

# **Introduction to Linguistics**

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**(ENG502)**

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**Lesson-01****WHAT IS LANGUAGE?****Topic- 001: Introduction**

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. Language is used to express inner thoughts and emotions, make sense of complex and abstract thoughts, learn to communicate with others, fulfill our wants and needs, and to establish rules and maintain our culture. Language can be defined as verbal, physical, biologically innate, and a basic form of communication. The question ‘What is language?’ is equal to ‘What is life?’ It is difficult to define the word ‘language’ especially when it has many alternate words in other languages. In French, two words are found for the word ‘language’: ‘langage’ and ‘langue’ whereas in Italian the alternate words are ‘linguaggio’ and ‘lingua’. Anyone who possesses ‘a language’ such as English, Arabic, Urdu, etc., possesses ‘language’. One cannot possess (or use) natural language without possessing (or using) some particular natural language.

The term ‘natural language’ is applied to a variety of other systems of communication, notation or calculation, about which there is a room for dispute, e.g., computer or mathematical language are different from human language, so, they cannot count as natural languages. These notational systems are artificial, rather than natural, irrespective of whether they are rightly called languages or not. Pre-existing natural languages are called **Esperanto**. Thousands of recognizably distinct natural languages are spoken throughout the world. The main question here is to find out whether all natural languages have something in common not shared by other systems of communication i.e., animal communication and artificial languages created by human beings.

**Topic- 002: Language: A Purely Human and Non-instinctive Communication**

According to Sapir (1921, p.8), ‘language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols.’ This definition suffers from several defects. However, broadly, when the terms ‘idea’, ‘emotion’, and ‘desire’ are interpreted, it seems clear that there is much that is communicated by language which is not covered by any of them, and ‘idea’ in particular is inherently vague and imprecise. ‘Emotion’ and ‘desire’ are understandable but ‘idea’ needs to be precisely defined.

There are many systems of voluntarily produced symbols, for example body language in which symbols are voluntarily produced. ‘Purely human’ denotes that only human beings possess language and their communication system is very different from that of animals. Animals also have communication systems, for example, bees’ dance in which bees communicate each other about the place of nectar. Birds also use certain calls to attract each other’s attention or to convey where food can be found, etc. The next aspect of this definition is ‘non-instinctive’ which means non-inherited. It means that language is not inherited by the parents to the child. If parents take their child to another country, he will learn the language of that country rather the language of parents. Another aspect of this definition is ‘voluntarily produced’. Sapir excludes cries and groans from this definition because they also involuntarily produced.

This definition discussed in this lesson encompasses language as:

- A means of human communication
- A system of voluntarily produced symbols
- A non-instinctive method of communication

### **Topic- 003: Language: A Symbol System**

A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates. Language is a system of symbols and rules that enable us to communicate. The symbols used in a language can include speech sounds as well as writing symbols while the rules include grammar (e.g., pronouns, tense, etc.), parsing, and pragmatics. There is an arbitrary relationship between a linguistic symbol and its referent. Language provides context for symbolic understanding.

Every language has its own way of encoding and expressing human experience, and an entire way of thinking is lost each time a language becomes extinct. It is important to differentiate between language and communication. Communication is a process whereby there is an exchange of information between the sender and the receiver. This information can be transmitted through scent, song, gesture, tone, writing, painting, or language. Language is a symbolic form of communication.

### **Topic- 004: Behavioristic View of Language**

Language is ‘the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral—auditory arbitrary symbols’. Hall (1968, p.158), in his ‘An Essay on Language’, introduced the terms institution, and habitually used oral—auditory arbitrary symbols. The most noteworthy in Hall’s definition, however, is his use of the term ‘habitually used’ and there are historical reasons for this. Linguistics and the psychology of language were strongly influenced for about thirty years or so, especially in America, by the stimulus—response theories of the behaviourists. Within the theoretical framework of behaviourism, the term ‘habit’ acquired a rather special sense which laid the foundation of the term ‘habitually used.’

The term ‘habit’ was used with reference to the bits of behaviour that could be identified as predictable responses to particular stimuli. Hall presumably means by language ‘symbols’, the vocal signals that are actually transmitted from the sender to receiver in the process of communication and interaction. Now it is clear that there is no sense of the term ‘habit’, technical or non-technical, in which the utterances of a language are either themselves habits or constructed by means of habits. If ‘symbol’ is being used to refer, not to language-utterances, but to the words or phrases, it would still be wrong to imply that a speaker uses such and such a word, as a matter of habit, on such and such an occasion.

### **Topic- 005: Structural View of Language**

According to Chomsky’s ‘Syntactic Structure’ (1957), ‘a language is a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements.’ All natural languages, both spoken and written, are languages in the sense of his definition. Each language has a finite number of sounds and can create indefinitely many distinct sentences. It is the linguist’s job to differentiate between



sentence and non-sentence sequences. Chomsky believes that structural properties are complex, abstract, and highly specific which must be known to a child prior to his experience of any natural language. In this regard, Chomsky is a rationalist rather than empiricist. So, according to Chomsky, language is structure-dependent. The definition encompasses purely structural properties of language and suggests that these properties can be investigated mathematically.

### **Topic- 006: Miscellaneous Definitions of Language**

Language is the expression of ideas by means of which sounds are combined into words, and words are combined into sentences (Sweet, 1895). Language is a form of communication by means of which a system of symbols is principally transmitted by vocal sounds (Hobbins, 1990). Language is a human vocal noise (or graphic representation of this noise in writing) used systematically and conventionally by a community for the purpose of communication. (Crystal, 1989) Languages are infinitely extendable and modifiable according to changing needs and conditions of the speaker (Robins, 1979). A language consists of symbols that convey meaning, plus rules for combining those symbols, that can be used to generate an infinite variety of messages (Weiten, 2007). Language is not an abstract construction of the learned, or of dictionary makers, but is something arising out of the work, needs, ties, joys, affections, and tastes of long generations of humanity, and has its bases broad and low, close to the ground (Whitman).

The above-mentioned definitions encompass the following language properties:

- Arbitrariness
- Flexibility and modifiability
- Freedom from stimulus control
- Structure-dependence

**Lesson-02****HISTORY OF LANGUAGE****Topic- 007: Animal Communication and Language**

Earth's earliest organisms evolved primitive mechanisms of exchange capable of informing of species, gender and intent. The medium used was chemo communication. It was a complex method of communication. Continuous need over millions of years to contact another of the same evolving species in order to procreate necessitated ever more complex methods of communication.

Out of this evolutionary process, 'language' in its broadest sense, was born. Each type of language used in nature differs. The deeper one probes, the more one discovers each species' communicative ability distinguished by ever more elaborate definitions of the concept 'language'. In its simplest definition, language signifies 'medium of information exchange'. This definition allows the concept of language to encompass facial expressions, gestures, postures, whistles, hand signs, writing, mathematical language, programming (or computer) language, and so forth.

The definition further recognizes many bioacoustic exchanges of information (the sound emissions of life forms) that occur in frequencies beyond human hearing, for example, an average 15-year-old human can hear only about ten octaves at the loudness and closeness of normal conversation – that is, between 30-18,000 hertz (cycles per second). Birds, frogs, toads, and dogs all vocalize within this range.

**Bioacoustics**

Bioacoustics has turned its attention to fish as well, since, particularly during laying, many fish emit a representative 'complex sound', the first part of which consists of a train of partially overlapping pulses, and the second part of which is composed of rapidly repeated pulses that overlap, producing a constant waveform similar to a 'tone'.

**Infrasound**

However, most other creatures appear to communicate both below and above the range humans consider normal. Infrasound comprises emissions below 30 Hertz, such as many sounds made by finback whales, blue whales, elephants, crocodilians, ocean waves, volcanoes, earthquakes, and severe weather.

**Ultrasound**

Ultrasound occurs above 18,000 Hertz, frequencies commonly used by insects (Earth's most prevalent inhabitants), bats, dolphins and shrews. However, there is far more to language than vocal communication alone. In its most universal meaning, language is the nexus of the animate world, its limits drawn only by humankind's crayon.

History of language is considered history of human language. Though a history of language at the beginning of the twenty-first century is still implicitly a history of human language, it carries the suggestion that it might evolve to encompass many previously unknown forms of language.

The vocal communication of many amphibians, especially frogs, has in the past few years been intensively researched; though, one still looks in vain for any reference to a frog language. Vocal communication in its most primitive form, for example, is strikingly demonstrated by the humming midshipman fish of the Western coastline of the USA. The noise – a loud, resonant drone very much like that produced by an Australian didgeridoo – originates from a pair of muscles attached to the swim bladder that contract and vibrate against the stomach wall, and will continue moving for up to an hour. Once a female arrives, the humming promptly ceases. Several orders of insects also possess sound-producing organs evidently used for communication.

### **Communication through Pheromones**

Many of these use ultrasound, whose very existence was unknown to science until the latter half of the twentieth century. During courtship, both male and female moths, for example, communicate through pheromones (secretions exuded through specialized glands); the entire sequence of moth courtship behaviour involves ultrasound production as well. This very recent discovery has necessitated a reconsideration of moth courtship behaviour, with greater emphasis now laid on the interaction between the several modes of communicative expression.

### **Language of Ants**

However, when one hears of animal communication or language one commonly thinks of the languages of ants, honey-bees, birds, horses, elephants, cetaceans and great apes. Each ant can transmit at least 50 different messages using body language and pheromones. Ants' mandibular glands secrete alarm odours; the hind gut terminates in a rectal gland that exudes scent for trail-marking; exudings from the sternal gland are used to call nearby workers, and so forth. These highly specific chemical messages, combined with body language, seemingly offer an economical package containing the necessary information an individual ant must exchange with its fellow ants for the colony's survival.

