllable is a sound of vowels and consonants or a sound of vowel(s) alone. Syllable is mainly connected with the audible break of a word. A morpheme may consist of one or more syllables and also syllables may consist of one or more morphemes.

**Table: 4.4.2. : Morpheme and Syllables**

<b>Morpheme</b>	<b>Syllable</b>
the smallest meaningful unit is morpheme	syllable is a single unit of speech. It can be either a whole word or a part of a word
relates meaning and structure of words	depends upon pronunciation of words
divided into two types: free and bound morpheme	divided into two parts: Onset and rhythm
a morpheme can sometimes act as a word	a single syllable also have a word formation. ex. 'I,"eye,"tree'
a morpheme consists of one or more syllables. Ex. eye, eyes,	a syllable may consist of one or more morphemes

Ex: cat, hat, sky, me, he at the same time 'hotel' is single morpheme	Ex: cat, hat, sky, me, he but two syllable as "ho-" "tel"
Eats: /eat/ and /-s/ - two morpheme	but single syllable /i:ts/
dehumanization: de/human/iz/ ation: 4 morpheme	but six syllables: /di:/, /hju:/, /mə/naɪ'/ zeɪ/ʃn/

#### 4.5. Allomorphs

An allomorph is a variant of a morpheme. A morpheme has been defined as the unit of meaning in a language. For example the 'write' is a morpheme, but 'writing' contains two units of meaning: 'write' its own meaning and '-ing' conveys the progressive of action in the tense of the verb 'write'.

The variations of singular versus plural forms are allomorph. has been seen in the **plural forms** of English nouns. s The list of plural and singular forms of the words are shown in the following table This table has realized the morphemes -s or -es in spelling has three different phonetic realizations, /s/, /z/ and /ɪz/ or /əz/ such variations are allomorphs:

Table 4.5.a.i

Word	Plural form	Phonological form
pet	pets	/pets/
leg	legs	/'legz/
glass	glasses	/'glæsəz/ or /'glæsɪz/

In the above table the word 'pet' is added with the plural form 's' and phonetically realized as /pets/. Here the 's' is audibly not have any congestion. Whereas the word 'leg' is added with the plural of 's' and phonetically realized as /legz/. Here the 's' is sounded as 'z' instead of 's'. Similarly the word glass is added with 'es' but the sound 'es' is produced as /əz/. So all these variants are called allomorphs of the morpheme.

But the table 'Table 4.5.a.ii':. describes the lexical conditioned allomorphs. The word 'child' is not associated with the plural form 's' but realized with suffix '-ren' the variant of the morpheme 'child' is lexically conditioned as 'children' Here the allomorph is decided by the root word 'child'. Similarly the other two words 'ox' and 'medium' are realized with different variant words 'en', 'a'.

**Table 4.5.a.ii**

Word	Plural form	Phonological form
child	children	/'tʃɪldrən/
ox	oxen	/'ɒksən/
medium	mediums / media	/'mɪdiəmz/ /'mɪdiə/

Here the singular-plural pairs in the following table 'Table 4.5.a.iii':. internal change morphologically and phonologically.

**Table 4.5.a.iii.**

Word	Plural form	Phonological form
mouse	mice	maʊs maɪs
goose	geese	gʊs gis
woman	women	'wʊmən - (same for both)

Here the singular-plural pairs in the following table 'Table 4.5.b.iii':. no change [(-Ø)]morphologically and phonologically

**Table 4.5.a.iv.**

Word	Plural form	Phonological form
sheep	sheep	/ʃi:p/
deer	deer	/di:r/
furniture	furniture	/'fɜ:nɪʃər/

In the above table 4.5.a.iv. the words sheep, deer, furniture are not realized; the plural form 's' in its form i.e. both singular and plural form is realized with neutral position; such type is called zero allomorph. We use the symbol Ø to indicate the morpheme has no change in plural form.

The past tense forms of morphemes mostly in 'd' or 'ed'. But the sound 'd' and 'ed' after realizing the word into past tense varied phonetically as /ɪd/, /t/ or /d/. the following table 'Table 4.5.b.i.' describes the past tense of the morphemes and also the past tense variant of allomorphs.

**Table 4.5.b.i**

Present Tense	Past Tense	Phonological form
wait	waited	/'weɪɪd/
beg	begged	/'beɡɪd/
kick	kicked	/'kɪkt/



The words 'wait' 'beg' and 'kick' are added with 'ed' uniformly. But phonetically the sound is realized differently. The word 'beg' is added with 'ed' but it additionally acquired one more 'g' and the sound is also realized as 'd' prominently than 'ed'.

Now look at the following table 'Table 4.5.a.ii':. Here the irregular forms of verbs gained different variants based on their root words. Such types of words are lexically conditioned allomorphs.

**Table 4.5.b.ii.**

Present Tense	Past tense	Phonological form
write	wrote	/raɪt/ /root/
give	gave	/gɪv/ /geɪv/
take	took	/teɪk/ /tɒk/

Here the past tense in the following table 'Table 4.5.b.iii':. no change [(-Ø)]morphologically and phonologically

**Table 4.5.b.iii.**

Present Tense	Past tense	Phonological form
sit	sit	/sɪt/
put	put	/pʊt/
shut	shut	/ʃʌt/

The above table describing verbs sit, put, shut with 'ed' realization but the word i.e. the morpheme has no change in its form both phonetically and morphologically is called zero allomorph. We use the symbol Ø i.e. the zero allomorph indicates that the morpheme has no change in present tense to past tense.

The allomorph also occurs non-contrastively, or in complementary distribution, like the allophones. Where, one occurs another cannot. Thus, where /-ɪd/ occurs /-t/ or /d/ cannot. In the speech of non-native speakers they are often interchanged, but since the allomorphs have the same meaning this will not affect intelligibility. Thus, as in the case of allophones, allomorphs too may vary freely. This is known as free alternation, i.e., different allomorphs occurring in the same contexts.

## 4.6. Conditioning

A word is said to be conditioned due to various reasons. A word in general is composition of vowel and consonants for example 'eye', certain words vowel alone for example "I", certain words in consonant structure but with vowel sound for example 'my'. All these words are conditioned to produce the sound. Such types of words are known as conditioning. If the word is conditioned by phonemes i.e. sound is called phonological conditioning. If the word is conditioned by morpheme i.e. word association is called morphologically conditioning.

### 1. Phonological Conditioning

In fact, the variant of morpheme i.e. allomorphs are always phonologically conditioned. Words like pet, bag, glass are phonologically conditioned as pets, bags, glasses with the phonological sound /-s, -z, -iz/. Here the plural form 's' does not sound the same with these words. This type of variation is called phonologically conditioned. The past tense markers are also phonologically conditioned refer the above Table No. 4.5.b.i the words, kick, beg, wait -its past tense are marked as /-t, -d, -id/. Though 'ed' is added commonly in these words, the sound is not realized equally and the variants are /-t, -d, -id/ due to phonological conditioning.

### 2. Morphological Conditioning

The variant of morpheme i.e. allomorphs are also morphologically conditioned. Words like 'child', 'ox', 'medium' are morphologically conditioned as 'children', 'oxen', 'media'. Here the plural form 's' does not bring sound and word with these words. This type of change of words from one spelling to another spelling variants is called morphologically conditioned. The past tense markers are also similarly like this. For example 'write' is 'wrote' not 'writed' likewise the other words give as 'gave', 'take' as 'took' etc.

## 4.7. Classification of Morphemes

Morpheme is broadly divided into two as free morpheme and bound morpheme. The free morpheme is further categorized as lexical morpheme and grammatical morpheme. Likewise the bound morpheme is also divided further into two as roots and affixes. The following tree diagram describes the branches of morpheme. in 4.7.

## 4.7. Classification of Morphemes

### 4.7.1. Free and Bound Morpheme:

#### Free Morphemes:

Free morpheme functions independently as a content word and conveys the meaning accordingly. Free morphemes are broadly categorized into two as Lexical morpheme and grammatical morpheme. Free morphemes are: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, preposition, conjunction, articles, interjection

#### Bound Morphemes:

Bound morphemes do not function independently. The functional words carry the meaning depending upon the root words. Bound morphemes are broadly categorized into two as roots and affixes. Bound morphemes are: all kinds of affixes - prefix, suffix, the plural forms 's' category, the past tense form 'ed', progressive form -ing, past participle 'en' or 'ed'. These are playing the role of dependent linking affixes. For example, all the words ending with 'ing' are not progressive. Sentences:

1. Writing is a good exercise.
2. He is writing a letter.

In both cases the role -ing is according to the place in sentence 1 as gerund as noun and in sentence 2 as present participle as verb.

### 4.7.2. Lexical and Grammatical:

The lexical morphemes convey the message or meaning independently without having any addition or suppletion of the word. They are also known as content words. The lexical morphemes are listed below: .

- Nouns : Ram, cat, tree, red, etc.
- verbs : write, take, etc.
- adjectives : good, beautiful etc.
- adverbs : fastly, shortly etc.

The grammatical morpheme is categorized as function class words. Its main role is to associate to deliver the message of the lexical morpheme. They are also known as functional class words. The grammatical morphemes are listed below:

- Prepositions in, into, on, upon, etc.
- Articles a, an, the
- Conjunctions but, and, yet etc.
- forms indicating number 's' plural form
- Forms indicating, tense 'ed' past tense

The last two forms are associated with root words gives meaning independently depend upon the affixes. In fact affixes are categorized into Bound morpheme. Take for example the following sentence:

- Ram was a smart boy who went to market to buy vegetables presently:
1. Noun: Ram, market, vegetables, boy
  2. Relative pronoun: who
  3. Adjective: smart
  4. Verb: went, buy
  5. Adverb: presently
  6. Preposition: to
  7. Article: a

Sl.no 1 to 5 are **lexical morphemes** in the given sentence

Sl.no. 6 & 7 are **grammatical morphemes** in the given sentence

#### 4.7.3. Roots and Affixes

Each and every word is the composition of root(s) and affix(es). Bound morphemes role is to identify the word in particular. For example the word

'boy' conveys the meaning that

- the gender masculine,
- age young,
- number single

Again 'boys' convey the meaning that

- the gender masculine,
- age young,
- number more than one

The addition of 's' in 'boy' increases the meaning of the root word with the affixes 's' in particular.

The key facts of roots and affixes are discussed in the table 4.7.3. as below:

**Table: 4.7.3. Roots and Affixes**

Roots	Affixes
main part of word	subordinate part of word
minimum one root word	It allows many affixes for a root word. For example the root word 'faith': unfaith, unfaithful, unfaithfully, unfaithfulness etc.
in compound words it may two or three elevate-operate As elevator - operator	In compound words it may be increased depending upon the root words
root word conveys the meaning independently	Affixes increase the meaning of the root word never have its own meaning. All the words ending with 's' are not plural words. For example: pets is plural, glass is root word -singular
tend to have richer, more specific semantic content	there is so such specific value in affixes
root word position is flexible. i.e. passport photo, photo album: here 'photo' is flexible to give meaning accordingly	affixes is rigid in its position. The word pre- must be prefix not to be used for suffix. Preponed, pretext etc. Likewise, the suffix -ly to be used only at the end of the word. Honestly, shortly etc.

Thus, root words are independent to construct as many words through the affixes. Whereas affixes are fixed to generate the word only with the available space it can be allowed. Root words allow the process of word formation. Affixes facilitate the process but it can not act individually.

#### 4.7.3.i. Stem:

A stem is base as well as root for a word. Stem associates the base or root to add many number of affixes i.e. both prefix and suffix . All stems are bases. For a word there will be only one root word but there is possibility many number of stems in a word. Now the stem 'friendship' consists of the stem 'friend' and the affix '-ship'. The 'friend' cannot be divided any further into morphemes. Such a stem which is not divisible any further is the root or the base. Therefore in 'friendship', 'friend' is the

stem as well as the root. So, words with a single affix, the stem will also be the root or base. The tree diagram 4.4.3.i. describes the stem, root and affixes.

- Here the root word is: know
- Stems are: knowingly, knowing
- Affixes: ing, ly

#### 4.7.3.ii. Stem Formatives:

There are certain affixes in some languages whose function is primarily based on the stem formatives. The above tree diagram shows how the stems helps to develop the root word to the level of affixed word. But originally stem also almost like affixes improved the strength of the word through the root. For example the word dogmatic is derived as follows:

- doagmatic = dogmat + ic
- dogmat = dogama + t
- dogama is the root word
- 't' is the stem formative
- 'ic' is the affix

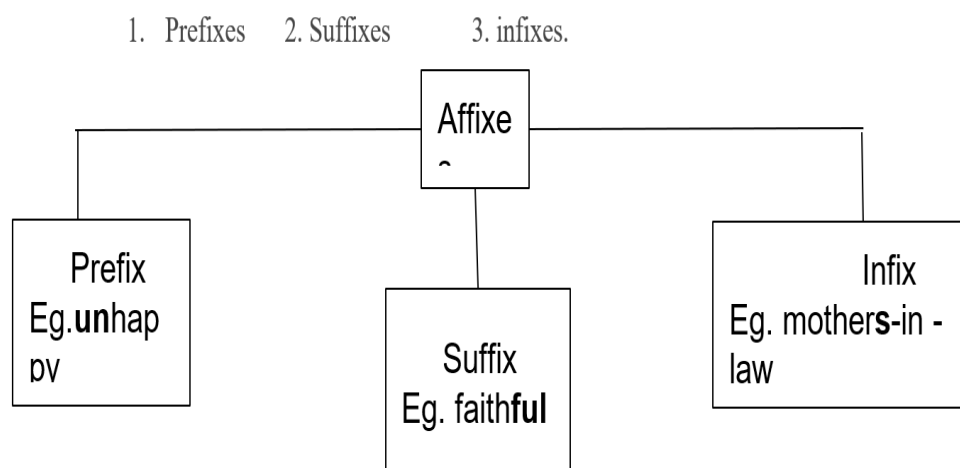
This affix 'ic' cannot be directly attached to the root 'dogma' as 'dogmaic', but only to the stem formed with the addition of the stem formative -t-. as dogmatic.

Such stem formatives are quite common in Greek. There are other words of this type in which the stem formative -o- occurs. Eg. morphology, philosophy, phonology, psychology etc. The stem formative for dogmatic (dogma+t+ic) is illustrated through the figure 4.7.3.11.:

#### Figure: 4.7.3.ii. Stem Formative

##### 4.7.3.iii. Classification of Affixes: Prefix, Infix, suffix:

Affixes are bound morphemes attached to the stem which may be root / base or a larger unit containing a root / base plus one or more affixes. Base on their position with regard to the stem, affixes may be classified into three types:



**Figure: 4.7.3.iii Classification of affixes**

1. An affix that is attached at the beginning of a stem is called a **prefix** ie., it precedes the stem. Eg. Unhappy: prefix-'un-' and base / root / stem is 'happy'.
2. An affix that is attached at the end of a stem is called a suffix ie. It follows the stem. Eg. faithful: **suffix** '-ful' is followed by the base / root / stem 'faith'
3. **Infixes** are uncommonly inserted in the middle of a stem. This type of affix is uncommon in English. Even the given example is also not directly related to infixes. Mothers-in-law is a hyphenated word. Languages like Tagalog, Arabic and Sudanese have infixes.

#### **4.7.3.iv. Derivational and Inflectional Affixes:**

**Derivational** affixes create new words from the stem or root word. For example the word 'create' we can get many words like 'creation, creator, creating, created, creatively' There are several factors which indicate whether an affix is derivational or inflectional.