In the first half of the twentieth century, the Austrian Zoologist, Karl von Frisch, revealed that honey-bees use dance to communicate, thereby stunning the world by demonstrating that even insignificant insects were capable of exchanging complex information about things remote in space and time. By means of a 'waggle dance', the honey-bee forager informs followers of the type (through proffered samples), quality (quantity of 180 degree turns of dance) and location (tracing a figure-eight design for distance and direction) of food she has found beyond the nest.

Keen birdwatchers have long thrilled to the March wren's vast repertoire of songs. And since antiquity it has been appreciated that some birds in the wild learn their songs in different contexts, a fact that suggests birds attach different meanings to their vocalizations. Recent field research has apparently confirmed this. Birds display great individual differences in vocal abilities and inclinations, even among the most loquacious species. Some birds say nothing; others, it seems, never stop chattering. Larger

parrots are perhaps the animal kingdom's most phenomenal linguists, especially African Greys and Amazons (yellow napes, double yellow heads, red-lores and blue fronts). Scarlet and blue-and-red macaws can vocalize well, too; but they are commonly hoarse and loud. Cockatoos, fine talkers, possess mellifluous voices; however, like the macaws, they are difficult to teach.

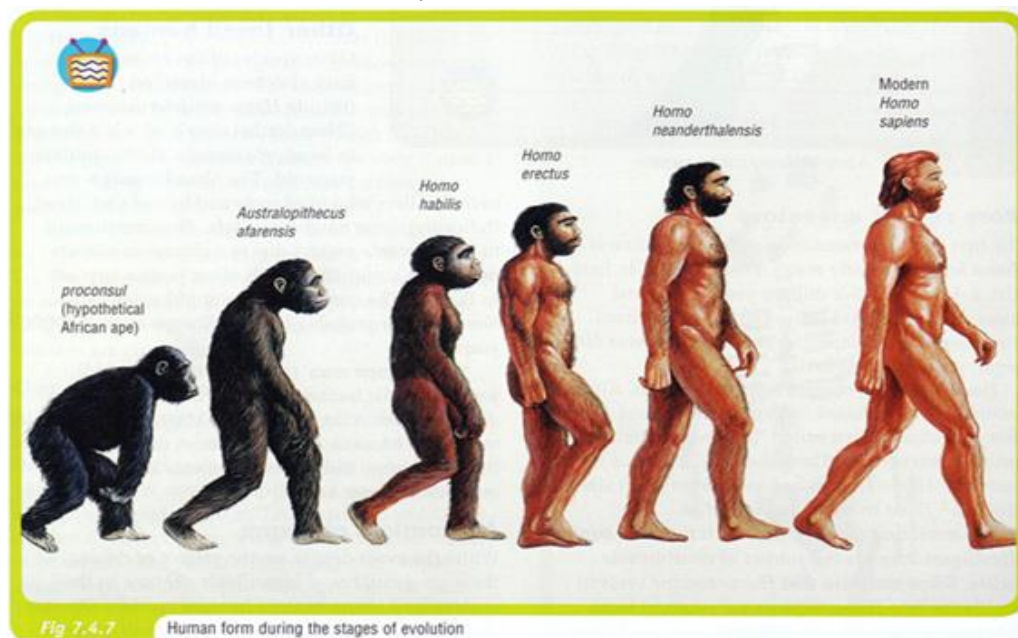
### Is There Truly a Non-human Language?

Is there truly a non-human language? Or are we merely bestowing language on non-humans, perhaps reading language into what is really non-language? As the Austrian-born philosopher, Ludwig Wittgenstein wrote: 'If a lion could talk, we would not understand him.' Great ape communication in the wild differs significantly from human-ape communication in the laboratory: the former comprises a rich combination of body language and vocalizations, whereas the latter is an artificial human environment prompting apes to respond using human symbols or words. However, a wealth of controlled tests has demonstrated, perhaps beyond any critical doubt, that, though the medium is unnatural and trained, the result of these human-animal experiments is spontaneous and creative communication – that is, the vocal or signed exchange of significant information. Using pre-existent neural pathways, animals are indeed speaking to us, and with us, in a meaningful way.

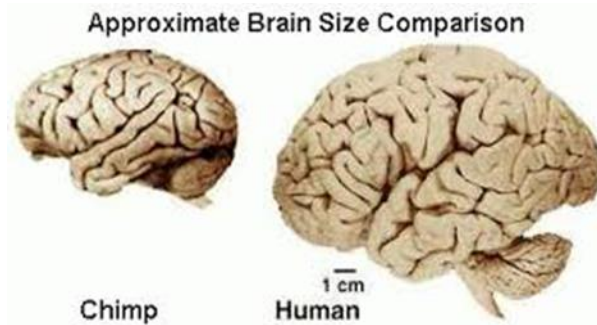
### Topic- 008: Talking Apes

#### Neural Pathway of Our Great Ape Antecedents

Our great ape antecedents evidently possessed precisely those neural pathways necessary for various modes of communicative expression to convey information adequately. However, the great apes' lips and tongue lacked coordinated control; they were also incapable of controlled exhalation. Even if these great apes had physically been able to speak, their 'speech' would probably have been nothing similar to how we understand this word today.



## Modern Human Brain



The modern human brain is two to three times greater in volume than that of any living great ape; it imparts an enhanced ability to use and further elaborate spoken language and to reason with it. A history of human language is also a history of the human brain and its cognitive abilities; the two go hand in hand.

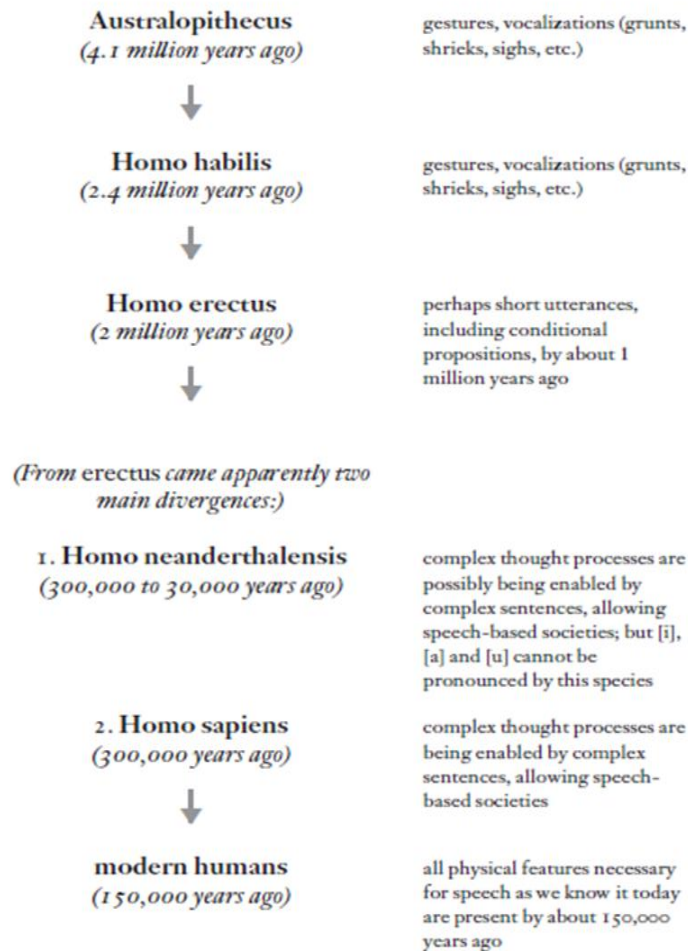
## History of Human Language – Human Brain

Seven to five million years ago in Africa, probably as a result of differing diets, hominids split from other primitive ape species. Two major genera of hominids have differentiated the genus *Australopithecus* and the genus *Homo*. According to some experts, because of a high-calorie diet, brain capacity increased in comparison to body weight.

However, an *Australopithecus africanus* of three million years ago, for example, would have demonstrated a linguistic ability in no way different from a modern gorilla's, chimpanzee's or bonobo's. They could communicate through gestures and vocalization. As they had mastered bipedalism, *Australopithecines* were walking great apes, but most experts agree that they were not talking great apes.

Then come *Homo habilis* (2.4 million years ago); they could also make gestures and had vocalization. *Homo erectus* (2.5 million years ago) could make short utterance and conditional prepositions (1 million years ago). From *erectus* came two main divergences: *Homo neanderthalensis*, (300,000 to 30,000 years ago) and *Homo sapiens* (300,000 years ago). Most experts agree that Neanderthals used a rudimentary language close to our own; nothing else can explain their complex tool manufacture and high level of society. They had complex thought as they could make complex sentences. Theirs was speech based societies, however, they were unable to pronounce [i], [a], [u].

*Homo sapiens* were the only hominid species that survived evolution. They emerged as the predecessor of the modern humans. They had complex thoughts due to complex sentences. They had speech based societies. They had learnt to harvest and their main crops were wheat, oats and barley.



### Topic- 009: Written Language

‘A scribe whose hand matches the mouth, he is indeed a scribe’, wrote an anonymous Sumerian on clay some 4,000 years ago and in so doing captured the very essence of writing. Writing did not gradually ‘evolve’ from mute pictures. It began immediately as the graphic expression of actual human speech and has remained so.

Even the earliest Egyptian hieroglyph (a system of writing that uses pictures instead of words, especially as used in ancient Egypt) from around 3400 BC that immortalized a jackal, would have immediately evoked in its reader’s mind the Egyptian word for ‘jackal’. No single person ‘invented’ writing. Writing first emerged, in a broad swath from Egypt to the Indus Valley, apparently as a result of improving an ancient system of tallies and labels. A tradesman or official improved a tally or label by pictorially depicting the commodity that was being counted, measured or weighed in order to lessen ambiguity.





### Three General Classes of Script

The most basic model of written language acknowledges three general classes of scripts, with many transitional variants and combinations (mixed scripts):

#### A Logographic Script

A logographic script permits a glyph (an elemental symbol within an agreed set of symbols, intended to represent a readable character for the purposes of writing) to represent a single morpheme (the smallest meaningful linguistic unit, such as the three morphemes in English mean + ing +ful) or an entire word ('jackal' as in the early Egyptian hieroglyphic script).

#### A Syllabic Script

A syllabic script comprises glyphs that have only syllabo-phonetic value (for example, ko-no-so for 'Knossos' as in the scripts of the Bronze Age).

## **An Alphabetic Script**

An alphabetic script allows glyphs called ‘letters’ to stand for individual vowels and consonants (a, b, c as in the English alphabet).

## **Syllabic Systems**

Over time, most historical scripts reflect a shift in emphasis of class, whereby the earlier semantic or sense content is gradually superseded by the phonetic or sound content: in this way, logographic systems have tended to become syllabic systems.

## **Uniqueness of Alphabetic System**

In contrast, the alphabetic system has remained unique: once it was developed – beginning in the Levant and completed in Greece – alphabetic writing was subsequently adopted by hundreds of languages. Today, the alphabetic writing system is the only one used to write previously scriptless languages.

## **Emergence of the Idea of Writing**

It is possible that the idea of writing emerged only once in human history, to be imitated thereafter by many societies. Until quite recently, it was believed by most scholars that this emergence occurred solely in Southern Mesopotamia (today’s South-Eastern Iraq).

## **Writing as a Magical Process**

In some cultures written language acquired veneration, as with the Hebrews of Canaan, ancient Germans and Easter Islanders. In such cases the graphic art of writing and not necessarily its transmitted message, was felt to be something apart from everyday existence, a transcendental communication to be practised only by special scribes or priests. Throughout history, the very act of writing has often been deemed a magical process.

## **Three Writing Systems**

The three classes of writing – logographic, syllabic and alphabetic (and their transitional and mixed usages) – are each maximized by a particular language, society and era. Writing systems experience fine-tuning as languages themselves change over time or a neighbouring language’s writing system is borrowed and radically altered to fit a different language.

## **Not Quality Grades**

The three classes are not quality grades, nor are they stages in a model of writing evolution; they are simply different forms of writing which are sometimes used to accommodate new and different needs as they arise. The most common goal is the best graphic reproduction of the writer’s spoken language.



## Changes in Writing Systems

Over centuries and millennia, constant small changes to a writing system will result in enormous differences in a script's written appearance and use. Even after more than 2,000 years, today's Latin alphabet, which has descended from the earliest Egyptian hieroglyphs, is still experiencing, in many different languages simultaneously, the addition of new system-external signs – or, because of new technologies, the semantic expansion of old signs – that each educated reader must learn, such as %, ¥, ™, © and, most recently, the Internet signage @ and //.

## Afro-Asiatic Writing

The peoples of Afro-Asia are perhaps the only ones in history to have elaborated writing without external inspiration. Everywhere else in the world, writing served the prerogatives of priests and propagandists, implying a cultural loan to obtain prestige and power.

## Asiatic Writing

Perhaps inspired by Western scripts, Chinese writing began in the second millennium BC with simple standardized depictions of objects on bones, bamboo sticks, wooden tablets and very rarely silk, whose names were to be spoken aloud. As a rule, one wrote from top to bottom in columns running from right to left. In time, depictions became more stylized. This allowed faster, more efficient writing. Also, the picture-related writing could be used over a larger area by more speakers, of the same language and of different languages, too.

## Mesoamerican Writing

Only a small handful of Native American peoples ever used writing and this was solely in Mesoamerica. Its origin is unknown. Some scholars have claimed an indigenous origin, with the writing as perhaps a 'natural reflex' of the region's attainment to a high level of civilization.

## Topic- 010: First Families

### Complexity of Human Language

The true history of languages is far more complex than anyone has hitherto imagined. One should be looking through the small end, not the large end, of the funnel to find the world's first families of languages. Yet even then, first is merely a metaphor.

### Language Families

Language families are groups of languages that are genetically related, that is, sharing a common ancestor. They display systematic correspondences in form and meaning not attributable to chance or borrowing.

There are three reasons for linguistic similarity: genealogical sharing, areal diffusion and chance typological commonality. It is genealogical sharing alone that justifies family trees. The number and quality of related features will vary according to the amount of time that has passed since divergence from the common ancestor.

The discipline of historical linguistics has provided certain techniques for ‘reconstructing’ languages (rather than simply inferring the history of languages). The application of these techniques has allowed the distinction of borrowed elements from inherited elements, the evidence of the age of linguistic features, and the identification of shared features from an ancient common source. This process eventually allows a ‘classification’ of a language or entire language family based on similarities and dissimilarities in words and grammatical elements. There are two kinds of linguistic classification: typological and genetic (or genealogical). A typological classification associates languages on the basis of distinctive features that can be categorized into defined types of linguistic phenomena.

### **Isolating**

Isolating languages are those that tend to have, per word, only one morpheme – a language’s smallest meaningful unit, like ‘the’ or ‘book’. Some languages might be isolating, like Mandarin Chinese, which is a root language.

### **Fusional**

However, a language might be fusional instead, where many morphemes can be found in one word but the boundaries between them are unclear. This is so in Latin, which uses various word endings: corpus, which is ‘body’ in Latin, can also appear as corporis, corpori, and corpore depending on the word’s use in a sentence. This is called ‘inflection’ and fusional languages are also known as inflectional languages.

### **Agglutinative**

A third type of language is agglutinative, in which a word may possibly contain many individual morphemes that can be either free (that is, stand on their own, like English ‘drive’) or bound (they can never stand alone, like the ‘-r’ in ‘driver’). Turkish is an agglutinative language in which, as in all agglutinative languages, word bases and word additions are kept distinct from one another so that all boundaries between morphemes are easily identifiable. Unfortunately, typological classifications such as these cannot provide direct historical information. With typological classification it is the relational, not the substantial similarity between languages that is significant.

### **Genetic Classification**

A genetic classification attempts to connect languages by virtue of their origins and relationships. Related languages are compared with regard to the interrelationships of subgroups and languages within a family, like French and Italian within the Romance language family or Germanic and Romance within the higher level Indo-European family of languages. In this way, genetic classification, particularly when

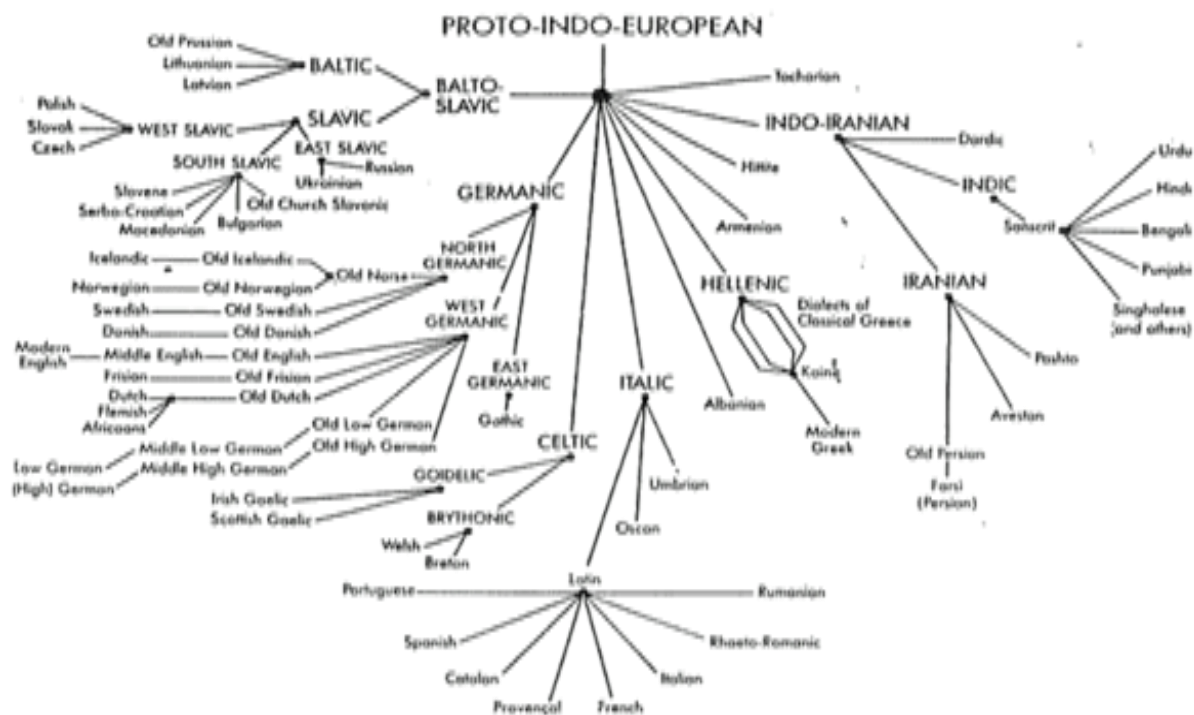
based on grammatical forms and paradigms and not vocabulary, is able to provide direct historical information. For this reason, it is the most productive approach to understanding the more recent history of human language.