**Inflectional affixes** just show the root word and the affix related to the word. The word 'boy' may have extensions like boyhood, boyish and boys. The first two boyhood and boyish are derivational affixes. Whereas the third word 's' in boys just give one more extension that is the word is in plural. Such types of word neither change the meaning of the word nor give any grammatical change is known as inflection affixes. The following table 4.7.3.iv summarizes the difference between derivational and inflectional affixes.

**Table 4.7.3.iv.a the difference between derivational and inflectional affixes.**

Derivational	Inflectional
derivational affixes create 'new' words	Inflectional affixes show grammatical relationships
change the meaning of words	don't change the meaning of words
can change the word's form class	cannot change the form class.
always precede any inflectional suffix	always follow any derivational suffix
have some lexical meaning	have grammatical meaning only
can combine with a limited subgroup of bases	it will accommodate as many word as possible for the root word

Examples of inflectional and derivational suffixes.

1. Inflectional suffixes do not change the class of a word.

boy, boys → both nouns  
 talk, talked → both verbs  
 loud, louder → both adjectives

Some derivational suffixes change the class, eg., -or in operator and -er in worker, change verbs into nouns

2. Inflectional suffixes are closing morphemes.

Laughs, teaching, friendships, scholarships

3. They can be attached to all stems of a particular class of words.

she laughs, dances, sleeps and dreams

-s occurs with all the verb stems in english. This is not so with derivational suffixes

4. An inflectional suffix is permitting further addition of suffixes.

Whereas derivational suffixes permits as many as possible.

boy, boys → inflectional  
 talk, talking → inflectional  
 organ/iz/ation/al → three derivational suffixes

The following table 4.7.3.iv.b. are the inflectional suffixes in English.



**Table 4.7.3.iv.b.the inflectional suffixes in English**

Parts of Speech	Category	Example
Nouns	plural -s	girls
	possessive -s'	girl's
Verb	present tense singular	talks
	past tense -ed	talked
	present participle -ing	talking
	past participle -en	written
Adjectives / adverbs	Comparative -er	taller
	Superlative -est	tallest

Derivational affixes are further divide into two as

1. class changing
2. class maintaining

For example the word 'beauty'

- 'beauty' is a noun
- by addition of suffix 'ful' it becomes 'beautiful' which is an adjective
- by addition of suffix 'fy' it becomes 'beautify' which is a verb
- this change from a noun to adjective, noun to verb is known as changing class.

Take for another word 'honesty'

- 'honesty' is a noun
- by addition of suffix 'dis' it becomes 'dishonesty' which is also a noun.
- Here there is no class changing so it is known as changing maintaining.

The following table describes the class changing:

**Table 4.7.3.iv.c .derivational affixes build nouns from verb:**

Verb	Affix	Noun
procure	-ment	procurement
offend	-ce	offence
employ	-ee	employee
betray	-al	betrayal

exist	-ence	existence
play	-er	player
operate	-or	operator
demonstrate	-ation	demonstration
promote	-tion	promotion
deliver	-ance	deliverance

Table 4.7.3.iv.d .derivational affixes build noun from adjective

Adjective	Affix	Noun
happy	-ness	happiness
intelligent	-ence	intelligence
strong	-th	strength
romantic	-ce	romance
political	-cian	politician
wise	-dom	wisdom
familiar	-ity	familiarity
violent	-ce	violence
ambitious	-tion	ambition
kind	-ness	kindness

The following table describes how the class is maintained even after the addition of affixes.

In English, adverb is mostly associated with adjectives . Based on the position of the word it gains adverbs from adjectives. The following table outlines how a word is grouped with free morpheme, bound morpheme and also the types of affixes.

Table 4.7.3.iv.h . Free, Bound, derivational and inflectional morphemes

Noun	Affix	Noun
king	-dom	kingdom
friend	-ship	friendship
child	-hood	childhood
patron	-age	patronage
thesis	anti-	antithesis

Table 4.7.3.iv.f . derivational affixes build verb from verb

Verb	Affix	Verb
cover	dis-	discover
locate	re-	relocate
claim	pro-	proclaim
place	mis-	misplace
load	un-	unload

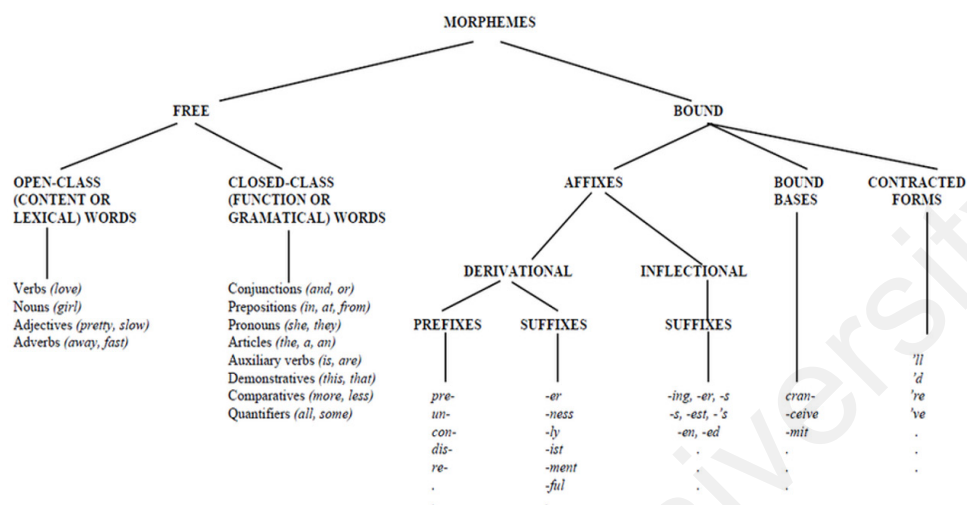
Table 4.7.3.iv.g . derivational affixes build adjective from adjective

Adjective	Affix	Adjective
weak	-ly	weakly
red	-ish	reddish
fine	-st	finest
funny		funnier
kind	-ly	kindly

Table 4.7.3.iv.h . Free, Bound, derivational and inflectional morphemes

Nouns	Free Morpheme	Bound Morpheme	Types of Affixation
requisition	request	-si, -tion	derivational
prospects	prospect	-s	inflectional
election	elect	-tion	derivation
socialism	social	-ism	derivational
looked	look	-ed	inflectional
girl's	girl	-'s	inflectional
occasionally	occasion	-ly	derivational
contribution	contribute	-tion	derivational
specialist	special	-ist	derivational
celebrations	celebrate	-tion -s	derivational inflectional
creation	create	tion	derivational
vocational	vocation	al	derivational

Classification of English Morpheme can be identified through this tree diagram.



#### 4.8. Simple, Complex and Compound Words:

On the basis of the morphemic constituents of words, English words are categorized as simple, complex and compound.

- A simple word consists of just a single free morpheme with or without an inflectional suffix : eg. boy, boys, take, takes, etc.
- A complex word is the combination of two or more morphemes or with without derivational and inflectional affixes. In a sense one free morpheme another bound or all morphemes are bound.

happiness → happy (free morpheme) + -ness (bound morpheme)

dishonest → dis- (bound morpheme) + honest (free morpheme)

conceive → con- (bound morpheme) + -ceive (bound morpheme)

- A compound word is a combination of two simple words. Differing from the complex word, the compound word does not acquire its definition from the addition of affixes. In the case of compound words, the union of the two simple words brings out an altogether different meaning than the words do in their original form. The word 'room' is for various purposes like study room, prayer room, rest room etc. Similarly 'bed' also conveys bed time, bed coffee, bed sheet, bed pan etc. So the individual word gives various meanings

but through the compound word like 'bedroom' the meaning is also conveyed exclusively as the room for sleeping / taking rest. An example of compound words are:

bedroom → bed (free morpheme) + room (free morpheme)

eyesore → eye (free morpheme) + sore (free morpheme)

dry-cleaner → dry (free morpheme) + cleaner (free morpheme)

elevator-operator → elevate (free) + - or (bound)  
operate (free) + -or (bound)

The derivational affixes produce new words by means of attaching derivational affixes to the 'stem'. Compounding is also a process of word formation where a new word is formed by combining two stems. For example, table (stem) + cloth (stem). The tree diagrams 4.8. represent the morphological analysis of words indicating the processes of word formation involved the derivation of the word 'computerises'

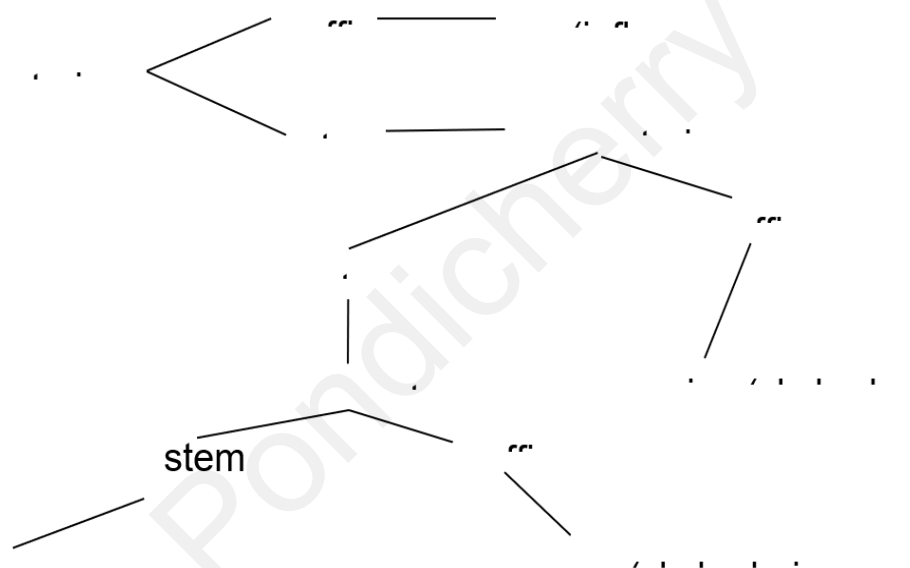


Figure:4.8.a

The process of word formation is derivation. The word

- 'compute' is the verb
- addition of of the suffix class changing derivational suffix '-er' the word is as computer is the noun again the noun 'computer' becomes verb by addition of class changing
- derivational suffix 'ise' as 'computerise'
- And finally by addition of inflectional suffix 's' it remains as 'computerises'

The tree diagram explains how the adverb word 'independently' is

derived from the verb 'depend' becomes dependent as an adjective then 'independent' again as an adjective and lastly as an adverb 'independently'. The class changing derivational affix is 'in' and class changing derivational suffixes are 'ent' and 'ly'

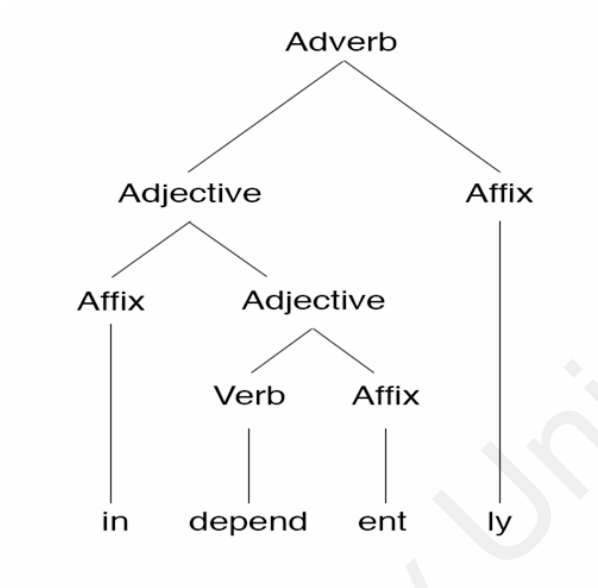


Figure: 4.8.b

#### 4.9. Word formation and Homophones and Homonyms

The above diagrams 4.8.a, 4.8.b represent the processes of word-formation. One word derived from a base may become the base for the formation of another word and thus by reapplication it can be used for words of considerable complexity. For example, an affix like the plural form 's' which produces each word into another new noun in English. Some of the derivational process is discussed below:

##### 1. Derivation:

The growth of vocabulary is mainly connected with the derivation of word word formation. Affixes gain meaning through this word formation. For example the suffix generate a great number of nouns as

- 'er' teacher, writer, teller etc.
- 'or' operator, editor,
- 'r' officer, manager, etc.

This kind of derivation is increasing the vocabulary list. The process is termed as affixation. There are two types of affixation as prefixation and suffixation. .

The base / root word is preceded with an affix is called prefix and the affixes process is called as prefixation. For example. happy - unhappy, honest- dishonest which may be called **prefixation**.

The base / root word is succeeded with an affix is called suffix and the affixes process is called as suffixation. For example. child - childhood, class - classmate which may be called suffixation.

## 2. Conversion:

The word changes its parts of speech into another without having any inflectional or derivational affixes is called conversion. For example the word 'ride' as a:

- verb → He ride(s) the horse. [plural 's' is optional]
- noun → Horse ride is a good aerobic exercise.

## 3. Compounding:

In word formation, compounding words involve the stem to add any type of word into the same class or changing class. For example

- the preposition 'up'
- compounded with 'on' another preposition and again
- resulted as 'upon' as preposition.

Here there is no changing class from preposition to preposition. Whereas take this word

- the verb 'break' added with
- The preposition 'down'
- resulted as 'breakdown' as a noun

Compounding words are a process of mixing one with another by international or situational or involuntarily. For example 'theater' is a word that gives the meaning as 'drama / show'. But in the hospital 'operation theater' means 'the place of surgical operations'. So compounding words gains the meaning based on the intention of the speaker at the time of introducing the word. The compound words and its stem and word class are shown in the table 4.9.below:

Table 4.9

Stems / root	Compounding word	Functional class of the root / stem	Form class of the compounding word
up + on	upon	P+P	Preposition
break + down	breakdown	V+P	Noun
bare + foot	barefoot	Adj+N	Adjective
red + rose	redrose	N+N	Adjective / Noun
sea + sick	seasick	N+Adj	Adjective

#### 4. Reduplicatives

The sound of the particular word is repeated again with consonant or vowel change recurrently is called reduplicatives. For example the word 'tip' is again produced as 'top' and resulted as 'tip-top' which gained a meaningful meaning as 'toe to head' the dress code is neatly maintained. Similarly the word 'see' and 'saw' as 'seesaw' is one type game played in the park:



by the movement of the pole the seaters on both sides produced the word accordingly. Most of the reduplicatives are used in informal speech.

#### 5. Clipping

This is the usual way of pronouncing the word in its short form. In due course the short form gained the status of vocabulary than the original form of the word. Such types of words are called clipping words. The process of clipping not only reduces the word size but also the sound. The word 'Maths' is used universally and the original word mathematics lost its colour. Here the cutting of the word is not strictly connected with morphological structure but somehow associated with phonological structure. There is no hard and fast rules for clipping words at the same maximum words associated with sound. Like 'exams' for 'examinations', 'fridge' for 'refrigerator', 'lab' for 'laboratory', 'Pince' for 'Principal' etc.



Almost all the mentioned words exams, fridge, lab, prince do not have any coordinated principle for such kinds of clippings.

## 6. Acronymy

This is another subdivision of clipping. Here a pattern is introduced unlike clippings. The initial letters of each word put together as a new word is called acronymy. For example

- the four directions north, east, west, south, west.
- Acronymed as NEWS i.e. the first letters of the directions.