### No Daughter Language

Some languages, because of unique geographical or technological circumstances, never generate daughter languages, but their speakers increase in population so that a language family comprises a single language, yielding a ‘family language.’ Geography has allowed Egyptian language to become an example of this and its daughters are merely diachronic (temporal).

### Main Language Families

- Afro-Asiatic
- Austronesian
- Indo-European
- Niger-Congo
- Sino-Tibetan
- Trans-New Guinea



Human societies have donned new languages like new cloaks. The linguistic metamorphosis always went unnoticed –until there was writing.

**Topic- 011: Towards a Science of Language**

‘Linguistic science is a step in the self-realization of man’, wrote the eminent American linguist Leonard Bloomfield at the beginning of the twentieth century. The step traverses millennia. Long before written language, ancients divined human speech as a special gift of a god, a belief still held by many unrelated cultures. Seriously organized study of language began in India and Greece in the first millennium BC and has continued, in an unbroken and mutually enriching tradition, up to the present day. Latin translations of Greek grammatical terms – noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, adjective, article, transitive, intransitive, inflection, declension, tense, case, gender, subject, object and many more – are still used to describe language in most Western cultures.

**Ancient Indian Linguistics**

In ancient India, Sanskrit scholars excelled in phonetic (sound) and phonological (system of significant sounds) theory and in aspects of grammatical analysis. At the time, their work was much more scientific – that is, it exhibited the methods and principles of systematized knowledge – than anything of the kind in Europe. But little is known of the origin and early development of ancient Indian linguistics.

**Greek Linguistics**

In contrast, there is a continuity of development from ancient Greek beginnings to the present day. Greek linguistics passed to Rome. Rome’s late Latin grammarians, who studied Latin’s classes of words, their inflections and their functions and relations in the sentence, inspired medieval scholars, whose work was reinterpreted by Renaissance grammarians. These then provided the initial foundation for the modern science of language that finally emerged in the nineteenth century.

**Consistent Flow in European Linguistics**

There is a consistent flow in European linguistics since the earliest Greek speculations on the subject; each generation has enjoyed knowledge of and has profited from, the work of insightful antecedents. For this reason, the history of European linguistics can embody a history of linguistics in general.

**World’s Earliest Known Linguistic Studies**

The world’s earliest known linguistic studies were produced in India between around 800 and 150 BC in an attempt to preserve the oral literature of India’s much earlier Vedic period. As in the West, Indian scholars have maintained linguistic continuity up to the present day. Indian phonetics and various grammatical topics, including profound treatises on phonology and semantics, up to the eighteenth century surpassed anything the West had achieved. Indian linguists predicated their studies on the observed phenomenon of language change over time. Unlike ancient Greek linguistics, Indian tradition appeared already fully matured, the exquisite culmination of a protracted, but unrecorded, theoretical development.

## The First Great Work of Indian Linguistics

The first great work of Indian linguistics was Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī or 'Eight Books' of Sanskrit grammar, the earliest scientific work on any subject in any Indo-European language, written or orally transmitted sometime between 600 and 300 BC. Measured against literary investigation and philosophical speculation, India's early linguists arrived at the cogent insight that language's relation to form and meaning owes more to arbitrary convention (passing along society's custom) than natural mimesis (copying nature's sounds). Their semantic study already viewed word meanings as observational creations, as well as inheritances. India's first linguists took the remarkably modern view that entire sentences could comprise autonomous linguistic units. (Western linguists, long concentrating on the 'word' as language's elementary particle, first achieved this insight in the twentieth century.)

The age-old question of language's form versus substance – that is, actual utterance as opposed to the inherent system of features, categories and rules – had already been anticipated by India's earliest Sanskrit scholars, who developed the theory of the dhvani-sphot relationship. Utterance was the dhvani; permanent linguistic substance, unuttered, was the sphot. The dhvani thus drew from the sphot 'as one draws water from a well'.

## Phonetic Description

In phonetics, already by 150 BC, India's linguists had ordered phonetic description into phonological structures, with precise processes of articulation (the act or manner of giving utterance), consonant and vowel segments and segmentational synthesis. From this, it is evident that ancient Indian scholars intuited fully the principles of phonemics Western scholars were able to describe it adequately only in the twentieth century.

## Best Known for their Grammatical Analysis

India's linguists are perhaps best known for their grammatical analysis of Sanskrit, especially Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī, though the work fails to fully comprehend what one today understands under 'grammar'. Word formation rules, applied in a strict set in 'aphoristic threads' or sutras, take precedence; in contrast, Sanskrit's phonetic and grammatical description is almost wholly assumed. Pāṇini's grammar not only founded Indian linguistics but also, some 2,300 years later, contributed to the creation of those European comparative and historical language studies which co-authored the modern science of linguistics.

## The Romans

During the third and second centuries BC, Greece gradually yielded to Rome's supremacy. Ironically, with Rome's complete takeover of the Hellenistic world by the first century AD, the Greek language did not bow to Latin, but Latin capitulated to Greek. Greek literature comprised educated Rome's model and Greek language was the language of culture itself, just as Latin was to become for the European Middle Ages a millennium later.

As in other intellectual and artistic domains, Roman linguistics was the extension of Greek linguistics. There was no clear separation of thought between Greek and Latin language theories, but a continuation of the same dynamic parameters, a process fostered in part by the relative similarity of the two Indo-European languages.

### **Varro (116–27 BC)**

The prolific polymath Varro (116–27 BC) is the first critical Latin author to treat linguistics whose writings have survived. He discusses lengthily the anomaly-analogy controversy in linguistics, but also provides original insights, not mere imitation of Greek mentors, into the nature and earlier stages of the Latin language. Varro's work, divided into etymology, morphology, and syntax. He distinguished between derived and inflectional formation of words, finding the latter a natural variation but the former an unnatural and more restricted one.

His morphological classification of Latin words was also highly original. Unlike the Greeks, Varro did not simply recognize case and tense as Latin's and Greek's main categories and establish the four classes – according to the way they inflect – of nouns (case inflection), verbs (tense inflection), participles (case and tense), and adverbs (neither case nor tense): he characterised the specific functions of each. Nouns named things. Verbs made statements. Participles joined elements (they shared the former two's syntax) and adverbs supported all these.

### **The Arab World**

The Arab world developed its own unique approach to language and so, avoided Latin grammarians' wholesale adoption of Greek prototypes. The non-Arab Persian Sibawayh of Basra, writing in the eighth century AD, consolidated all Arabic language instruction in his grammatical treatise *Al Kitab* (The Book). Striking out from a firm foundation of preceding linguistic studies, Sibawayh defined classical Arabic as it is known today.

### **China**

Though the first Chinese language dictionary was compiled as early as 1100–900 BC, yet Chinese preoccupation with language analysis centred on the most faithful reproduction of the spoken word through syllabo-phonetic glyphs. The influence of Sanskrit linguists is evident in the precise ordering of the rhyme tables' initial syllables according to articulation and other characteristics.

Linguistic investigation during the Latin Middle Ages is characterized principally by its orientation: Church-based, it remained pedagogical. Because spoken and written Latin had survived Rome's collapse as the language of education in all Western countries regardless of local tongue, language study meant the study of Classical Latin grammar, particularly in the early middle Ages.

**‘Seven Liberal Arts’**

Of the ‘Seven Liberal Arts’ that comprised the education, no fewer than three – grammar, dialectic (logic) and rhetoric – directly involved the study of the Latin language. All Seven Liberal Arts were of course subordinate to theology.

**Up to the Nineteenth Century**

Classical writers collected data and described Greek and Latin. After the Middle Ages, European scholars studied non-European languages and read the works of non-European linguists and no longer allowed Greek and Latin to dominate linguistic study. Language itself became the object of investigation.

**The Nineteenth Century**

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, a true science of linguistics began to emerge. The nineteenth century is the era of comparative and historical linguistics – that is, seeking languages’ similarities and differences and their historical relationships to one another and developing the scientific vocabulary and tools to achieve this.

**Topic- 012: Future Indicatives****What will Earth’s Languages be like in Future?**

One cannot reliably predict a linguistic future, since so many non-linguistic factors are constantly reshaping a society’s language: economic turns, civil insurrections, mass migrations, sudden rise of prestige nations, new technologies, social fads, and many other phenomena.

**Possible Linguistic Scenarios**

However, reference to past linguistic changes and recognition of present linguistic trends can provide possible linguistic scenarios, at least for the near future. One might also wish to consider the activities of – mainly English-speaking – governmental and corporate strategists who are earnestly expanding their bailiwicks at present, increasing the likelihood of their (English) language prevailing over those languages of non-strategists in the coming decades.

**Unprecedented Transformation**

Merely drawing analogies to past linguistic changes and dynamics no longer holds unqualified validity. All traditional relations of political, cultural and economic power between Western nations and the rest of the world are in the process of unprecedented transformation. This now appears to be a permanent global feature, which will perhaps create a new world order whose nature and quality are still largely unknown. Not simply change and loss (replacement), as in the past, is currently describing linguistic history, but also expansion of the domain of language to a degree hitherto unprecedented in human society. This is currently reinventing what one means with the word ‘language’ itself.



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## **Linguistic Atlas Becoming All but Meaningless**

New technologies such as programming (computer) languages are elaborating innovative extensions of human speech, allowing a new medium of language to artificially communicate with itself. Language throughout history has meant geographical territory – land. Now, the linguistic atlas has become all but meaningless. Language primarily means technology and wealth, a new borderless world with the only directions up and down, separating the haves from the have-nots. Proficiency in the planet's single 'corporate language' – perhaps ultimately English – will soon define each person's place on Earth . . . and beyond.

## **Programming Languages**

Computers expedite the manipulation of the descriptions of values, properties, and methods in order to provide solutions to particular problems. The result of a programming process is a program for text processing, operating systems, databases, and other computer activities. A programming language can also be used for linguistic research, compiler research, teaching, and other things.

It is a language, which is a 'medium of information exchange', but it is wholly different from all previous forms of language known to humankind, except perhaps written language with its many types and forms of scripts reproducing natural language.

## **Internet, E-mail and Newsgroups**

One of the Internet's most widely used resources is language teaching and learning. This usage promotes and preserves in hitherto unprecedented fashion not only living languages but extinct tongues as well, the most popular being Classical Latin. The Internet cannot replace face-to-face linguistic interaction. However, researchers believe e-mail communication resembles oral communication that makes use of a casual linguistic style which includes colloquialisms and elliptical speech – that is, great economy of expression.

## **Language Disappearing**

Soon all of Earth's languages but a small vestigial number will disappear, leaving one language for all humankind (with its sign language counterpart). With this loss the new global society will simultaneously attain to a degree of communication hitherto unimaginable, with related benefits for all aspects of human activity. For language – in all its myriad forms: chemo communication, 'dance', infrasound, ultrasound, gesture, oral speech, writing, computer language – is the very nexus of Nature and of Nature's communicating creations.



**Lesson-03****ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE****Topic- 013: The Divine Source**

Throughout the whole human history, one or the other religious sources have claimed to different origin of language. The Biblical tradition states: ‘God created Adam and whatsoever Adam called every living creature that was the name thereof.’ (The book of Genesis); similarly in Hindu tradition, it is stated ‘language came from Sarasvati, wife of Brahma, creator of the universe.’ Most religions, appears to have a divine source who provides humans with language. At different times, different religious people have made a few experiments with rather conflicting results. The basic hypothesis: if human infants were allowed to grow up without hearing any language around them, then they would spontaneously begin using the original God-given language. Egyptian pharaoh’s experiment revealed that the two children sent to wilderness uttered the Phrygian word bekos, so, the Egyptian pharaoh believed that the divine language was Phrygian. King James, the Fourth of Scotland’s experiment (1500) showed that the isolated children started speaking Hebrew. So, Hebrew was thought to be the divine language.

However, very young children living without access to human language in their early years grow up with no language at all. If human language did emanate from a divine source, we have no way of reconstructing that original language especially given the events in a place called Babel, ‘because the Lord did there confound the language of all the Earth’, as described in the book of Genesis in the Bible (11: 9).

**Topic- 014: The Natural Sound Source**

The natural sound source concept maintains that primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds which early men and women heard around them. CAW-CAW sound and COO-COO sound were the natural sounds adopted to refer to that kind of objects by the people.

Another theory called ‘Bow-wow theory’ claims that languages have some words with pronunciations that seem to echo naturally occurring sounds. The sounds of cuckoo, or other sounds such as splash, bang, boom, rattle, buzz, hiss, screech, bow-wow, etc. form the basis of this theory. This is an instance of onomatopoeia. However, this theory does not answer some very obvious questions.

What about the soundless things as well as abstract concepts? We do not believe that language is only a set of words used as ‘names’ for things. What about the original sounds of language from natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy? Ouch! Ah! Ooh! Wow! or Yuck. Human sounds are made on egressive pulmonic mechanism, while taking the breath out. In ingressive mechanism, expressive noises made in emotional reactions contain sounds that are otherwise not used in speech.

**Topic- 015: The Social Interaction Source**

‘Yo-he-ho’ theory claims that sounds of a person involved in physical effort could be the source of our language, especially when that physical effort involved several people and the interaction had to be coordinated. A group of early humans might develop a set of hums, grunts, groans, and curses that were used when they were lifting and carrying large bits of trees or lifeless hairy mammoths.

According to the theory, the development of human language took place in a social context. Early people lived in groups, for better protection from attacks. Groups maintained some form of communication, even if it were just grunts and curses. Human sounds must have had some principled use within the life and social interaction of early human groups. No answer to the question regarding the origins of the sounds produced is given. Apes and other primates live in social groups and use grunts and social calls, but they do not seem to have developed the capacity for speech.

**Topic- 016: The Physical Adaptation Source**

According to the physical adaptation source, human physical features are distinct from other creatures. Instead of looking at the types of sounds as the source of human speech, we can look at the types of physical features humans possess, especially those that are distinct from other creatures, which may have been able to support speech production. , At some early stage, our ancestors made a very significant transition to an upright posture, with bipedal locomotion, and a revised role for the front limbs. Some effects of this type of change can be seen in physical differences between the skull of a gorilla and that of a Neanderthal man from around 60,000 years ago. The reconstructed vocal tract of a Neanderthal suggests that some consonant-like sound distinctions would have been possible. We have to wait until about 35,000 years ago for features in reconstructions of fossilized skeletal structures that begin to resemble those of modern humans.

In the study of evolutionary development, there are certain physical features, best thought of as partial adaptations, which appear to be relevant for speech. They are streamlined versions of features found in other primates. By themselves, such features would not necessarily lead to speech production, but they are good clues that a creature possessing such features probably has the capacity for speech.

In the study of evolutionary development, certain physical features, best thought of as partial adaptations relevant for speech. Such features are good clues that a creature possessing such features probably has the capacity for speech. Human teeth, lips, mouth, larynx and pharynx are all supportive for producing sounds that humans make. The overall effect of these small differences capable of a wider range of shapes and a more rapid and powerful delivery of sounds produced through these different shapes. However, there is a disadvantage for humans of having a risk of choking to death.

**Topic- 017: The Tool-Making Source**

One function of producing speech sounds in the physical adaptation view must have been placed over on existing anatomical features (teeth, lips previously used for other purposes (chewing, sucking). It is believed that manual gestures may have been a precursor of language. Two million years ago humans

developed right-handedness and became capable of making stone tools. Wooden tools followed. Tool-making, or the outcome of manipulating objects, and changing them using both hands, is evidence of a brain at work.

The human brain is not only large as compared with human body size, it is also lateralized, that is, it has specialized functions in each of the two hemispheres. There is an evolutionary connection between the language-using and tool-using abilities of humans and both were involved in the development of the speaking brain.

All languages require the organizing and combining of sounds or signs in specific arrangements. Humans seem to have developed a part of their brain that specializes in making these arrangements. If they think in terms of the most basic process involved in primitive tool-making, it is not enough to be able to grasp one rock (make one sound); the humans must also be able to bring another rock (other sounds) into proper contact with the first in order to develop a tool. In terms of language structure, the humans may have first developed a naming ability by producing a specific and consistent noise (e.g., bEEr) for a specific object. The crucial additional step was to bring another specific noise (e.g., gOOd) into combination with the first to build a complex message (bEEr gOOd). Several thousand years of development later, humans have honed this message-building capacity to a point where, on Saturdays, watching a football game, they can drink a sustaining beverage and proclaim 'This tree is good'. As far as we know, other primates are not doing this.

### **Topic- 018: The Genetic Source**

We know that the human baby in its first few years undergoes some of the physical changes. At birth, the baby's brain is only a quarter of its eventual weight and the larynx is much higher in the throat, allowing babies, like chimpanzees, to breathe and drink at the same time. However, in a quite short period of time, the larynx descends, the brain develops, the child assumes an upright posture and starts walking and talking. This almost automatic set of developments and the complexity of the young child's language have led some scholars to look for something more powerful than small physical adaptations of the species over time as the source of language. Even children who are born deaf become fluent sign language users, given appropriate circumstances, very early in life. This seems to indicate that human offspring are born with a special capacity for language. It is innate, no other creature seems to have it, and it isn't tied to a specific variety of language. Is it possible that this language capacity is genetically hard-wired in the newborn human? As a solution to the puzzle of the origins of language, this innateness hypothesis would seem to point to something in human genetics, possibly a crucial mutation, as the source. This would not have been a gradual change, but something that happened rather quickly. We are not sure when this proposed genetic change might have taken place or how it might relate to the physical adaptations described earlier. However, as we consider this hypothesis, we find our speculations about the origins of language moving away from fossil evidence or the physical source of basic human sounds toward analogies with how computers work (e.g., being pre-programmed or hard-wired) and concepts taken from the study of genetics. The investigation of the origins of language then turns into a search for the special 'language gene' that only humans possess. If we are indeed the only creatures with this special capacity for language, then will it be completely impossible for any other creature to produce or understand language?

**Lesson-04****CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE****Topic- 019: Characteristics of Human Language**

All of us have heard a lot of stories about creatures that can talk. Creatures capable of communicating, certainly with other members of their own species are quite understandable. However, is it possible that a creature could learn to communicate with humans using language? Or does human language have properties that make it so unique that it is quite unlike any other communication system and hence unlearnable by any other creature?

We should first distinguish between specifically communicative signals and those which may be unintentionally informative signals. Someone listening to you may become informed about you through a number of signals that you have not intentionally sent. He may note that you have a cold (you sneezed), that you are not at ease (you shifted around in your seat), that you are disorganized (non-matching socks) and that you are from somewhere else (you have a strange accent). However, when you use language to tell this person, 'I am one of the applicants for the vacant position of senior brain surgeon at the hospital', you are normally considered to be intentionally communicating something. Similarly, the blackbird is not normally taken to be communicating anything by having black feathers, sitting on a branch and looking down at the ground, but is considered to be sending a communicative signal with the loud squawking produced when a cat appears on the scene. So, when we talk about distinctions between human language and animal communication, we are considering both in terms of their potential as a means of intentional communication.