Normally we used to say the four directions as East, west, north, south. But here due to the need of acronymy the directions are arranged in such a way and produced the new word NEWS. Other examples:

- NOW → National Organization of Women
- US → United States
- UN → United Nations
- IMF → International Monetary Fund

## 7. Blending

There is a process in which two parts of two different words are blended to form a new word is called blending. Usually the first part of one word and the last part of the other word are blended to form a new word without affecting the original meaning for both words. For example,

- motor + hotel → motel
- smoke + fog → smog
- Breakfast + lunch → brunch
- modulator + demodulator → modern

## 8. Backformation

The reverse process has become common, i.e., forming verbs from nouns contrary to the general pattern of word formation. This is known as back-formation. 'Television' is the word derived from the words such as: 'supervision', 'revision' etc. Hypothetically this word is coined with 'tele' in sense and 'vision' from the words 'supervision' and 'revision'. Now one more step has been developed in the backformation of 'television' the noun through backformation becomes 'televise' as a verb. It is known that many nouns become verbs and also many verbs gained as nouns. This process is

called backformation. Examples are:

- hawk ← hawker
- edit ← editor
- beg ← beggar
- revise ← revision

### 9. Autonomasia:

A number of words have been derived from names of people and places. This process is known as autonomasia. For examples:

- All roads lead to Rome.

(originally the vast empire of Rome who won the battle everywhere. now it means any kind of effort approach will achieve the same at the end.).

- Kalidasa is the Shakespeare of India.
- Coimbatore is the Manchester of TamilNadu

Homophones and Homonyms:

**Homophones** are words that sound the same. It has different spelling and different meaning. Here are some examples:

- to /two / too
- there /their /they're
- pray / prey

**Homonyms** also have the same influence that is identical pronunciation with different meaning and spellings.. Few homonyms examples, here are just a couple of other words in English that sound the same:

- bare and bear
- Bare (adjective): → If something is described as bare, it is basic or uncovered.
- Bear (noun): → A large mammal.
- cell and sell
- Cell (noun): → A cell is a small room that is usually found in a prison.
- To sell (verb): → 'To sell' is a verb meaning to exchange either a product or service for money.

#### 4.10. Outline of English Morphology:

English grammar has been described in terms of 'parts of speech'. Some of these are based on meaning like nouns, verbs and some on functions like preposition, articles. So it is necessary to identify the differences of form, function and meaning.

##### 4.10.1. Form, Function, and Meaning:

Form, function, and meaning are three basic notions in the study of grammar. The terms which refer to form are called formal labels, those which refer to function are called functional labels, and those which refer to meaning are called semantic labels.

##### Form and Meaning:

Form refers to the observable shapes of or relationships between words or groups of words. It is external and may be phonic or graphic. Meaning refers to what it stands for, the actual object or idea it represents. Study the following sentences and understand the form and meaning of the sentences.

1. I write a letter
  2. A letter was written by me.
  3. I read a letter
- Sentences (1) and (2) convey the meaning of the sentences are same but the form of the sentence is as active and passive voice.
  - Whereas sentences (1) and (3) are the same sentence structure but the meaning of the sentences is entirely different.

The labels used for semantic concepts are different from those used for formal concepts. For instance, in the case of numbers, the distinction between 'one' and 'more than one' is a matter of meaning whereas 'singular' and 'plural' refer to form. Thus, 'furniture' refers to more than one item, but it is singular number in form as

- 'This furniture needs painting'.

Reversely 'scissors' is one item in terms of meaning but plural number in form, as in

- 'The scissors are on the table'.

This distinction can be very well illustrated by the distinction

between sex and gender. The semantic label sex is used to refer to male, female, etc., which refer to meaning. The term 'gender' on the other hand, is a formal label referring to grammatical form. Refer the table given below

Meaning (sex)	Form (gender)
male	masculine
female	feminine
Neutral or sexless	neuter

It is not correct to say that those nouns that means male as masculine or female sex means feminine. Gender is a formal concept, semantically consistent in English. But the following sentences have different meanings.

1. A hound was charging at him. It was barking loudly.
  2. The ship is ready at the port. She leaves at 6.
  3. The child is playing. It must be given a bath.
- See the above sentences that hound is referred to as 'it' though the sex is male.
  - The ship is referred to as 'she' whereas the ship is a 'sexless thing'.
  - Again the child is referred to as 'it' instead of identifying as 'she' or 'he'

Meaning	Form
hound (male sex)	it (neuter gender)
Ship (neutral sex)	She (feminine gender)
child male / female sex	it (neuter gender)

With reference to tense and time concept, tense is a concept of form, while time reference is a concept of meaning. Thus the following sentences,

1. They are going **tomorrow**,
2. They leave Trivandrum **tomorrow**

Sentences (1) and (2) are present tenses **in form** but referring to future time in meaning.

Terms like declarative, interrogative, and imperative are formal labels, while the corresponding terms like statement, question, and request / command, are semantic labels. Thus,

“Can you do it please?” The sentence is in interrogative form, but the meaning of the sentence is referred to as the ‘request’ form.

1. You are ready for the test?
2. Are you ready for the test?

Sentence (1) is declarative in form but a question with regard to meaning

Sentence (2) is interrogative both in form and meaning. Thus form and meaning are distinct from each other.

### Form and Function:

Form identifies the things / action accordingly such as teacher, watch, give etc.. The form classes are noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, relative, etc., There are lots of forms, but a finite number of functions.

- |                             |   |                                       |
|-----------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Ramesh is a teacher.     | → | Ramesh is the ‘subject’               |
| 2. Ram gave Ramesh a watch. | → | Ramesh is the ‘indirect object’       |
| 3. He is Ramesh             | → | Ramesh is complement of the verb ‘is’ |

Thus functional labels indicate the roles or function of things / action in sentences whereas formal labels indicate their form. ‘Ramesh’ is referred to as the name of the person specified in that sentence, and as a noun it specifies its form. In traditional grammar the concepts of form and meaning have been mixed up in the definitions of part of speech.

#### 4.10.3. Word Classes, Form Classes, Function Classes

Form-class words usually have lexical meaning, or a dictionary definition. It can create new words through derivational affixes or inflectional affixes. In addition it will be the root for a word to declare the meaning semantically or lexically. For example, the word ‘write’ is the root word form class as verb. It can be extended as a noun as writer or writing as a gerund etc.

The function-class words have mostly grammatical meaning and serve as key markers for identifying words or phrases. Function-class words generally do not change form, taking neither inflection or derivation. Its

chief function is to introduce the form class word for its functionality. Again take the word 'write'

- as verb: → write / writes / writing
- as a noun: → writer / writing
- as an adjective: → written test, written document etc.
- as an adverb: → writtenly / writingly / writeably  
(informal not in use)

1. Form-class are nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs
2. Function-class are articles, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, conjunction etc.

### Difference between Form class and function class

Form class	Function class
Form classes have a reasonably clear lexical meaning definable in the dictionary	Function class words do not have definable lexical meaning.
The number of words in the form class is larger than the function class. Growth of vocabulary is due to the addition of form class words.	Functors are few and limited in number and constitute a closed set. We cannot coin a new article or preposition and hence membership to this class is 'closed'
Form class words can form minimum free utterance, while functors by themselves cannot form full sentences	Function class words occur more frequently than the others.
Form class undertakes inflectional and derivation affixed	Function class words do not take any inflectional or derivation affixes by which they can be identified. They do not take class markers.
Form class cannot act individually	They are to be learnt individually.

the differences are summed up as follows:

Sl.No	Form Class	Function Class
1	lexical	structural / grammatical
2	open system	closed system
3	less frequent	more frequent
4	class markers	no formal markers
5	full sentences	no full sentences

6	translation possible	no piecemeal translation
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#### 4.10.3.1. Form classes:

##### I. Noun

A noun is a word to identify the name of a person, place or thing. It can be identified as follows:

Sl.No	Categories of nouns	examples
1	plural by taking '-s'	boys, girls, trees, flowers etc.
2	possessive case: 's	boy's girl's, mother's etc.
3	derived by addition of derivational affixes - -er, -or etc.	teacher, operator etc.
4	preceded by determiners	the boy, the Milton etc.
5	heavier stress on the first syllable	'Object (N) ob'ject (V)

##### II. Verbs:

A word denoting an action is called a verb. Some of the identifying features of verbs are:

Sl.No	Categorizations of verbs	examples
1	the base of the verb can be preceded by 'to'	To teach, to write etc.
2	four inflected forms third person singular present tense adding 's' progressive -ing past tense 'ed' perfect -ed / en	love + s = loves love + ing = loving love + ed = loved love + ed = loved
3	derived by the addition of -ize to nouns or adjectives. -ate	humanize, organize etc. Cultivate, deprecate
4	preceded by nouns, and followed by nouns	Ramesh <b>loves</b> Ranjani
5	primary stress on the second syllable	ob'ject, pre'sent etc.

##### III Adjectives:

Adjectives modify the noun or pronoun more precisely in a word / sentence. For example The tall boy is my relative. Here the adjective

'tall' specifies the noun more precisely and identifies the 'boy' exclusively. Some of the characteristic features of adjectives are:

Sl.No	Features of Adjectives	examples
1	inflected for comparative by addition of -er / -est	taller / tallest, longer / longest etc.
2	formed by adding derivational suffixes - 'y', 'ic' 'ous'	tasty, photographic, courageous etc.
3	preceded by intensifiers - very, quite etc.	<b>very</b> clever, <b>quite</b> right etc.
4	can precede nouns	sweet dreams, happy birthday etc.
5	primary stress on the first syllable	'pretty, 'clever etc.
6	attributive adjective - appear between the determiner and the head of noun phrase	the beautiful scenery ↓       ↓       ↓ D       Adj       N
7	predicative adjective as subject complement	She is clever ↓               ↓ S               complement
8	adjective as attributive and also as predicative	the stupid man ('stupid' is attributive) the man is stupid ('stupid' is predicative)
9	only attributive adjective	an utter fool
10	only predicative	She is right

#### IV Adverbs

Adverbs modify the verb or adjective or adverb more precisely in a word / sentence. For example

He runs fastly,

He runs very fastly,

He runs very very fastly.

Here the adjective 'fastly' specifies the verb more precisely and denotes the manner of the action i.e. verb the 'run' exclusively. The word 'very' and 'very very' also increase the manner of the adverb more specifically. Some of the characteristic features of adverbs are:



Sl.No	Characteristics of adverbs	examples
1	comparative and superlative through periphrastic comparison	more usefully most usefully
2	Intensifiers which precede them very, quite etc.	very slowly, quite comfortably
3	adverbs derived from adjectives by adding -ly some adverbs adding -wise	slowly, quickly classwise
4	normally do not occur immediately before noun	nicely book
5	usually follow the verb	laughed loudly, sang sweetly
6	usually specify manner, place, or time	slowly (manner), there (place) etc.
7	adverb functions as an adverbial or modifier of adjective and adverb	Very very fastly

### Adverb as Adverbial:

An adverb is acted as an adverbial by means of the distinct form and meaning of the sentence in its structure, subject, verb, object, and complement. Three classes of adverbials can be distinguished as adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts.

Sl.No	Classes of adverbials	specifications	examples
1	adjuncts	integrated within the structure of the clause	I can <b>now</b> understand it.
2	disjuncts	not integrated within the structure of the class.	<b>Fortunately</b> , no one disagreed
3	conjuncts	not integrated. They have connective functions.	I have warned him and <b>yet</b> he is careless.

### Adverb as Modifier:

Adverbs not only modify the verbs and adjectives but also modify the adverb. Some of the characteristic features of adverb as modifier are:

Sl.No	Modifier of	specifications	examples
1	adjective	the adverb 'reasonably' modifies the adjective <i>early</i> .	The train leaves at a 'reasonably' early hour.
2	adverb	The adverb 'quite' modifies the adverb passionately.	She spoke 'quite' passionately about politics
3	Prepositional phrase	The phrase "right across the road" describes the verb "ran."	He ran 'right across the road'
4	Determiner, predeterminer and post-determiner	the adverbs premodify indefinite pronouns, pre-determiner and cardinal numbers	'Nearly' everybody was present
5	Noun phrase	A few intensifiers may premodify Noun phrases	He was 'a' 'good' player

#### 4.10.3.1. Function class words:

Function class is a closed system and its main purpose is to activate the form class grammatically and also semantically. Though they have individual identity in sentence structure, it may not activate its meaning individually. For example in the sentence "The cat sat on the wall". Without preposition 'on' the sentence failed to convey the message meaningfully. "The cat sat the wall". The function class is discussed as follows:

Sl.No	Function class words	examples
1	pronouns	personal pronouns: I, we, you, he, she, they and it. etc. indefinite pronouns: something, someone, everyone, etc. interrogative pronouns: who, what, whom etc.
2	prepositions	in, into, on, of, up, upon etc.

3	determiners	articles: a, an, the ordinals: first, second, next, etc. qualifiers: one, two some, demonstrative: this, that, these, etc.
4	conjunctions	co-ordinating conjunctions - and, but, or etc. subordinating conjunctions: since, if, unless etc.
5	Auxiliary verbs	primary auxiliaries: 'do' groups, 'be' forms and 'have' groups modal auxiliaries: will, shall, would, should etc.

#### 4.10.4 Inflectional Suffixes in English:

Inflectional suffixes neither change the meaning of the word nor create new words. The inflectional suffixes in a word or sentence to identify the number, gender, tenses, and so on. The category of the inflectional suffixes are discussed as follows:

##### 1. Noun: Inflection for Number:

Sl.No	singular	plural - inflectional affixes	examples
1	leg net glass	-s	/z/ → legs → /lɛgz/. /s/ → nets → /nɛts/ /ɪz/ → glasses → / 'glɑ:sɪz/
2	knife	-ives	knives (not knifes)
3	child	-en	children
4	foot	mutational also called replacives or replacive allomorph	feet ('o' replaces 'e')
5	sheep	zero allomorph	sheep
6	formula	loan word retained	formulae / formulas

##### Inflection for case:

Sl.No	singular	genitive / possessive - inflectional affixes	examples
1	pig cat glass	-'s	/z/ → pig's → /pɪgz/. /s/ → cat's → /kæts/ /ɪz/ → glass's → / 'glɑ:sɪz/

2	Keats'	zero allomorph	Keats → /ki:ts/ Keats' → /ki:ts/
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## II. Verbs:

Inflection suffixes mainly improve the meaning of the sentence through the verbs. The sentence agreement is based on the use of proper form of verbs. For example:

1. I write a letter
  2. He writes a letter
- Sentence (1) and (2) the verb 'write' is used as
  - 'write' for the subject I,
  - 'writes' for the subject he.

So inflectional affixes designate the word power by means of proper addition. Here the table shows the inflectional affixes and its functions with suitable examples:

Sl.No	inflection	affixes	function	examples
1	present-tense	-s	for third person singular He kicks the ball	/z/ → seems → /si:mz/ /s/ → kicks → /kɪks/ /ɪz/ → organises → /ɔ:gənəɪzɪz/
2	present - participle	-ing	for progressive of the verb action	laugh → laughing
3	past-tense	-ed <sub>1</sub>	verb in past-tense	/ɪd/ → planted → /'plɑ:ntɪd/ /d/ → begged → /bɛgd/ /t/ → kicked → /kɪkt/
4	past - participle	-ed <sub>2</sub>	to indicate past participle of a regular verb	/ɪd/ → planted → /'plɑ:ntɪd/ /d/ → begged → /bɛgd/ /t/ → kicked → /kɪkt/

**Irregular Lexical verbs:**

Sl.No	inflection	Present Tense Base - V	Past Tense V -ed <sub>1</sub>	Past Participle V--ed <sub>2</sub> / -en
1	zero allomorph	cut	cut	cut
2	past tense and past participle same	meet	met	met
3	present tense and past participle same	come	came	come
4	three forms differently	write	wrote	written

**Auxiliaries:**

The role of an auxiliary verb is to identify the period or time of the action of the verb. It is broadly divided into two as The “primary” auxiliary verbs ‘be’, ‘have’, and ‘do’ and Modal auxiliary as will, shall etc. The following table is listed as primary auxiliary verbs and its characteristics.