**Properties of Human Language**

Communication as the primary function of human language is not a distinguishing feature. All creatures communicate in some way. The property of reflexivity (or 'reflexiveness') has five other properties: displacement, arbitrariness, productivity, cultural transmission, and duality.

**Topic- 020: Displacement**

Animal message is produced according to immediate time and place. Animal communication seems to be designed exclusively for this moment, here and now not far removed in time and place. Humans can refer to past and future time. This property of human language is called displacement. It allows language users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment. Bee communication is a small exception because it seems to have some version of displacement. But it is displacement of a very limited type and lacks the range of possibilities found in human language.

**Topic- 021: Arbitrariness**

No 'natural' connection between a linguistic form and its meaning exists. The connection is quite arbitrary. This aspect of the relationship between linguistic signs and objects in the world is described as arbitrariness. However, there are some words in language with sounds that seem to 'echo' the sounds of

objects or activities and hence seem to have a less arbitrary connection. For the majority of animal signals, a clear connection appears between the conveyed message and the signal used to convey it. This impression of the non-arbitrariness of animal signaling may be closely connected to the fact that, for any animal, the set of signals used in communication is finite. That is, each variety of animal communication consists of a fixed and limited set of vocal or gestural forms. Many of these forms are only used in specific situations (e.g., establishing territory) and at particular times (e.g., during the mating season).

### **Topic- 022: Productivity**

Humans are continually creating new expressions and novel utterances by using their linguistic resources to describe new objects and situations. This property is described as productivity (or ‘creativity’ or ‘open-endedness’) and essentially means that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite. The communication systems of other creatures are not like that. Cicadas have four signals to choose from and vervet monkeys have thirty-six vocal calls. Nor does it seem possible for creatures to produce new signals to communicate novel experiences or events. The honeybee, normally able to communicate the location of a nectar source to other bees, will fail to do so if the location is really ‘new.’ In one experiment, a hive of bees was placed at the foot of a radio tower and a food source was placed at the top. Ten bees were taken to the top, given a taste of the delicious food, and sent off to tell the rest of the hive about their find. The message was conveyed via a bee dance and the whole gang buzzed off to get the free food. They flew around in all directions, but could not locate the food. (It is probably one way to make bees really mad.) The problem seems to be that bee communication has a fixed set of signals for communicating location and they all relate to horizontal distance. The bee cannot manipulate its communication system to create a ‘new’ message indicating vertical distance. According to Karl Von Frisch, ‘the bees have no word for up in their language, and they cannot invent one.’ This limiting feature of animal communication is described in terms of fixed reference.

### **Topic- 023: Cultural Transmission**

We inherit physical features from our parents not their language. We learn language in a culture from other speakers and not from parental genes. However, animals do inherit communication calls for their parents. Humans are born with some kind of predisposition to acquire language in a general sense. Humans acquire their first language as children in a culture. This process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next is described as cultural transmission. The general pattern in animal communication is that creatures are born with a set of specific signals that are produced instinctively. Human infants, growing up in isolation, produce no ‘instinctive’ language. Cultural transmission of a specific language is crucial in the human acquisition process. Without any exposure to language, human children produce no language, and many experiments have proved this reality.

### **Topic- 024: Duality**

The property of duality or ‘double articulation’ is unique to humans. At physical level, we can produce individual sounds, like n, b, i as individual sounds; none of these discrete forms has any intrinsic meaning. However, when we arrange them in a certain order we get a level at which we have meaning too like ‘nib’. So, we can say that at one level, we have distinct sounds, and, at another level, we have distinct

meanings. Duality of levels is one of the most economical features of human language. However, animals have a single fixed form for each communicative signal among them. Although the dog may be able to produce woof ('I'm happy to see you'), it does not seem to do so on the basis of a distinct level of production combining the separate elements of w + oo + f. If the dog was operating with the double level (i.e., duality), then we might expect to hear different combinations with different meanings, such as oowf ('I'm hungry') and foow ('I'm really bored').

**Lesson-05****FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE****Topic- 025: Functions of Language (Verbal Communication)**

Some of our words convey meaning, some convey emotions, and some actually produce actions. What utterances make up our daily verbal communication? What do words convey? Communication can be categorized into three basic types:

- Verbal
- Written
- Nonverbal

What is verbal communication?

Verbal Communication is the sharing of information between individuals by using speech and writing. Language also provides endless opportunities for fun because of its limitless, sometimes nonsensical, and always changing nature. Verbal communication is the use of sounds and words to express, especially in contrast to using gestures or mannerisms (non-verbal communication).

Language also provides endless opportunities for fun because of its limitless, sometimes nonsensical, and always changing nature. In this section, five functions of language have been discussed, which show us that language is expressive, language is powerful, language is fun, language is dynamic, and language is relational.

**Topic- 026: Language is Expressive**

Verbal communication helps us meet various needs through our ability to express ourselves. In terms of instrumental needs, we use verbal communication to ask questions that provide us with specific information. We also use verbal communication to describe things, people, and ideas. Verbal communication helps us inform, persuade, and entertain others. These are the three general purposes of public speaking. It is also through our verbal expressions that our personal relationships are formed. At its essence, language is expressive.

**Expressing Observations**

When we express observations, we report on the sensory information we are taking or have taken in. Eyewitness testimony is a good example of communicating observations. Witnesses are not supposed to make judgments or offer conclusions; they only communicate factual knowledge as they experienced it. For example, a witness could say, 'I saw a white Mitsubishi Eclipse leaving my neighbour's house at 10:30 pm.' When you are trying to make sense of an experience, expressing observations in a descriptive rather than evaluative way can lessen defensiveness, which facilitates competent communication.



## Expressing Thoughts

When we express thoughts, we draw conclusions based on what we have experienced. In the perception process, this is similar to the interpretation step. We take various observations and evaluate and interpret them to assign them meaning or a conclusion. While our observations are based on sensory information (what we saw, what we read, what we heard), thoughts are connected to our beliefs (what we think is true/false), attitudes (what we like and dislike), and values (what we think is right/wrong or good/bad). Sometimes people intentionally or unintentionally express thoughts as if they were feelings. For example, when people say, ‘I feel like you are too strict with your attendance policy,’ they are not really expressing a feeling; they are expressing a judgment about the other person (a thought).

## Expressing Feelings

When we express feelings, we communicate our emotions. Expressing feelings is a difficult part of verbal communication, because there are many social norms about how, why, when, where, and to whom we express our emotions. Norms for emotional expression also vary based on nationality and other cultural identities and characteristics such as age and gender. In terms of age, young children are typically freer to express positive and negative emotions in public. Gendered elements intersect with age as boys grow older and are socialized into a norm of emotional restraint. Although individual men vary in the degree to which they are emotionally expressive, yet a prevailing social norm expects women to be more emotionally expressive than men.

In order to express our emotions in words, it is important that we develop an emotional vocabulary. The more specific we can be when we are verbally communicating our emotions, the less ambiguous our emotions will be for the person decoding our message.

## Expressing Needs

When we express needs, we are communicating in an instrumental way to help us get things done. Since we almost always know our needs more than others do, it is important for us to be able to convey those needs to others. Expressing needs can help us get a project done at work or help us navigate the changes of a long-term romantic partnership. If we do not express our needs, it can lead to feelings of abandonment, frustration, or resentment.

Type	Description	Example
Observation	Report of sensory experiences or memories	‘Boss asked me to bring this file to you.’
Thought	Conclusion about or judgment of experiences and observations	‘Students today have much less respect for authority.’
Feeling	Communicating emotions	‘I feel at peace when we’re together.’
Needs	Expressing needs	‘I’m saving money for summer vacation. Is it OK if we skip our regular Weekend out this week?’



**Topic- 027: Language is Powerful**

The contemporary American philosopher David Abram wrote, ‘Only if words are felt, bodily presences, like echoes or waterfalls, can we understand the power of spoken language to influence, alter, and transform the perceptual world.’ This statement encapsulates many of the powerful features of language.

**Language Expresses Our Identities**

Words or phrases that express ‘who we are’ contribute to the impressions that others make of us. We all use verbal communication strategically to create a desired impression. The power of language to express our identities varies depending on the origin of the label (self-chosen or other imposed) and the context. People are usually comfortable with the language they use to describe their own identities but may have issues with the labels others place on them. There are many examples of people who have taken a label that was imposed on them, one that usually has negative connotations, and intentionally used it in ways that counter previous meanings. Other examples of people reclaiming identity labels is the ‘black is beautiful’ movement of the 1960s that repositioned black as a positive identity marker for African Americans. Even though some people embrace reclaimed words, they still carry their negative connotations and are not openly accepted by everyone.

**Language Affects Our Credibility**

People make assumptions about your credibility based on how you speak and what you say. Even though we have learned that meaning is in people rather than words, the rules that govern verbal communication, like rules of grammar, are arbitrary; these norms still mean something. You do not have to be a perfect grammarian to be perceived as credible. However, you still have to support your ideas and explain the conclusions you make to be seen as competent. You have to use language clearly and be accountable for what you say in order to be seen as trustworthy.

Politicians know that the way they speak affects their credibility, but they also know that using words that are too scientific or academic can lead people to perceive them as eggheads, which would hurt their credibility. Politicians and many others in leadership positions need to be able to use language to put people at ease, relate to others, and still appear confident and competent.