**Table: Primary Auxiliary Verbs: ‘do’ groups****1. ‘do’ groups:**

Sl.No	Tense	auxiliary verb
1	present	do
2	present	does
3	past	did
4	present participle	doing
5	past participle	done

**Table: Primary Auxiliary Verbs: ‘have’ groups**

Sl.No	Tense	auxiliary verb
6	present	have
7	present	has
8	past	had
9	present participle	having

10	past participle	had
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Table: Primary Auxiliary Verbs: 'be' forms

Sl.No	Tense	auxiliary verb
11	base	be
12	present tense	is
13	present tense	am
14	present tense	are
15	past tense	was
16	past tense	were
17	-ing form / present participle	being
18	past-participle	been

Table: Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Sl.No	Tense	auxiliary verb
1	present tense	can
2	past tense	could
3	present tense	may
4	past tense	might
5	present tense	shall
6	past tense	should
7	present tense	will
8	past tense	would
9	present tense	must
10	present tense	ought to
11	present tense	used to
12	present tense	need
13	present tense	dare

Table: Modal Auxiliary Verbs uses:

Sl.No	Models	used for	examples
1	can Present tense	Ability, permission, possibility	He can speak English Can I wait here? Anybody can do it.
2	Could Past tense	Ability, permission, possibility	I never could play the guitar Could I invite my friends? We could go to the beach..
3	may Present tense	permission possibility	You may go if you want. You may get admission.
4	might Past tense	permission possibility	Might I smoke in here?.. We might go to the beach..
5	shall Present tense	willingness intention insistence	You shall do as you please We shall inform you. You shall obey the rules
6	Should Past tense	obligation  contingent use formal real condition	You should do as you are instructed. We should love to go abroad. If you should decide to go, please let us know
7	will	willingness intention insistence  prediction	Will you please pass the salt I'll meet him as soon as I can.. He will do it, whatever be the obstacles. The game will be over at 4 o' clock.
8	would	willingness insistence  characteristics  contingent use  probability	Would you excuse me? It's your own choice, you would do it? Every morning he would walk for an hour. He would wait until he heard from me. That would be his neighbour.
9	must	obligation or compulsion	You must do this work. You had to do this work (past tense)
10	ought to	obligation, logical necessity or expectation	You ought to start at once They ought to be here by now

### III Adjectives:

- Adjectives are in two forms. In Free morphemes adjectives are derivational and also acted individually to convey the meaning. Red Rose. The word 'Red' says about the quality of the noun / Rose. The other one is inflexional adjectives: by means of addition of inflectional affixes it will convey the degree of the comparison of the noun.
- Some adjectives have different forms of comparatives and superlatives. The table shows the inflectional affixes of the adjectives as follows:

**Table: Inflection of Adjectives: Degrees of comparison**

Sl.No	mode	positive	comparative	superlative
1	regular	long	longer	longest
2	two or more syllable	respectable	more respectable	most respectable
3*	irregular forms	good	better	best

### IV. Personal pronouns

A personal pronoun is used in the place of noun. Based on the use of noun, personal pronouns gains three levels as

I person i.e. the speaker whoever.

II person i.e. the listener whoever in front of the speaker

III person i.e. the person missing at the time of conversation / speech

**Table: Inflection of Personal pronouns:**

Pronoun	Nominative	Genitive	Accusative	Double possessive
I Person - Singular	I	my	me	mine
plural	we	our	us	ours
II person singular and plural	you	your	you	yours
III person singular - Masculine	he	his	him	his



III person singular - feminine	she	her	her	hers
III person singular - neuter	it	its	it	its
III person Plural	they	their	them	theirs

#### 4.10.5. Derivational Affixes in English:

In the word formation, the root / stem is allowed to add the affixes and form a new word is called derivational affixes. There are two categories for this derivational affixes.

1. The addition of the affixes to the root / stem to form a new word with two or more morphemes is called derivation.
2. The combination of the root with stem(s) to form compounds is called compounding.

Derivational affixes cannot be used freely with all stems. Some examples of derivational affixes

1. 'er': teacher, writer, baker, carpenter etc.
2. 'th': growth, death etc.

The derivational suffix 'er' means one who does. At the same time 'th' does not refer to the meaning of the affix. So derivational affixes connected to the stem relatively and convey the meaning based on the stem / root.

In the compounding, the word formation occurs based on the two stem combination. For example, 'berry' is a small soft fruit. Based on the colour, this stem forms words like:

- blackberry
- Strawberry
- blueberry
- cranberry
- raspberries and so on.

Thus, derivational affixes are the base to create many words in

English. Some affixes like 'er' have gained a special meaning as 'one who does' due to the similar use for more words.

#### 4.11. Suggested Readings & Questions

##### Text Book:

1. Dr. V. Shymala, A Text Book of English Phonetics and Structure for Indian Students. Trivandrum, Sharath Ganga Publications.

##### References

1. Adams, Valerie (1973), An Introduction to Modern English Word-Formation, London: Longman.
2. Spencer, Andrew (1991), Morphological Theory, Oxford: Blackwell.

##### Questions

##### Short answer questions:

1. What is morphology?
2. What is morphemics?
3. Define morpheme. Give examples.
4. What do you mean by morphophonemics or morphophonology?
5. What is the difference between morphemes and phonemes? Give an example.
6. What are the different ways of breaking a word?
7. What is an allomorph?
8. What do you mean by complementary distribution?
9. What are the three allomorphs of the plural morpheme?
10. What are the various realizations of the past tense morpheme?
11. What does the term 'morph' literally mean?
12. When is a phenomenon said to be conditioned?
13. When is an allomorph said to be phonologically conditioned?
14. What do you mean by morphological conditioning? Give examples.
15. Mention the three criteria based on which the morphemes are classified
16. What are lexical morphemes?

17. What is meant by grammatical morphemes?
18. Write a short note on free morphemes.
19. Write briefly on bound morphemes.
20. What do you understand by the term 'roots'?
21. What are affixes?
22. What are the two types of stems?
23. What do you mean by stem formatives?
24. Give a few examples for stem formatives in English.
25. What are the three types of affixes? Give examples.
26. What is meant by infix? Do we have infixes in English?
27. Which languages have infixes?
28. What do you mean by inflectional suffix?
29. What do you mean by derivational affix?
30. Give examples for derivational affixes.
31. Mention the plural inflectional suffixes in English.
32. Mention the two inflectional suffixes in English adjectives/ adverbs.
33. What is the special feature of English prefixes?
34. What are the two types of derivational affixes?
35. What you mean by the phenomenon "conditioned"?
36. What are three main clauses of English words?
37. What you mean by simple words?
38. Explain complex words.
39. What does a complex word consist of?
40. What is derivation?
41. Explain the concept of compounding?
42. Briefly explain the mixing process of word formation with examples?
43. What are the types of affixation?
44. What is conversion? give examples
45. What is clipping? give examples
46. What is blending? give examples
47. What is autonymasia? give examples
48. What are homophones? give examples
49. What are homonyms? give examples
50. Define functional labels.

51. Explain formal labels.
52. The term 'form' refers to what?
53. Do you agree that synonyms are similar in meaning but different in forms?
54. List out the semantic label of 'sex'.
55. What are formal labels in Parts of speech?
56. What are functional labels in grammar?
57. What is the role of functional labels in grammar?
58. List out the other names of form class words.
59. Give examples of form classes in parts of speech.
60. List out the function classes in grammar.
61. Which classes have a clear lexical meaning?
62. What do you mean by "open class"?
63. What do you mean by Predicative adjectives?
64. What do you mean by Attributive adjectives?
65. Give examples of attributive and predicative adjectives.
66. What are the specifications of adverbs?
67. Where can adverbs be placed in a sentence?
68. How are adverbs formed?
69. What is the function of an adverb?
70. What do you mean by the term adverbial?
71. What are the classes in adverb?
72. What is the role of adjuncts?
73. What is the role of disjuncts?
74. What is the role of conjuncts?
75. What do you mean by an intensifier in an adverb?
76. What is the function of intensifiers in adverbs?
77. What are the adverb modifiers?
78. What do you mean by 'function class words'?
79. What are 'function class' words?
80. What are the pronouns in English?
81. List out the interrogative pronouns.
82. What do you mean by simple prepositions?
83. What do you mean by complex prepositions?

84. What are the determiners in English grammar?
85. What are the two major auxiliary verbs?
86. Write down the modal verbs.
87. What are the primary auxiliaries?
88. What are the forms of English number?
89. What are the commonest allomorphs of the plural morpheme?
90. What do you mean 'replacive' allomorphs?
91. What do you mean by zero allomorph?
92. What is the meaning of regular lexical verbs?
93. How irregular verbs are formed?
94. What are "be" form verbs?
95. What do you mean by progressive verbs?
96. What is a perfective verb?
97. Essays and Paragraphs
98. Distinguish between a morpheme and an allomorph.
99. Distinguish between a phoneme and a morpheme.
100. Distinguish between inflection and derivation
101. Distinguish between free morpheme and bound morpheme
102. Write a note on the motivations for a morphological analysis.
103. Write a note on the formation of plural in English
104. Describe form and meaning.
105. Distinguish form and meaning.
106. Differentiate form and function.
107. How Semantic concepts different from formal concepts?
108. Differentiate sex and gender.
109. Differentiate tense and time.
110. Describe form class.
111. Describe function class.
112. Write down the identifying features of Nouns in English.
113. Write down the identifying features of Verbs in English.
114. Write down the identifying features of Adjectives in English.
115. Describe predicative adjectives.
116. Write down the identifying features of Adverbs in English.
117. How an adverb may function as an adverbial?

118. Write a paragraph on Adverb as Modifier.
119. Write down the pronouns.
120. Write a paragraph on prepositions and its functions.
121. What are the four types of determiners?
122. Write a paragraph on Inflection for Number.
123. Describe replacive allomorph.
124. Describe Zero allomorph.
125. Write a paragraph on Inflection for Case.
126. Describe the five forms of verbs.
127. Differentiate the past -ed(V-ed<sub>1</sub>) and the -ed participle (V-ed<sub>2</sub>)
128. Write a paragraph on irregular verbs.
129. Describe Primary Auxiliaries.
130. Write a paragraph on Modal Auxiliaries.
131. What are the uses of Modal Auxiliaries in English?
132. Write a paragraph on the Inflection of adjectives.
133. What are the three cases in Personal Pronouns?
134. Describe the two basic process of stem formation in English.
135. Describe Stress Morphemes
136. Briefly discuss the difference between the homophones and homonyms
137. Write on any three process of word formation
138. Differentiate between derivation and compounding with examples
139. Give an account of three main classes of words with examples
140. Write on the difference between derivational and inflectional suffixes
141. What are the three types of affixes?
142. Give a short note on stem formatives
143. Explain free and bound morphemes with examples
144. What is the difference between roots and affixes?
145. Differentiate stem from root with examples.
146. Examine form, function and meaning are three basic notions in the study of grammar.
147. Write an essay on Parts of Speech in English.
148. Compare and contrast semantic concepts with formal concepts.

**UNIT - V****Lesson 5.1 - Syntax****Structure**

5.1. Objectives

5.2. Introduction

5.3 Definition of Syntax

5.4 Syntax and Grammar

5.5 Approaches to the study of grammar

5.5.1. Traditional Grammar

5.5.2. Structural / Descriptive Linguistics and Grammar

5.5.3. Immediate Constituent Analysis (IC Analysis)

5.5.4. PS Grammar: Constituents of NP and VP

5.5.5. Transformational Generative Grammar

5.5.5.1. Transformational Generative

5.5.5.2. Generative

5.5.5.3. Comparison with PSG

5.6. Suggested Readings & Questions

**5.1 Objectives**

- To describe the modes upon which sentences can be analyzed
- To understand the definition of syntax
- To distinguish the types of verbs based on various classifications; the basic clause types in the English language
- To help the students acquire various approaches to the study of grammar - Structural / Descriptive Grammar - I.C. Analysis - PS Grammar: Constituents of NP and VP -Transformational Generative Grammar - TG - comparison with PSG
- To improve the skill to understand Tagmemics

## 5.2 Introduction

Syntax study helps to know the framing and structure of the sentences. The rules and regulations for the structure of the sentences are systematically categorized in the area of Syntax. Though linguists, theorists are different in opinion of word order, syntax perfect the sentence in such a way to convey the meaning accordingly. Through the syntactic approaches, various grammar methods emerged to justify the word order every time. The discussed units phonology, morphology mainly concentrates the spoken and written form for communications. Whereas in syntax, the written form is more concentrated than the spoken form.

## 5.3 Definition of Syntax

Chomsky defines the term syntax as the study of the principles and processes of sentences. Some other linguists feel that syntax is the study of grammatical structure in a sentence. In that sense, morphology is the study of words, so syntax must be the study of sentences. The field of syntax is not within the boundary line of sentences; it covers the vast zone of language(s). Words in grammatical order form sentences. Likewise, sentences in constituent rules lead to language. If the sentences are not formed / framed properly it may be ended with ungrammatical sentences which will perfect the language.

## 5.4 Syntax and Grammar

Syntax is often considered synonymous with grammar, and hence grammar is also treated as an aspect of linguistic analysis. Grammar of a sentence aims to deliver a clear message from one end to another end of the people. In spoken form phonetics and phonology asserts the perfection of word(s) in a language. The same way, morphology ensures the word meaning and structure for a sentence. Syntax is directly connected to the sentence and exclusively concentrates on the structure of the sentence i.e the function of grammar in a sentence. For example,

1. Ram writes fastly.
2. Ram fastly writes.
3. Fastly, Ram writes.

All the above three sentences are constructed in such a way to deliver the message that the person 'Ram' is doing the action 'write' under the process of 'quickly / 'fastly'. But the grammatical structure is found in



the sentence (1) as the correct form. Sentence (2) is irrelevant because the adverb 'fastly' is not fixed as grammar rules, in sentence (3) the adverb 'fastly' is in disjunct, so the meaning of the sentence deviates the purpose of communication.

Thus, grammar is the central part of a language and the mechanism behind the grammar is syntactic analysis. Syntactic analysis can be done in different ways and each method is called a syntactic model. A syntactic model or theory is the statement of a method of description of the syntactic structure of a language. The sentence structure, the phrases and clauses are analysed through this model.

Based on the functions of grammar, it is divided into two levels as prescriptive grammar and descriptive grammar.

1. Prescriptive Grammar: Prescribes the rule to use words accordingly such as pronunciation, spelling, stress, syllable, affixes, etc.
2. Descriptive Grammar: Describes how the word used previously and the changes or not environmentally used in present situation. This study helps to trace the growth and origin of the word in a language.

Even though syntax and grammar runs equally, there are some differences between the two which is analyzed through this table:

Table 5.4: The difference between syntax and grammar

Syntax	Grammar
Syntax aims to make coherent sentences	Grammar is perfecting the sentences
Syntax deals with grammar.	Grammar deals with words.
Syntax identify the sentence, as declarative, interrogative, negative, affirmative or exclamatory sentence	Grammar identifies the logic and meaning of a word / sentence.
Syntax is the study of the principles and processes of sentences	Grammar is the study of the rules and regulations of language

### 5.5 Approaches to the study of grammar

The grammar of a language can be studied diachronically or synchronically. Diachronic study means across-time, i.e a historical study of the changes of grammar which has undergone over a 'period of time'. Synchronic study means with-time, i.e. synchronic study describes it as it exists at a 'point of time'. Synchronic study traces the information

from the initial stage of a language based on the diachronic study i.e. the development of a language.

The new scientific approach, especially the emergence of structural or descriptive grammar raised objections against the old concepts of traditional grammar and exposed its inadequacies and fallacies. The traditional grammar is modified and used as the structural approach and further changes identified as Phrase Structure and the next level of this modification is known as Transformational Generative Grammar (TG grammar).

### 5.5.1. Traditional Grammar

According to the linguist David Crystal, there is no such traditional approach for grammar in language. The first unit “Introduction” is already discussed that language has been perfected based on the increasing size of the stakeholder. In that sense, the grammar is also updated based on the awareness of the literate language learners. Further, the invention of the printing press changed the coinage of the word or sentences in a language. Each and every sentence is expected to be used grammatically during this period. So traditional grammar in a sense is a vogue. But the extension of traditional grammar into the next stages is pruning the language sharper and sharper. Scholars like Ben Jonson, who wrote the earliest English grammars, were men deeply learned in Latin and Greek. They felt that the classical languages were superior to the branched languages. So, they took Latin grammar as the model and analyzed English in terms of Latin. The first level grammar is coded with Latin as the source language and English as the target language. In fact, English has grown under the shade of the Germanic branch in the Indo- European language tree. So the Latin grammar model is very difficult to fit into English Language Grammar.

Within traditional grammar, the syntax of a language describes the structure of sentences, clauses and phrases based on the Latin model rather than the scope of the English language. The structuralists severely criticized the traditional approach and it may be summed up the failings of traditional grammar as enumerated by them under the following heads under the pretext of fallacies:

**A fallacy** is a misleading argument or belief based on a falsehood. If you oppose state testing in schools, you think it is a fallacy that educational quality can be measured by standardized tests. Fallacy

comes from the Latin fallacia, for deceit. It technically means a flaw in an argument that makes it deceptive or misleading. In poetry, the "pathetic fallacy" is the false idea that things like rocks or stars have human feelings (pathos). Fallacy can also be used more generally for any false statement or idea. Some synonyms are misconception and error

**1. The Latinate fallacy:** It is theoretically felt that Latin language is to be considered as the superior to the languages and it had a 'perfect grammar' and hence English grammar should also be described in terms of Latin. That is the reason for structuring English grammar based on Latin grammar. The following sentence ends with preposition which is common in English grammar because of Latin grammar model.

This is the tool I work with

Sl.no.	Subject	verb	Indirect object	Direct object	Object with preposition
1	I	gave	-	ten rupees	-
2	I	gave	him	ten rupees	-
3	I	received	-	the message	to carry on

Traditional grammarians condemned such usage since they objected to ending sentences with a preposition. Latin is highly inflected with grammatical markers for number, gender, etc., while English is a largely uninflected one, in which meaning is mainly structure-dependent.

In English, the sentences are mostly with direct object, indirect object is optional and the third one 'object with preposition' is also not used frequently. The traditional grammarians of English maintain that English also has six case forms. But there are only case forms in use for English nouns – John (unmarked case) and John's (marked or possessive case). The three case forms for English pronouns –

'he, his, and him' (nominative, possessive and objective respectively).

This shows that the case system of English was borrowed from Latin and imposed on English. The underlying belief was that languages belonging to the same family would have similar features, structures, and grammatical categories. In comparative degree the following sentence is observing Latin grammar structure more than English grammar.

- He is taller than me - (grammatically correct) but
- He is taller than I - (grammatically accepted because of Latin grammar influence).

**2. The Semantic Fallacy;** If the word order is not served the meaning exactly, there must be confusion in deliverance. This type is known as semantic fallacy. The ambiguity occurs if the sentence conveys with more than one distinct meaning, and the argument seems good only if the phrase is used with one meaning at one point in the argument, and with another meaning at another point in the argument. The structuralists made objection for this kind of several meanings in a sentence.

1. Will you write a letter?
2. Do you write a letter?

Both are interrogative sentences. But sentence - 1 is not a question, it is a request. The structuralists avoided any recourse to meaning in defining word-classes. They argued that the meaning of grammatical categories in terms of formal markers, with formal definitions and not semantic definitions.

**3. Mixing up Different Criteria:** All the traditional definitions were not based on meaning, some on meaning, some on function, and some on form. Verbs and nouns are identified on a semantic basis. But sometimes words like 'object' are used both as a noun and verb. Similarly, most of the adjectives derive their meaning because of its position in a sentence. Rose is a flower which gained its coinage through its colour. Red is specifically identified as the colour and as a noun. But the 'Red' lost its noun form and changed as an adjective because of its position in Red Rose. Structuralists found it unscientific to mix up criteria. They defined word classes on the basis of their forms and privileges of occurrence in certain definable environments.

**4. The Normative Fallacy;** Traditional grammarians prescribed the rules and regulations for using the grammar in a sentences. Such kind of norms mainly advocates the importance of the structure of the sentence than the meaning of the sentence. For example,

1. The cat sat on the wall
2. The cat sat upon the wall,

Sentence no. 1 is acceptable because 'cat' used to sit on the wall.

Sentence 2 'the wall' is static so the word 'upon' is not the correct word. Ultimately, 'cat' cannot sit upon the wall. No need for 'up' and 'on' the wall. So sentence no. 2 semantically not agreeable. Too much importance was given to do's and don't to the neglect of actual usage. Since correctness was prescribed, they were referred to as normative grammars also. Language being subject to change, strict adherence to rules and norms will be to ignore the reality of linguistic changes.

**5. The Prescriptive Fallacy:** The traditional grammar prescribed, the norms of language use for the speaker. For example, many grammarians had suggested that split infinitives should be avoided. But many native speakers use this structure; they would prefer 'to kindly grant me' to 'kindly to grant me'. According to modern linguists, norms of language should be descriptive and not prescriptive. While a descriptive grammarian describes the rules elicited from the actual use of language by native speakers, a prescriptive grammarian very often prescribes rules and norms. A grammar that prescribes rigid rules of correct use is called a prescriptive grammar. Traditional grammars tended to be prescriptive.

**6. The Logical fallacy:** This refers to the false faith in the existence of laws universally applicable to all languages. Tense is an inflection and there is no future tense marked on an English verb. The traditional grammarians refer to 'will walk' as the future tense; but this is due to the mixing up of time reference and tense. 'Will' is in the present tense and 'would' in the past and 'can' in the present and 'could' past, etc. In the sentence.

I shall write

the verbs 'shall' and 'write' are in present tense with future time reference. The following sentences are in the present tense with future time reference.

I am going home tomorrow

I will go home tomorrow.

**7. Lack of Explicitness:** Many definitions or descriptions in traditional grammar are not clearly, precisely and unambiguously stated. For example, Jespersen's definition or description of subject 'the dog barks' – 'the dog' is the subject and 'barks' is the predicate. The grammarian's description of the notion 'subject' is inexplicit. Traditional grammars lacked explicitness with regard to linguistic descriptions. "structuralists made explicit statements which could be easily tested and proved. According to Structuralists, 'subject' is that NP which agrees with the

verb', which can be applied mechanically to identify the subject. Such was lacking in the Traditional approach.

**8. Neglect of the Spoken Form:** Traditionalists focussed their views mainly on the written form. According to them, the spoken form is the reason for the corruption in written form. The structuralists, on the other hand, stressed the primacy of speech. The traditional linguists used the written form of the language as their data and, therefore, their description of a language was the description of the written form of the language. The spoken form was completely ignored. From the modern linguist's point of view, this is a fallacy because speech is primary and the written form is only a codification of speech. This fallacy led to the neglect of phonology in traditional grammar. The traditional linguists dealt with two basic units in language – word and sentence.

**9. Ignoring Language Variations:** Traditional grammarians considered language as 'monolithic'. They ignored different varieties of the same language – dialect and register varieties – and paid attention to only one variety, the written language of great literary writers of the past. This is an ignoring fallacy because language is what people speak and all varieties of a language need to be scientifically studied.

**10. Historical Fallacy:** The traditionalists ignored linguistic changes and considered them as a corrupting influence on language and tried to preserve its 'purity'. Arnold feels that the people of the past pondered over the events of their day from the same perspective as we do in the present. Language is subject to change, the grammarian should be describing contemporary usage. Standards of usage should be based on contemporary criteria and not on what had been written down long ago.

Thus, the utterances systematically used by a set of native speakers are grammatical. But what is grammatical need not be acceptable as well. In fact, grammaticality and acceptability are two distinct but related notions. What is grammatical need not always be acceptable, but what is acceptable will be grammatical also. This is based on the fact that grammar is a set of normative rules that tell us how a language should be used. In fact, grammaticality and acceptability are two different but related notions. The famous example of Noam Chomsky given in his syntactic Structures is illustrative of this idea: "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously" as it conveys no sense.

Acceptability determined by context or situation is referred to as appropriateness. In matters relating to grammatical usage, it is advisable to talk about appropriateness rather than correctness. Appropriateness in language is similar to the notion of appropriateness in dress. Similarly it would be inappropriate if one begins one's letter like, 'Hi chum'. The very reason is that the situation demands a formal expression. Sentence like

- My sorrow knows no bounds, madam, at perceiving that I have inadvertently been the cause of spilling tea on your person.

Instead of :

- Sorry, I spilt tea on you

The unacceptability rises from ungrammaticality and inappropriateness. Appropriate grammatical constructions which challenge our memory power are not always acceptable. It is very difficult for a listener or a reader to understand highly complex constructions. This is the psychological aspect of acceptability. Acceptability determined by different factors based on the linguistic, situational and psychological. Appropriateness is decided by the context. Perfectly grammatical or 'correct' sentences may be appropriate or inappropriate, depending upon the situation or context.

Thus unacceptability may be due to either ungrammaticality or inappropriateness. Yet another source of unacceptability is complexity. Extremely complicated and involved sentences. Even though grammatical, it will be difficult to understand and hence may not be acceptable. It may be also due to ungrammaticality, inappropriateness (which may be due to context of use, or variations of dialect, register, etc.) complexity or semantic oddity. Grammaticality is a theoretical notion, acceptability an observational one.

### 5.5.2. Structural / Descriptive Linguistics and Grammar:

Structural grammar was a counteract against notional grammar of the traditional kind. Language is composed of units and these units determine the structure of a language. The grammarian's task is to establish these units and show their relationships to one another at the same level and also to units at other levels. Structural grammar was a reaction against traditional grammar. The basic assumptions of structuralism may be summed up as follows: (from Dr. V. Syamala's Book: Prescribed Text book



for this course)

1. Linguistics is an autonomous scientific discipline. The linguist's data is a limited stock of utterances by native speakers of the language, and he should analyse it to identify the linguistic units. The discovery procedures should be rigorously empirical and scientific and this led to the rejection of all data that was not directly observable or physically measurable. Consequently, meaning was banished from linguistic analysis and form was given too much importance.
2. The analysis of a language proceeds from the smallest unit, the sound to the largest unit, the sentence and hence analysis proceeds in the order of phonology, morphology and syntax, to the neglect of semantics.
3. Every language has its own unique structure and hence should be studied in terms of its own internal structure. There is no universal grammar.
4. Speech is primary and writing only secondary. Traditional grammarians considered the spoken form as an inferior and corrupt version of language.
5. Language varieties should be studied and described objectively. No variety is to be regarded as superior or inferior to others. For non-linguistic reasons one variety may acquire social prestige and become the standard variety, but no language is 'primitive' or 'backward'; all languages are equally efficient as far as the communicative needs of their users are concerned. The linguist should not make value judgements such as 'bad English' or 'good English'
6. The linguist should only discover and describe the rules governing a language and not prescribe rules and norms. His criterion of correctness should be the usage of the native speaker. Structural grammars were descriptive and not prescriptive and linguistic descriptions had maximum explicitness.
7. A language is an arbitrary system of articulated sounds employed by a human community for the purpose of communication.
8. Language is a form of human behaviour, a set of habits and conventions, and like any other habit will be acquired by the members of a linguistic community.
9. A language is subject to change and hence linguistic changes should



be taken as natural linguistic phenomena.

10. The principles of contrast and complementation are important. Where there is contrast, there is a meaning change and where there is complementation, members of the same unit occur in a predictable manner (eg. allophones and allomorphs)

Thus, structural grammar is principle based rules and regulations. Structuralists never compromise the deficit of certain issues like meaning of the word or purpose of the word at its use. For example

- The old man kicked the bucket

As far as structuralists, the meaning of the sentence is that the old man kicked the bucket - the hidden meaning of the sentence is not extended. Whereas euphemistically, the meaning of the sentence is that 'the old man is dead'. 'Kicked the bucket' is associated with 'death' in meaning. These are all the constraints in the structural grammar.

### 5.5.3. Immediate Constituent Analysis (IC Analysis)

Immediate Constituent Analysis (IC Analysis) is the process of cutting words as per morphological process to identify the word in a sentence in all the possible ways to bring forth its structure and meaning. This method was initially introduced by Leonard Bloomfield and later it was systematized by Rulon Wells and Zellig Harris. This aims to analyze the sentence into the smallest unit level as phoneme in sound and morpheme in words. It is known that each word / a sentence is the combination of several elements. For example

'He writes a letter' can be analyzed as follows:

- **He:** subject, third person singular pronoun, gender wise masculine
- **writes:** does + write as plural form for third person singular noun 'he'
- **write:** main verb, denotes an action
- **'s'** inflectional suffix identifies the verb for third person singular pronoun, the tense is present tense and the auxiliary verb is 'does'
- **a:** determiner, article, non- vowel sound noun succeeded
- **letter:** noun, direct object

This method of ICs is helpful to understand the sentence structure. The process of cutting the word maximum to the level of affixes in order to list out the form and function classes in a sentence. The binary cutting

is the only method for the segmentation of the sentences into words and further into morphemes. This type binary cutting words from the sentence is called Immediate Constituent Analysis. Binary method is allowed to break the word at time only immediate two. It will not allow to break the words parallelly. For example figure 5.5.3.1 shows how the sentence is dissected as per binary method:

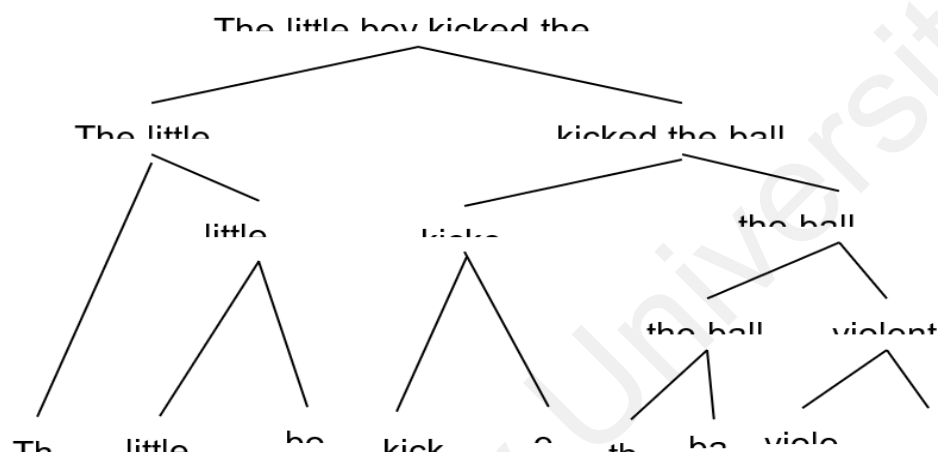


Figure: 5.5.3.1

[The little boy kicked the ball violently]

1. [The little boy] [kicked the ball violently]
2. [The] [little boy] [kicked] [the ball violently]
3. [little] [boy]
4. [kick] [ed]
5. [the] [ball]
6. [violent] [ly]
7. [The] [little] [boy] [kick] [ed] [the] [ball] [violent] [ly]

The tree diagram and the bracketing show the IC analysis of the sentence. The seven levels of construction can be further divided under the binary process. Each stage of the division, the two immediate constituents are called the immediate constituents or ICs of . The sentence is broken into its smallest constituents, viz., the morphemes. Hence the construction (7) is called the ultimate constituents of the sentence, ie., the smallest meaningful units into which the sentence can be broken up.