**Topic- 028: Language as a Means of Control**

The word ‘control’ has negative connotations, but the way it is used can be positive, neutral, or negative. Verbal communication can be used to reward and punish. We can offer verbal communication in the form of positive reinforcement to praise someone. We can withhold verbal communication or use it in a critical, aggressive, or hurtful way as a form of negative reinforcement. Directives are utterances that try to get another person to do something. They can range from a rather polite request to a more forceful command or insistence.

Context informs when and how we express directives and how people respond to them. Promises are often paired with directives in order to persuade people to comply, and those promises, whether implied or stated, should be kept in order to be an ethical communicator. Keep this in mind to avoid arousing false expectations on the part of the other person. Rather than verbal communication being directed at one person as a means of control, the way we talk creates overall climates of communication that may control many. Verbal communication characterized by empathy, understanding, respect, and honesty creates open climates that lead to more collaboration and more information exchange. Verbal communication that is controlling, deceitful, and vague creates a closed climate where people are less willing to communicate and less trusting.

### **Topic- 029: Language is Performative**

Some language is actually more like an action than a piece of information. Saying, ‘I promise,’ ‘I guarantee’ or ‘I pledge’ does more than conveying meaning; it also communicates intent. Such utterances are called commissives, as they mean that a speaker is committed to a certain course of action. Of course, promises can be broken, and there can be consequences, but other verbal communication is granted official power that can guarantee action. The two simple words ‘I do’ can mean that a person has agreed to an oath before taking a witness stand. It can also mean that two people are now bound in a relationship recognized by the government and/or a religious community. These two words, if said in the right context and in front of the right person, such as a judge or a reverend, bring with them obligations that cannot be undone without additional steps and potential negative repercussions. In that sense, language is much more than ‘mere words’.

Performative language can also be a means of control, especially in legal contexts. In some cases, the language that makes laws is intentionally vague. In courts all over the nation, the written language intersects with spoken language as lawyers advocate for particular interpretations of the written law. The utterances of judges and juries set precedents for reasonable interpretations that will then help decide future cases.

### **Language is Fun**

Writers, poets, and comedians have built careers on their ability to have fun with language and in turn share that fun with others. The productivity and limitlessness of language lead some people to spend an inordinate amount of time discovering things about words. Using humour also draws attention to us, and the reactions that we get from others, feeds into our self-concept. We also use humour to disclose information about ourselves that we might not feel comfortable revealing in a more straightforward way. Humour can also be used to express sexual interest or to cope with bad news or bad situations.

### **Topic- 030: Language: A Dynamic and Relational Entity**

Language is essentially limitless. We may create a one-of-a-kind sentence combining words in new ways and never know it. Aside from the endless structural possibilities, words change meaning, and new words are created daily.

Neologisms are newly coined or used words. Newly coined words are those that were just brought into linguistic existence. Newly used words make their way into languages in several ways, including borrowing and changing structure. Taking is actually a more fitting descriptor than borrowing, since we take words but do not really give them back. In any case, borrowing is the primary means through which languages expand.

Structural changes also lead to new words. Compound words are neologisms that are created by joining two already known words. Keyboard, newspaper, and gift card are all compound words that were formed when new things were created or conceived. We also create new words by adding something, subtracting something, or blending the words together. For example, we can add affixes, meaning a prefix or suffix, to a word. Affixing usually alters the original meaning but does not completely change it. Ex-husband and kitchenette are relatively recent examples of such changes. New words are also formed when clipping a word like examination, which creates a new word exam that retains the same meaning.

Slang is a great example of the dynamic nature of language. Slang refers to new or adapted words that are specific to a group, context, and/or time period, regarded as less formal, and representative of people's creative play with language. Research has shown that only about 10 percent of the slang terms that emerge over a fifteen-year period are able to survive. Many more take their place though, as new slang words are created using inversion, reduction, or old-fashioned creativity.

Inversion is a form of word play that produces slang words like sick, wicked, and bad that refer to the opposite of their typical meaning. The process of 'Reduction' creates slang words such as pic, sec, and later from picture, second, and see you later. New slang words often represent what is edgy, current, or simply relevant to the daily lives of a group of people.

### **Language is Relational**

We use verbal communication to initiate, maintain, and terminate our interpersonal relationships. The first few exchanges with a potential romantic partner or friend help us size the other person up and figure out if we want to pursue a relationship or not. We then use verbal communication to remind others how we feel about them and to check in with them, engaging in relationship maintenance through language use. When negative feelings arrive and persist or for many other reasons we often use verbal communication to end a relationship.

### **Language Can Bring Us Together**

Interpersonally, verbal communication is the key to bring people together and maintaining relationships. Whether intentionally or unintentionally, our use of words like I, you, we, our, and us affects our relationships. We language includes the words we, our, and us, and can be used to promote a feeling of inclusiveness. 'I language' can be useful when expressing thoughts, needs, and feelings because it leads us to 'own' our expressions and avoid the tendency to mistakenly attribute the cause of our thoughts, needs, and feelings to others. Communicating emotions using 'I language' may also facilitate emotion sharing by not making our conversational partner feel at fault or defensive.

**Language Can Separate Us**

Whether its criticism, teasing, or language differences, verbal communication can also lead to feelings of separation. Language differences alone do not present impossible barriers. We can learn other languages with time and effort, there are other people who can translate and serve as bridges across languages, and we can also communicate quite a lot nonverbally in the absence of linguistic compatibility. People who speak the same language can intentionally use language to separate. The words us and them can be a powerful start to separation.

**Lesson-06****NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND LINGUISTICS****Topic- 031: Aspects of Nonverbal Communication**

Humans relied on nonverbal communication for thousands of years before the capability to communicate with words was developed. Nonverbal communication is a process of generating meaning using behavior other than words. Nonverbal communication is not opposite to verbal communication but there are important differences between them. In terms of content, nonverbal communication tends to do the work of communicating emotions more than verbal. In terms of composition, although there are rules of grammar that structure our verbal communication, no such official guides govern our use of nonverbal signals. No dictionaries and thesauruses are available for nonverbal communication. All five of our senses convey nonverbal communication. Verbal and nonverbal communications include both vocal and non-vocal elements as mentioned in the table below.

	<b>Verbal communication</b>	<b>Nonverbal Communication</b>
<b>Vocal</b>	Spoken words	Paralanguage (pitch, volume, speaking rate, etc.)
<b>Non-vocal</b>	Writing, sign language	Body language (gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, etc.)

Paralanguage is a vocal element of nonverbal communication, which is the vocalized but not verbal part of spoken message, such as speaking rate, volume, and pitch. Non-vocal elements of verbal communication include the use of unspoken symbols to convey meaning.

**Topic- 032: Principles of Nonverbal Communication**

Nonverbal communication has a distinct history and serves separate evolutionary functions from verbal communication. Nonverbal communication is primarily biologically based while verbal communication is primarily culturally based. The fact that some nonverbal communication messages have the same meaning across cultures endorses the same, while no verbal communication systems share that same universal recognizability. Nonverbal communication also evolved earlier than verbal communication and served an early and important survival function that helped humans later develop verbal communication. While some of our nonverbal communication abilities, like our sense of smell, lost strength as our verbal capacities increased, other abilities like paralanguage and movement have grown alongside verbal complexity. The fact that nonverbal communication is processed by an older part of our brain makes it more instinctual and involuntary than verbal communication. Nonverbal communication is interpersonal, conveys emotional messages and is more involuntary than verbal. It is more ambiguous and more credible.

**Topic- 033: Conveyance of Interpersonal and Emotional Messages**

It is believed that more meaning is generated from nonverbal communication than from verbal. Some studies have claimed that 60-90 percent of our meaning is derived from nonverbal signals, but more recent and reliable findings claim that it is closer to 65 percent. We may rely more on nonverbal signals in situations where verbal and nonverbal messages conflict and in situations where emotional or relational communication is taking place. When someone asks a question and we are not sure about the 'angle' they are taking, we may hone in on nonverbal cues to fill in the meaning. A question like 'What are you doing tonight?' could mean any number of things, but we could rely on posture, tone of voice, and eye contact to see if the person is just curious, suspicious, or hinting that they would like company for the evening. We also put more weight on nonverbal communication when determining a person's credibility. For example, if a classmate delivers a speech in class and her verbal content seems well-researched and unbiased, but her nonverbal communication is poor (her voice is monotone, she avoids eye contact, she fidgets), she will likely not be viewed as credible.

On the contrary, in some situations, verbal communication might carry more meaning than nonverbal. In interactions where information exchange is the focus, at a briefing at work, for example, verbal communication probably accounts for much more of the meaning generated. Despite this exception, a key principle of nonverbal communication is that it often takes on more meaning in interpersonal and/or emotional exchanges.

**Topic- 034: More Involuntary than Verbal**

There are some instances in which we verbally communicate involuntarily. These types of exclamations are often verbal responses to a surprising stimulus. For example, we say 'owww!' when we stub our toe or scream 'stop!' when we see someone heading toward danger. Involuntary nonverbal signals are much more common, and although most nonverbal communication is not completely involuntary, it is more below our consciousness than verbal communication, and therefore, more difficult to control.

The involuntary nature of much nonverbal communication makes it more difficult to control or 'fake'. For example, although you can consciously smile a little and shake hands with someone when you first see them, it is difficult to fake that you are 'happy' to meet someone. Nonverbal communication leaks out in ways that expose our underlying thoughts or feelings. Spokespersons, lawyers, or other public representatives who are the 'face' of a politician, celebrity, corporation, or organization must learn to control their facial expressions and other nonverbal communication, so that they can effectively convey the message of their employer or client without having their personal thoughts and feelings leak through. Therapists, police officers, doctors, teachers, and actors are also in professions that often require them to have more awareness of and control over their nonverbal communication.