Table:5.5.3.2: Binary process of IC analysis

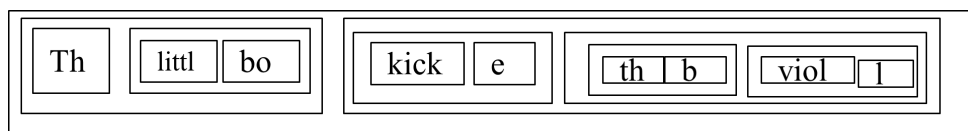
Construction	constituents
The little boy kicked the ball violently	[The little boy] [kicked the ball violently]
The little boy	[The] [little boy]
little boy	[little] [boy]
kicked the ball violently	[kicked] [the ball violently]
kicked	[kick] [ed]
the ball violently	[the ball] [violently]
the ball	[the] [ball]
violently	[violent] [ly]

A construction is the individual morpheme extended to the level of a sentence is called construction of the sentence. Morpheme level smaller units are called constituent. Number of constituents construct the sentence. Thus, in the example given, the whole sentence is a construction and each of the morphemes is a constituent. All, except the smallest constituents, ie. the ultimate constituents, are constructions, and all, except the largest construction, ie., the entire sentence, are constituents. Again 'the little boy' is a construction whose constituents are 'the' and 'little boy'. When 'little boy' is a construction, constituents are 'little' and 'boy' and so on.

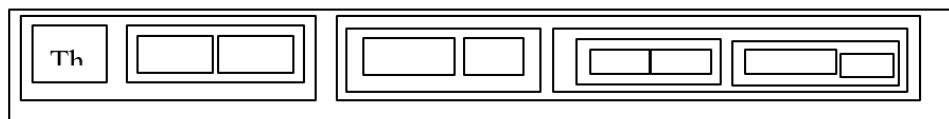
IC analysis, thus, attempts to break down constructions into successive layers of ICs and of immediate constructions. IC cuts are usually binary, ie., each construction is divided into two constituents at a time. But in 'foot pound second' is to be cut into three ICs: foot / pound / second. Here a binary cut is not possible.

There are different methods of representing IC analysis, such as,

#### 1. Box diagrams:



## 2. Topless Box



## 3. Brackets:

[The] [little] [boy]} {[kick] [ed] [the] [ball] [violent] [ly]}

As far as IC analysis there are no hard and fast rules. The native speaker's intuition tells him where the most fundamental cut should be. He will cut it into pairs between which he feels the closest and most direct relationship exists. For Example the word - 'unfaithfully' will be broken down into:

- unfaithfully → [un]- [faithfully]
- un-faithfully → [un]- [faith]-[fully]
- un-faith-fully → [un]- [faith]-[ful]-[ly]

Many kinds of immediate constituent analysis comes under multi-step and stagewise processing..

H.A. Gleason suggests the following methods for determining the ICs for sentence construction.

1. The basic method is that of comparing samples. For example, let us divide the construction 'his father's car' into its ICs. This may be divided into four ways:

- (a) his / father's car
  - (b) his father's / car
  - (c) his [father's] car - 'father's' is one IC and 'his car' another
  - (d) his / father's / car
- 'his car' or 'his father's car'.

If the construction had only two constituents, there would be no problem. Sam's car is such a construction. Since 'Sam's car' replaced 'his father's', the two may be regarded as equivalent and we will divide the construction as her father's /car; Sam's/car. Such a comparison helps us to identify ICs in many cases, but not in all. Another example is 'old light church' and 'old light house'. It can possibly be divided as 'old light' / 'church' not as 'old' / 'light church' whereas 'old' / 'light house' not as 'old light' / 'house'.

2. Suprasegmentals play a decisive role in assisting the native speaker to determine the IC cuts. In finding comparable constructions, only constructions with similar stress and intonation should be compared.

3. One useful test for determining ICs is that of freedom of occurrence. If we break up an utterance into smaller parts, we find that these parts occur in other utterances also. The shorter portions like words and inflectional endings occur more freely than the longer ones.

‘lighthouse keeping’ can be possibly divided as  
 ‘lighthouse’ and ‘keeping’ or  
 ‘light’ and ‘house keeping’.

With considerable freedom of occurrence either way. In order to cut it into ICs, it is necessary to know which of the two is acceptable in a context. Such a construction is an example of constructional homonymity. Example: ‘stout major’s’ wife to be identified as ‘stout’ / ‘major’s wife’ or ‘stout major’s’ / ‘wife’.

4. Yet another useful test for ICs is substitutability. When we compare ‘her father’s car’ with ‘Sam’s car’, we were assuming that they have the same constructional pattern and constituents. ‘Sam’ here does not mean identical. It may be collected a number of utterances containing her father’s and try the substitution of Sam’s into them or conversely substituting her father’s for Sam’s. Sam’s is not therefore a constituent in this construction.

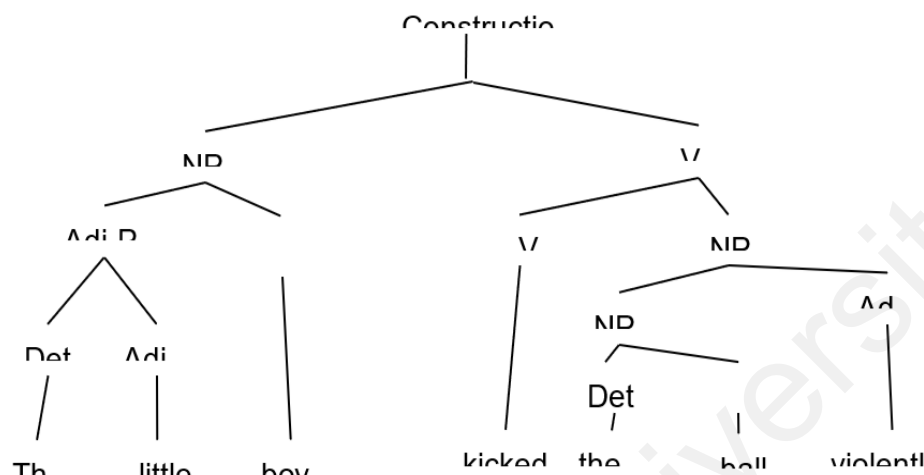
Though generally IC cuts are binary, there are constructions of three continuous sequences which have to be analyzed into three ICs. For example, ‘men and women’ may be divided into three ICs: men / and / women. Thus there is provision for multiple ICs in IC analysis.

### **Labelled IC analysis:**

The construction of the sentence is divided into minimal unit of morpheme as constituents. Then the constituents are named as per its representation such as determiner, adjective, noun, verb, etc. This process is called labelled IC analysis. There are two types of labelled IC analysis as Class labels and Function labels.

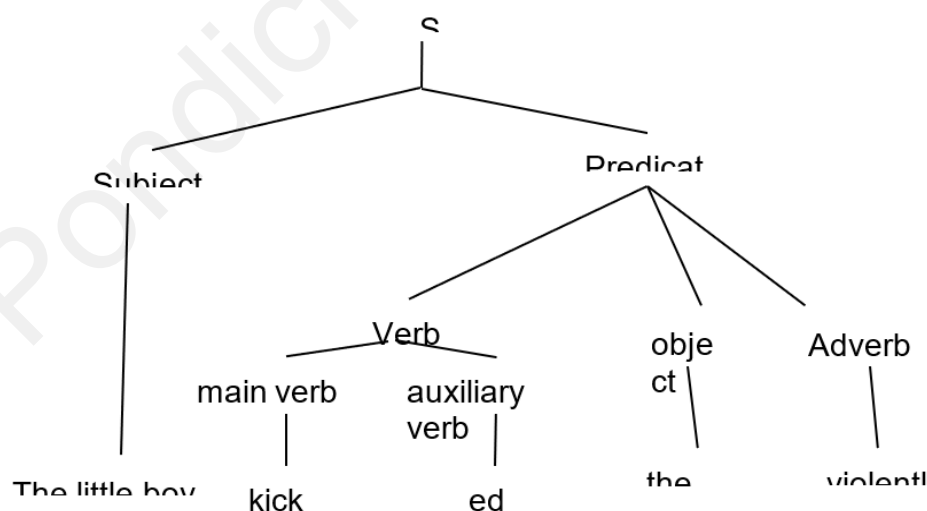
1. Class labels are NP-noun phrase, VP-verb phrase, A-article, Adj.-Adjectives, etc.
2. Functions labels are S-Subject, V-verb, O-object, etc.

For Example 'The little boy kicked the ball violently' is labelled in class label as:



The above labels are formal and indicate the class in which each constituent belongs.

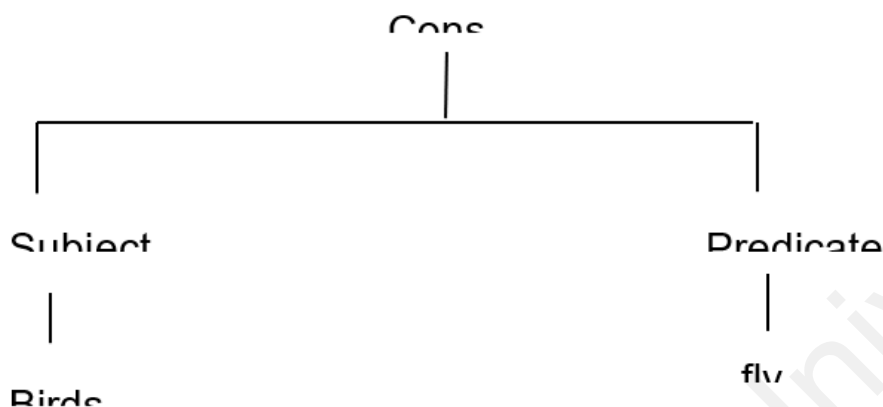
Functional labels are used to know the surface structure of the sentence as Subject, predicate, object, complementary etc. For example the NP 'the little boy' is the subject and the NP 'the ball' 'kicked' is verb (kick is main verb and 'ed' is auxiliary verb) and violently as 'adverb'. See the tree diagram for functional labels:



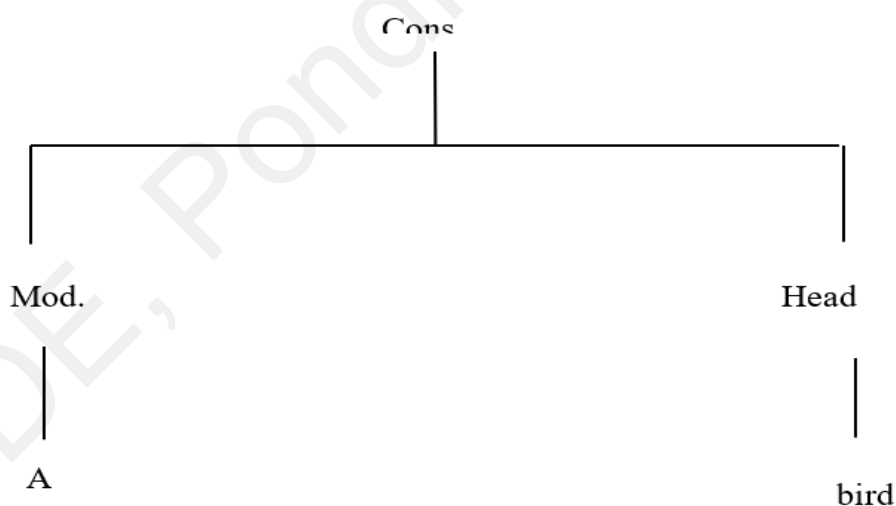
In terms of the functions of the constituents, construction is divided into five types. They are:

1. **The Structure of Predication:** In this type the construction is broadly divided into two as subject (S) and Predicate (p). As far as subject, it may be a word or phrase or clause denoting the first part of the sentence as subject. A structure of predication consists of a

subject. The predicate consists of verbs and verb phrases only. The sentence is in grammatical structure subject to be followed with the predicated. If the predicate follow the subject is is called 'inversion' such type. In the binary cut as follows: Subject + Predicate, eg. Sun rises, birds fly, dogs bark etc.

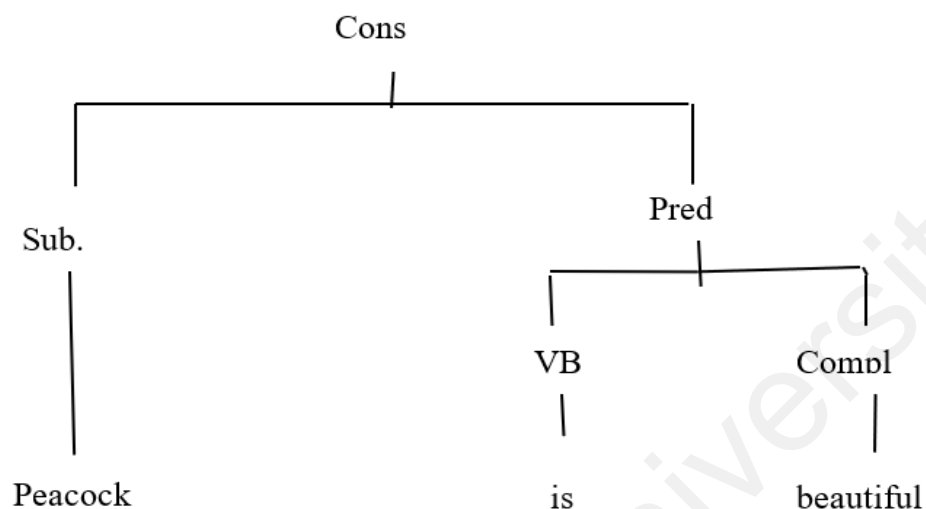


2. **The Structure of Modification:** In the constituents of the word the immediate division NP consists of a head and modifier. The head (H) will deliver the meaning of the word and modifier (M) will add or specify the meaning of the word. In terms of ordering, the modifier can precede or follow the head with a binary cut into modifier + head e.g. A bird

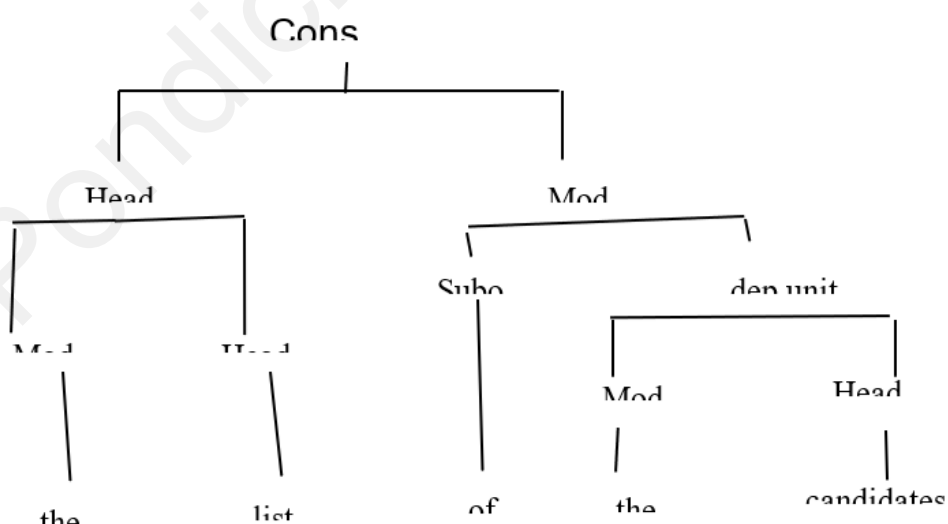


3. **Structure of Complementation:** In the construction of the sentence, the predicate is composition verb alone or verbal phrase or verb with complement. The verb may be finite or infinite verb and the role of complement to the verb is also necessarily acknowledged. The verb is coined as 'VB' and the complement is abbreviated as

‘compl’ The sentence ‘Peacock is beautiful’ is analysed as per ICs analysis as below:



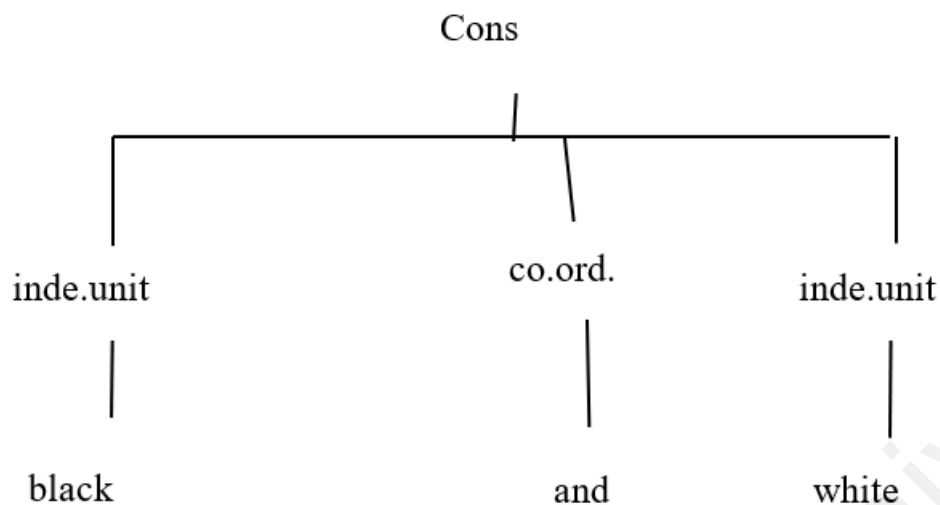
4. **Structure of Subordination:** The incomplete part of the sentence / clause / phrase is called subordination respectively as sentence / clause / phrase. The subordination is composition of preposition / article with noun. At this juncture, the word is divided to the level Head and modifier. Head means the root of the word. Modifier is to increase the quality of the head with the help determiners. For example the phrase: ‘list of the candidates’



5. **Structure of Coordination:** The complete part of the sentence / clause / phrase is called coordination respectively as sentence / clause / phrase. The coordination is composition of nouns with conjunction. When the word is divided to the level as an independent unit and coordination unit. Independent unit means the word gives its own independent meaning. Coordination is the link element to



bridge the independent units.. For example the phrase: Eg.black and white



In this type of construction we have non-binary cuts, The labels like subject, predicate, head, etc., are functional labels and NP, VP, N etc. categorial / formal labels.

#### Advantages of IC Analysis:

1. IC analysis helps to identify the sentence as per its hierarchy and allow the

sentences only as per the word order. For example,

- An old man with a walking stick crossed the main road in the morning.

this sentence provides a lot of units through binary cuts and finds it easy to understand the meaning of the sentence as per its bracketing or tree diagram. The nature of the sentence and its parts to be explained to the reader to understand such a sentence.

2. In some cases the binary cutting of the word needs a proper way to bring the

meaning of the phrase / word accordingly otherwise the meaning will be ambiguous . For example;

- Old boys and parents meeting to be held at the seminar Hall.

The ambiguity in the meaning of

- 'old boys' - means passed out students / old age students (if it is so why not men)

- Parents - old parents / young parents / old boys parents / current year students.

### **Limitations of IC Analysis:**

1. Constructional homonymy or the problem of ambiguity: There are certain words identical in forms but different in meanings. The same sequences can thus have more than one meaning because of different grammatical relations between the constituents i.e. the same category functioning differently. For example

eg the phrase 'hunting dogs'.

- dogs are hunted
- dogs for hunting

Take for another example 'bank' similar in spelling but different in meaning. This type is lexical ambiguity.

- The place where money has been transacted.
- The spot of the river side.

In Constructional ambiguity the word order and its restriction is the problem to get its meaning. For example the phrase 'old men and women'. If it is old men and old women, there is no problem with getting its meaning. Otherwise, 'old men' / 'young women' again there is no confusion in meaning. But the IC's cutting creates only as

- old man
- women.

Derivational ambiguity is again how the word associates to the level of its cutting

For example: 'the love of God'.

- God's love
- love for God

2. The problem of discontinuity or discontinuous ICs: The interrogative sentences cannot be divided as per word order. Do you like tea? In such cases do and tea are by order separated but binary cut is allowed to do and you instead of do and like. Such category are known as discontinuity ICs. Another example is the construction 'Is he coming?' as per binary cut

- he
- is ... coming?

Both 'he' and 'is ...coming' are failed to convey the purpose of IC, such a type is known as discontinuity.

3. The problem of embedding: In complex sentences through the IC Analysis the construction is very difficult to divide into meaningful binary cut For example the construction 'The man who came by car is my relative.'

- The man is my relative
- The man came by car.
- The man came by car so he is my relative.
- My relatives used to come only by car. etc..

Due to embedding the meaning will differ based on the intention of the speaker or listener or the reader.

4. The problem of conjoining: IC Analysis is inadequate to handle conjoint also which occurs when elements are added or joined to other similar elements. eg the construction 'Do you like beer, brandy, whisky or rum?'

- Do you like beer?
- Do you like brandy?
- Do you like whisky?
- Do you like rum?

Embedding and conjoint illustrate the human language called recursion, the possibility of indefinitely reapplying the same rules of grammar so that a sentence may in theory be infinitely long. Such sentences can be expanded again and again (refer to the above sentences).

5. The problem of structural similarity and different grammatical relations among constituents: IC analysis shows the following two sentences as similar in structure but they are different in grammatical and semantic.

- Ram is easy to please (anyone can please Ram easily)
- Ram is eager to please (Ram can please anyone)

the above sentences are alike in surface structure but the constituents have different grammatical relations.

6. The problem of inter-sentence relationships: Through ICs analysis it is difficult to bring the association of one sentence with another. For instance, IC analysis cannot provide any information about the close relationship between two sentences like the following sentences which are semantically similar but structurally different.

- Who does not love his motherland?  
Everybody loves his motherland
- Kapil hit a six  
A six was hit by Kapil.

7. The problem of what is called 'a group genitive'. The group genitive or possessive (the possessive marker apostrophe) maker to be marked at the end of the phrase. So by binary cut the meaning of the possessive will be completely lost. For example

- 'King Hamlet of Denmark's son (Hamlet's son not Denmark's son)
- 'The merchant of Venice's Story,' (The merchant story not Venice story)

8. The problem of overlapping ICs. It is common in a sentence having some parts that are the same or happen at the same time. Such division cannot be traced in binary cut. For example:

- He likes neither tea or coffee.

This type of overlapping sentences cannot be identified through the constituents of ICs analysis.

9. The problem of multiple ICs. Certain constructions are divisible into two ICs. The first of the two ICs of For example:

- An intelligent, smart, sprightly boy
  - An intelligent / smart, sprightly boy
  - An / intelligent / smart / sprightly boy
  - An / intelligent / smart / sprightly / boy
- has to be cut into more than two ICs.

10. The problem of understood elements: In the sentence commands and request, the sentence will begin with verb or request or command form, such kind of sentences cannot give the assumed meaning through the constituents. For example,

- Please shut the door (the subject is missing)

the subject 'you' can be understood through the meaning of the sentence.

Thus, the ICs analysis has certain limitations to apply for all types of sentences. Though the system is improving the quality of the sentence, incomplete / understood types of sentences are very difficult to bring the meaning accordingly. So inevitably the next stage of ICs analysis is developed under the context of Phrase Structure Grammar which forms the basic component of Transformational Generative Grammar.

#### 5.5.4. PS Grammar: Constituents of NP and VP:

The structural description of the grammar is sophisticatedly structured and called as Phrase Structure Grammar or PS Grammar. Though this PS Grammar a set of rules or rewrite rules is structured in order to explain the division of constituents more effectively. Rewrite rules is using the symbol arrow and the derivation of the sentence is expanded after the arrow symbol. For example:

S        →        NP + VP

The sentence S expanded to the next level is NP and VP. in such way the sentence is analyzed as PSG. The NP, VP are called nodes.

A rewrite rule is a replacement rule in which the symbol to the left of the arrow is replaced by the expanded form written to the right of the arrow. The underlying string of the following sentence by framing the PS rules:

My sister bought a car

as per the phrase-structure rule it has been written as follows:

S        →        NP + VP        (Rule No.1)

VP        →        Aux. +V + NP        (Rule No.2)

NP        →        Det. + N        (Rule No.3)

Aux.→        Tense        (Rule No.4)

Det.→        pronoun        (Rule No.5)

N        →        sister, car        (Rule No.6)

V → buy ( did +buy) (Rule No.7)

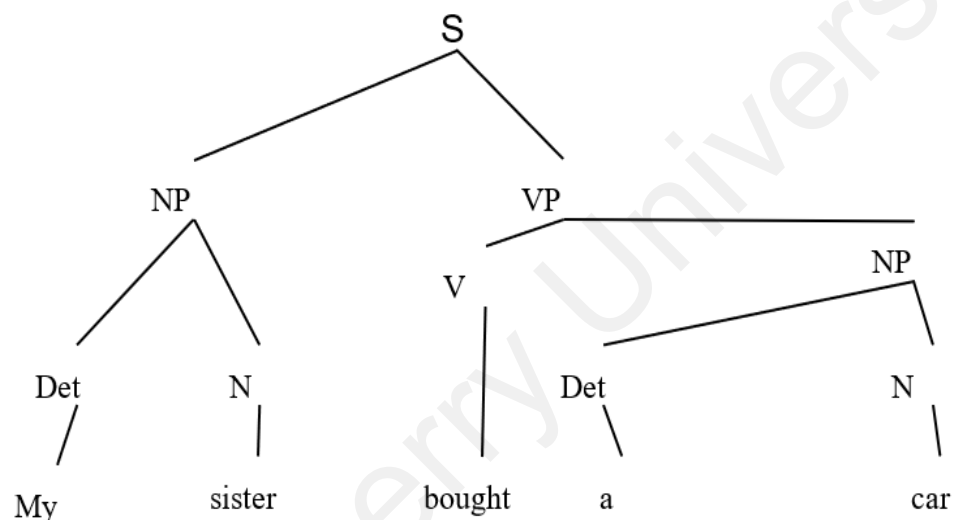
Tense → past tense (did) (Rule No.8)

Det.→ my, a (Rule No.9)

The string we get is:

S [My + sister + past.+buy+a+car]

This sentence is represented by a tree diagram with P- markers.



The Phrase Marker or P Marker is the representation of the structure of the sentence. NP and VP are called as nodes. Every node in the tree diagram represents the division of words is called branching node. If there is no further division it is called a non-branching node. If the string is expanded with further nodes it is called a non-terminal node. The final string at the end is called the terminal string.

PS Grammar Enables to bring the following points through the sentence:

1. My sister bought a car is a grammatically structured sentence.
2. my sister and a car are noun phrases
3. bought a car is a verb phrase
4. bought is a verb. the verb is in past tense (did + buy)
5. sister and car nouns (singular)
6. my is a determiner (pronoun), a is another determiner (article)
7. The Phrase marker represents the derivation diagrammatically
8. The tree, that is the Phrase Marker is also the Structural Description

of the sentence.

9. S is a string (sentence)
10. NP and VP are substrings (phrases)
11. S is a higher unit than NP and VP.

Likewise,

S dominates NP and VP

VP dominates Aux. + V + NP

NP dominates Det. + N

N dominates sister, car

V dominates buy ( did +buy) and so on.

12. The derivation shows the elements, the operation and the relation
13. This type helps to frame the sentence grammatically
14. Traditional 'parsing' and IC analysis are organized by this grammar.
15. This grammar is formal and different from other grammar.

The sentence "My sister bought a car" can be written in four sentences with the help of the PS rules as:

1. My sister bought a car
2. My sister bought my sister
3. A car bought my sister
4. A car bought a car

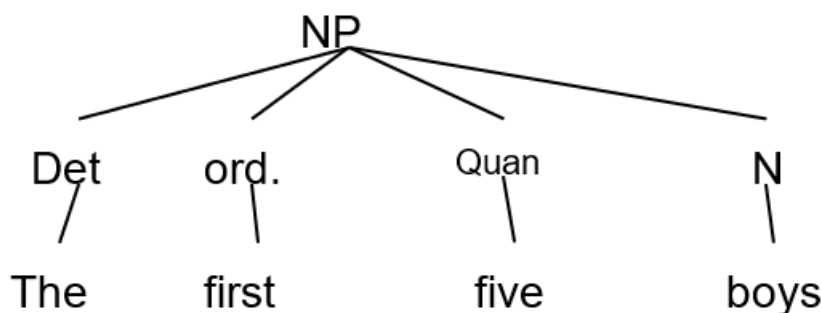
As per PS grammar the above sentences are possible to frame. But there is semantic values of the sentences 3 and 4. Even the 2 sentence also failed to supply the logical sequence of the meaning. So PS rules limit the scope of the expansion of different kinds of sentences.

### **Certain phrase categories:**

**Constituents of an NP:** It may be consists of noun / pronoun in singular or plural forms. The preceded forms noun are as follows:

- a. Determiners: Articles, pronouns (all types), possessives of noun / pronouns are under this categories (eg. the book, his car etc.)
- b. Ordinals: first, second, etc. for example the first show, the third innings etc.
- c. Quantifiers: a few, many, one, two, etc. For example 'The first five

boys' as in tree diagram:



- d. Adjectival Phrase: all types of adjectives e.g. beautiful, handsome, nice, etc.
- e. Classifier: noun as adjective e.g. Medical student, Red rose etc.
- f. Pre-determiners: like all, half, etc.
- g. Prepositional phrase: order of the day.
- h. Relative clause: relative pronouns used to identify the sentence. Example: 'The girl **who** won the medal'.
- i. Complement clause: 'That the girl is not my relative'. 'That is not my relative' is the complement clause for the noun 'girl'

**Constituents of an VP:** It may be consists of main verb with auxiliary verb and followed with words or not. The Verb phrase is as follows:

- a. Main verb: action based vocabulary. Main verb denotes an action (eg. write, eat, love, like, inspire, see, etc.)
- b. Auxiliaries: Purpose is to identify the period or time of the action (i.e. main verb)
- c. There are four groups in auxiliaries;
  - 1. do, did, does, doing
  - 2. Have, has, had, having
  - 3. be - groups is, am, are, was, were, being, been , be
  - 4. models- shall, will, can, etc.

### Limitations of PS Grammar

- 1. PS Grammars do not show the inter-relationship between simple, complex and compound sentences. For example,
  - He saw the girl. He ran fastly. → Independent sentences.
  - On seeing the girl, he ran fastly → Simple sentence
  - As soon as he saw the girl, he ran fastly → complex sentence



- He saw the girl and so he ran fastly. → compound sentence

All the sentences convey the same meaning in different forms. Such thing is difficult to differentiate as per PS rules

2. Discontinuous constituents: Discontinuous-constituent is difficult to connect the strings and nodes as per PS Rules. For example:

- Is the Taj Mahal beautiful? → Interrogative sentence
- See, the beauty of the Taj Mahal. → Imperative sentence
- How beautiful the Taj Mahal is! → Exclamatory sentence

All the sentences convey the meaning differently in different forms. Such thing is difficult to differentiate as per PS rules

3. Similarly, the close relationship between the verb and the particle in phrases like 'call off', 'take of', etc., cannot be shown by PS rules. For example

- The strike is called off

Here the meaning of the sentence is with the prepositional phrase called off. As per PS rule it is split into P markers, then the meaning will be changed / ruined,

4. There is no provision to identify the ambiguities in the sentences. For example:

1. I saw the man in the bank.
2. I saw the man and his daughter with a blue umbrella.

Sentence (1) is called **lexical ambiguity** because the noun 'bank'

- is the place where money is dealing place or
- river side.

Sentence (2) is called **structural ambiguity** because the noun 'umbrella'

- who is holding the umbrella?
- man or his daughter.

Such kind of ambiguity is possible in all languages. As per PS rule it cannot be identify separately

5. The property of recursion, the process by which it can be go on joining sentences cannot be categorized into PS grammars For example:

- Alexander the Great is the man of perseverance, determination, energetic, arithmetic and also greedy to acquire the whole universe

under his vast empire.

This type of sentence is very difficult to mark with P markers.

6. Stylistic variations are also not accountable by PS rules. For example:

- Sam seldom visits me, Seldom does Sam visit me.

There is a PS rule for each of these sentences, but without showing that they are just stylistic variations of the same sentence.

These are all the limitations in PS grammar rules or rewrite rules. Though PS grammar method is perfecting the sentence, the concept or the purpose of the message cannot be detected through this.

#### 5.5.5.1. Transformational Generative Grammar

Transformational-generative grammar is one of the modern linguistic theories introduced by Noam Chomsky. TG grammar is transformational from the source grammar and generative by means of introducing the new things based on the suitability of the grammar. The important points based on this approach are as follows:

1. Language is a creative process. So this grammar allows the avenue for generative grounds.
  2. Speakers' competence is predominant than the understanding of the receiver end.
  3. System of rules and regulations governed through this method.
  4. Speaker's comprehensive mode of utterances are controlled by the rules and regulations of this method.
  5. Structuralists aim for the actual meaning of the sentences. Whereas this method aims for the scope of the language generatively or creatively.
  6. The difference between the output process and the input process of communication is sorted out through this transformational and generative method.
  7. The distinction between the surface structure of the sentence and deep structure sentence can be analysed through this method. Whereas it is not possible in IC analysis.
- Ram eats mango
  - Ram likes sweets

In IC analysis the construction of constituents are similar. But TG grammar helps to identify the differences through the deep structure mode.

8. The three components of TG grammar are: syntactic, semantic and phonological.

The syntactic is the central part to generate deep structure of the sentence.

The surface structure of the sentence represents the phonological component

The semantic component associates the meaning of the sentence.

9. Structural grammar describes the observed values only. Whereas TG grammar gives the scope for alternatives through the evaluation process.

#### 5.5.5.2. Transformational Generative

The term 'Transformational Generative' inevitably accepts the old with new changes if any. So any kind of sentence is for transformation and creates a new sentence through the generative process. For example:

- |    |                                     |                 |
|----|-------------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. | The police caught the thief.        | → Active voice  |
| 2. | The thief was caught by the police. | → passive voice |
| 3. | He is a doctor.                     | → Declarative   |
| 4. | Is he a doctor?                     | → Interrogative |
| 5. | See the doctor                      | → Imperative    |
| 6. | What a doctor he is!                | → Exclamatory   |

Sentence no. 1 is in active voice and also called as kernel. Whereas the second is called a transform. Because the kernel sentence is transformed to the other sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence. Structure is changed but the meaning of the sentence is maintained.

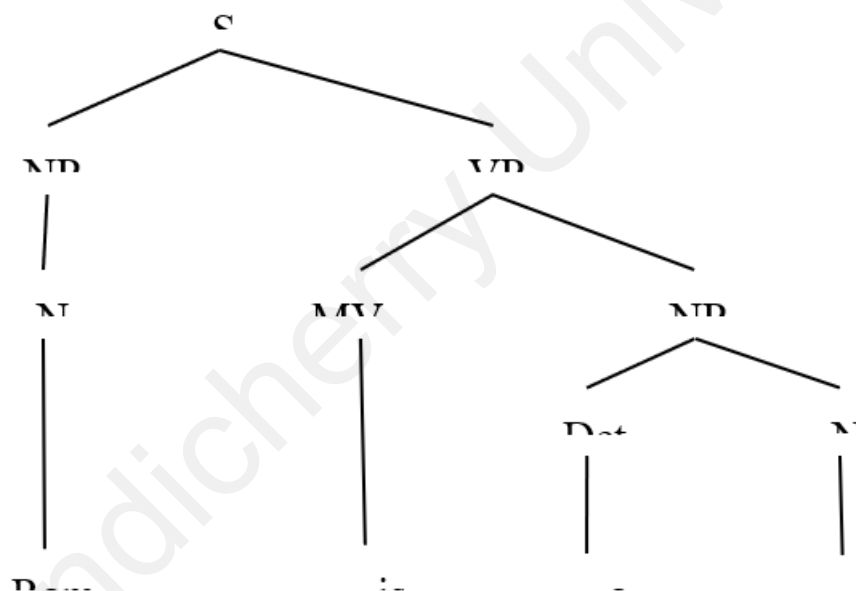
Similarly the sentences 3 to 6 are almost similar in meaning but different in structure. So all these sentences are eligible for transformational and also generate the semantic values accordingly. Such a scope is not available in IC's or PSG.

1. the base component / PS Component: Sentences are analyzed in terms of their syntactic structure. For example, the sentences

"Ram is a boy" can be analyzed as

- subject + verb + complement
- $S \rightarrow N + VP$
- $VP \rightarrow V + NP$
- $NP \rightarrow Det. + N$
- Therefore,  $S \rightarrow N + V + Det. + N$

The tree diagram for this sentence represents the structure of the sentence is marked with P markers with kernel strings as below:



2. Transformational Component: With the application of T rules the kernel sentences are changed into other sentence(s) as optional or obligatory.

Through embedding and conjoining many sentences are produced. For example:

1. Ram plays cricket
  2. Ram plays hockey.
- Ram plays both cricket and hockey
  - Ram plays cricket and hockey.
  - Ram plays cricket as well as hockey also.

Such type of expansion / extension / transformation / generative is possible by means of embedding or conjoining with optional T rules.

In Yes / No type questions the structure of the sentence is to be arranged in such a way to frame the question as follows:

- Do you like coffee?
- AV + S + MV + O+?

This order of structured sentence is obligatory to frame questions accordingly

3. Morphophonemic Rules: The output of morphemes at the terminal strings are moved to the next level for utterance i.e. phonemically is called morphophonemic rules. Here the terminal string identifies the last stage of the sentence to be produced. For example:

- My car is beautiful
- Det. N V Adj.

The string Det. + N + V + Adj moves next level for utterance through the spelling is under morphophonemic rules

#### 5.5.5.3. Generative

The term 'generative' grammar itself defines the scope of changes in the grammar. All the languages have the generative process to modify or create new things based on the needs of the languages respectively. TG grammar has finite number of rules whereas generative has infinite set of rules to produce many sentences.

Two important points related to the question of generation are (1) the contrast between discovery and evaluation and (2) competence and performance. The structuralists were concerned with rigorous discovery procedures, proceeding from phonology to syntax, neglecting semantics. TG believed in evaluation procedures for evaluating all the possible descriptions and selecting the best.

Generative grammar allows the speaker's knowledge based on his performance of the language. Each and every individual has innate capacity to deliver his speech with his own model or module. From this, the new theory, new form of the language can be increased. Some speakers believe that all languages are to be learned based on certain constraints.

Linguists observe the performance and competence of the native speakers' language with non-native speakers' language proficiency. Native speakers introduce the term with new form and skill. So the growth of

development is inevitable through the native speakers' usage of generative grammar. Non - native speakers use the grammar with a set of rules cautiously. This sort of competence versus performance relates to langue and parole.

Chomsky's three components are interrelated. In the syntactic component, the base is developed based on the PS rules and generates a deep structure of the sentence. The transformed surface structure of the sentence represents the phonological component. The semantic component generates the sentence accordingly.

This model is not for optional transformation. Active voice to passive voice sentences generate based on the optional transformation. This model allows Passive element to generate by PS rules as an optional element. The Deep structure of sentences like negative, question etc. can introduce the optional element

#### 5.5.5.4. Comparison with PSG:

PS grammar is exclusively based on the set of PS rules. For example:  
The man will hit the ball as per PS rules:

- $S \rightarrow NP + VP$
- $VP \rightarrow Verb + NP$
- $NP \rightarrow Det. + N$
- $V \rightarrow Aux + V$
- $Det. \rightarrow \text{article}$
- $N \rightarrow \text{man, ball}$
- $Aux \rightarrow \text{will,}$
- $V \rightarrow \text{hit, see}$
- $Det. \rightarrow \text{the}$

Applying the rule the string is generated as follows:

$$S \rightarrow Det. + N + AV + V + Det. + N.$$

The boy will hit the ball

This type of construction is impossible for phrases like 'trumpeting elephant', 'mother of invention' under this category. Whereas TG grammar has the avenue to explain such kind of ambiguities based on SS (Surface Structure) and DS (Deep Structure). The difference between PSG and TG models as follows:

PS Model	TG Model
do not require any derivational history	require derivational history
exclusively based on PS rules	includes both PS and T rules
no scope for transformation sentences	can change any type of sentences into another type
rewrites a symbol as a string	a string into another string
importance of constituents of a sentence	importance of language of the sentence
generate surface structures directly	deep structure is converted into surface structure through T rules
context free to choose and produce grammatical sentences	context sensitive, through transformation possible to delete or add of constituents.
follow an intrinsic, a trivial order	extrinsic, a cycle order

Thus, Transformational rules operate on the output of the underlying string as well as on their own string. PS rules are both binary and sequential. They do not generate a sentence but only the underlying string.

### 5.6. Suggested Readings & Questions

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**Questions:**

1. What is syntax?
2. What is a syntactic model?
3. Distinguish between diachronic and synchronic study.
4. What is normative grammar?
5. Write a short note on normative fallacy.
6. Bring out the difference between prescriptive and descriptive grammar.
7. Show in what way did traditional grammar lack explicitness.
8. What is the reason behind the neglect of spoken form in traditional grammar?
9. Why did the traditionalists ignore language variations?
10. What is meant by historical fallacy- Give examples.
11. Write a short note on the contribution of the linguists of the structural school.
12. Write on the principles of contrast and complementation
13. What is IC analysis?
14. What are Immediate constituents and what are ultimate constituents?
15. What is meant by construction?
16. Write on the opinion of the structuralists on language varieties.
17. Write on the role of suprasegmentals in making IC cuts
18. What are the advantages of IC Analysis?
19. What do you understand by the phrase 'freedom of occurrence'? How is it helpful in making the IC cut?
20. Bring out the difference between lexical and constructional homonymity.
21. Write a short note on the problem of discontinuity or discontinuous ICs.
22. Illustrate with an example that the IC analysis is inadequate for the sentences involving embedding.
23. How far is IC analysis successful in analyzing combined sentences?
24. What is meant by group genitive? What problem does it pose in IC Analysis?
25. Prove with an illustration that binary cut in IC Analysis is not helpful in all situations.



26. How far is IC Analysis successful in bringing out inter-sentence relationships?
27. Are there any provisions for indicating understood elements in IC Analysis? Substantiate your answer
28. How is labelled IC Analysis helpful in showing the relationships among the constituents?
29. What are the five types of constructions?
30. Explain what is meant by the structure of predication.
31. Illustrate the structure of modification with an example.
32. What is meant by the structure of subordination? Give example.
33. Illustrate the structure of complementation with an example.
34. Mention the different types of ambiguities. Give an example for each category.
35. Is there any provision for distinguishing the ambiguity created by overlapping ICs? Give examples
36. How far has bracketing and labelling help in overcoming the inadequacies of IC analysis?

#### **Paragraph questions.**

37. Illustrate Latinate fallacy with examples.
38. What is traditional Grammar?
39. Write a note on Historical fallacy.
40. What is meant by semantic fallacy?
41. What is logical fallacy? Give examples.
42. Write a short note on normative and prescriptive fallacy.
43. In what way did the traditional grammar lack explicitness.
44. Compare the attitude of the structuralists and traditionalists towards spoken form.
45. What are language variations?
46. Write on the traditionalist's view of the spoken form.
47. Write on the notions of grammaticality,
48. acceptability and appropriateness.
49. Write on any two methods suggested by H A
50. Gleason for determining the ICs of a construction
51. Explain the concept of freedom of occurrence

52. with regard to IC analysis.
53. Give the IC analysis for the sentence 'the Crazy
54. boys shouted loudly.
55. Give an account of labelled IC analysis and its uses.
56. Write on the five types of IC analysis based on the function of the constituents.
57. Write on the various reasons for ambiguities.
58. Write in detail about any five assumptions of the structuralists about language
59. How is comparing samples helpful in making IC cut?
60. Write a note on discontinuous ICs.
61. Explain with an illustration how IC analysis is inadequate in dealing with structural similarity and different grammatical relations among constituent.

#### **Essay Questions.**

62. Write on the basic assumptions of structuralism.
63. Write an essay on traditional fallacies.
64. Write on the different methods of IC analysis, giving examples
65. Write on the advantages of the IC analysis. Give examples to prove that I C analysis is helpful in solving some types of ambiguities.
66. Elaborate on the limitations of IC analysis.
67. What is labelled IC analysis? Bring out the advantages of labelled IC analysis.
68. Compare and contrast the traditional and structural grammar.
69. Write on the Various methods suggested by HA Gleason for determining the ICs of a construction.
70. Write an essay on how mixing up of criteria resulted in lack of explicitness in traditional grammar.
71. Illustrate Latinate fallacy and logical fallacy with examples.
72. Explain with examples the notions of grammaticality, acceptability and appropriateness.
73. Comment on the advantages of IC Analysis.
74. Comment on the limitations in IC analysis.
75. Describe Phrase Structure with suitable examples

76. Analyze the limitations of PS Grammar.
77. Describe Transformational Generative Grammar.
78. Describe Transformational Generative with its limitations.
79. Describe Generative Grammar.
80. Compare TG grammar with PS grammar

**Exercise:**

1. Provide examples for these sentence patterns:

S+ V + Adv.

S+ V+ Adj.

2. Analyze these sentences to using PS rules:

She is interesting.

Ali was in the class.

3. Draw the tree diagram for these sentences in detail.

The book which was on the table is mine

4. Draw a tree diagram for each of the following sentences using IC analysis:

I saw the beautiful garden in Eltham which the magazine featured

I enjoyed the experience of the movie.

5. Draw tree diagrams or (structure rules) for the following sentences. Identify every part of every phrase

The old tree swayed in the wind.

The very big man will hit the ball.

6. Draw a tree diagram and Box diagram for the sentence

The old man kicked the plastic bucket in the bathroom.