Have you ever tried to conceal your surprise, suppress your anger, or act joyful even when you were not? Most people whose careers do not involve conscious manipulation of nonverbal signals find it difficult to control or suppress them. While we can consciously decide to stop sending verbal messages, our nonverbal communication always has the potential of generating meaning for another person. The

teenager who decides to shut out his dad and not communicate with him still sends a message with his 'blank' stare (still a facial expression) and lack of movement (still a gesture). In this sense, nonverbal communication is 'irrepressible'.

### **Topic- 035: More Ambiguous**

The symbolic and abstract nature of language can lead to misunderstandings, but nonverbal communication is even more ambiguous. As with verbal communication, most of our nonverbal signals can be linked to multiple meanings, but unlike words, many nonverbal signals do not have any one specific meaning. If you have ever had someone wink at you and did not know why, you have probably experienced this uncertainty. Did they wink to express their affection for you, their pleasure with something you just did, or because you share some inside knowledge or joke?

Just as we look at context clues in a sentence or paragraph to derive meaning from a particular word, we can look for context clues in various sources of information like the physical environment, other nonverbal signals, or verbal communication to make sense of a particular nonverbal cue. Unlike verbal communication, however, nonverbal communication does not have explicit rules of grammar that bring structure, order, and agreed-on patterns of usage. Instead, we implicitly learn norms of nonverbal communication, which leads to greater alteration. In general, we exhibit more idiosyncrasies in our usage of nonverbal communication than we do with verbal communication, which also increases the ambiguity of nonverbal communication.

### **Topic- 036: More Credible**

Although we can rely on verbal communication to fill in the blanks sometimes left by nonverbal expressions, we often put more trust into what people do over what they say. This is especially true in times of stress or danger when our behaviours become more instinctual, and we rely on older systems of thinking and acting that evolved before our ability to speak and write.

This innateness creates intuitive feelings about the genuineness of nonverbal communication, and this genuineness relates back to our earlier discussion about sometimes involuntary and often subconscious nature of nonverbal communication. An example of the innateness of nonverbal signals can be found in children who have been blind since birth but still exhibit the same facial expressions as other children. In short, the involuntary or subconscious nature of nonverbal communication makes it difficult to fake; therefore, it seems more honest and credible.

**Lesson-07****NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND SEMIOSIS****Topic- 037: Types of Nonverbal Communication**

Just as verbal language is broken up into various categories, there are also different types of nonverbal communication. While learn about each type of nonverbal signal, you should keep in mind that nonverbal gestures often work in concert with each other, combining to repeat, modify, or contradict the verbal message being sent. We use different channels simultaneously; we can also increase our nonverbal communication competence by becoming more aware of how it operates in specific channels. Although no one can truly offer you a rulebook on how to send every type of nonverbal signal effectively, yet several nonverbal materials are written from more anecdotal and less academic perspectives.

**Topic- 038: Kinesics**

Kinesics refers to body movements and postures and includes the following components:

Gestures are arm and hand movements and include adaptors like clicking a pen or scratching your face, emblems like a thumbs-up to say 'OK' and illustrators like bouncing your hand along with the rhythm of your speaking. Head movements and posture include the orientation of movements of our head and the orientation and positioning of our body and the various meanings they send. Head movements such as nodding can indicate agreement, disagreement, and interest, among other things. Posture can indicate assertiveness, defensiveness, interest, readiness, or intimidation, among other things.

Eye contact is studied under the category of oculusics and specifically refers to eye contact with another person's face, head, and eyes and the patterns of looking away and back at the other person during interaction. Eye contact provides turn-taking signals, signals when we are engaged in cognitive activity, and helps establish rapport and connection, among other things. Facial expressions refer to the use of the forehead, brow, and facial muscles around the nose and mouth to convey meaning. Facial expressions can convey happiness, sadness, fear, anger, and other emotions.

**Topic- 039: Haptics**

Haptics refers to touch behaviors that convey meaning during interactions. Touch operates at many levels, including functional, professional, social-polite, friendship-warmth, and love-intimacy. The touch has the power to comfort someone in the moment of sorrow when words alone cannot. This positive power of touch is countered by the potential of touch to be threatening because of its connection to sex and violence. We probably get more explicit advice and instruction on how to use touch than any other form of nonverbal communication.

A lack of nonverbal communication competence related to touch could have negative interpersonal consequences; for example, if we do not follow the advice we have been given about the importance of a firm handshake, a person might make negative judgments about our confidence or credibility. A lack of competence could have more horrible negative consequences including legal



punishment in case of touching someone inappropriately (intentionally or unintentionally). Touch is necessary for human social development, and it can be welcoming, threatening, or persuasive.

Of course, touch is also important at levels that are more intimate. At the friendship warmth level, touch is more important and more ambiguous than at the social polite level. At this level, touch interactions are important because they serve a relational maintenance purpose and communicate closeness, liking, care, and concern. The types of touching at this level also vary greatly from more formal and ritualized to more intimate, which means friends must sometimes negotiate their own comfort level with various types of touch and may encounter some ambiguity if their preferences do not match up with their relational partner's. In a friendship, for example, too much touch can signal sexual or romantic interest, whereas, too little touch can signal distance or unfriendliness. At the love-intimacy level, touch is more personal and is typically only exchanged between significant others, such as best friends, close family members, and romantic partners. Touching faces, holding hands, and full frontal embraces are examples of touch at this level. Touch is also used in many other contexts—for example, during play (e.g., arm-wrestling), during physical conflict (e.g., slapping), and during conversations (e.g., to get someone's attention).

#### **Topic- 040: Vocalics**

Vocalics refers to the vocalized but not verbal aspects of nonverbal communication, including our speaking rate, pitch, volume, tone of voice, and vocal quality. Paralanguage refers to the vocalized but nonverbal parts of a message. Pitch helps convey meaning, regulate conversational flow, and communicate the intensity of a message. Even babies recognize a sentence with a higher pitched ending as a question. We also learn that greetings have rising emphasis and farewells have falling emphasis. Of course, no one ever tells us these things explicitly; we learn them through observation and practice. We do not pick up on some more subtle and/or complex patterns of paralanguage involving pitch until we are older. Children, for example, have a difficult time perceiving sarcasm, which is usually conveyed through paralinguistic characteristics like pitch and tone rather than the actual words being spoken.

Verbal fillers are often used in oral communication. Some aspects of verbal fillers are as follows:

- Affect communication negatively
- Reduce credibility and clarity
- Less persuasiveness

Become a higher self-monitor to eliminate verbal fillers. Volume can help you achieve communication goals related to maintaining attention, effectively conveying information, and getting others to act in a particular way. Vocal variety increases listener and speaker engagement, understanding, information recall, and motivation.

The following is a review of the various communicative functions of vocalics:

- **Repetition:** Vocalic cues reinforce other verbal and nonverbal cues (e.g., saying 'I'm not sure' with an uncertain tone).

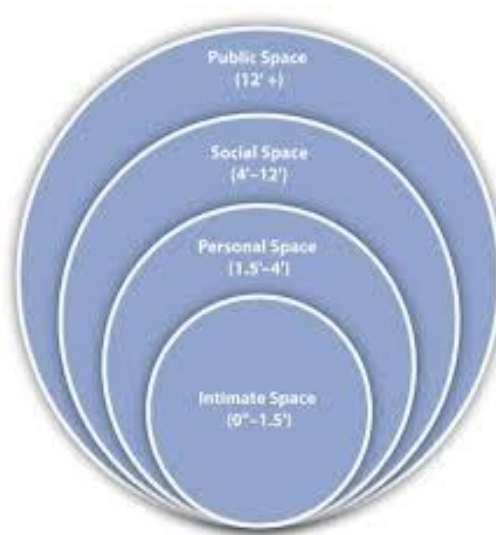
- **Complementing:** Vocalic cues elaborate on or modify verbal and nonverbal meaning (e.g., the pitch and volume used to say 'I love sweet potatoes' would add context to the meaning of the sentence, such as the degree to which the person loves sweet potatoes or the use of sarcasm).
- **Substituting:** Vocalic cues can take the place of other verbal or nonverbal cues (e.g., saying 'uh huh' instead of 'I am listening and understanding what you are saying').
- **Regulating:** Vocalic cues help regulate the flow of conversations (e.g., falling pitch and slowing rate of speaking usually indicate the end of a speaking turn).
- **Contradicting:** Vocalic cues may contradict other verbal or nonverbal signals (e.g., a person could say 'I'm fine' in a quick, short tone that indicates otherwise).

### Topic- 041: Proxemics

Proxemics is the study of human use of space and the effects that population density has on behaviour, communication, and social interaction. Proxemics refers to the study of how space and distance influence communication. We only need to look at the ways in which space shows up in common metaphors to see that space, communication, and relationships are closely related. For example, when we are content with and attracted to someone, we say we are 'close' to him or her. When we lose connection with someone, we may say he or she is 'distant'. In general, space influences how people communicate and behave. Smaller spaces with a higher density of people often lead to breaches of our personal space bubbles. If this is a setting in which this type of density is expected beforehand, like at a crowded concert or on a train during rush hour, then we make various communicative adjustments to manage the space issue.

Four zones of personal space are:

- Intimate distance
- Personal distance
- Social distance
- Public distance



Proxemics also studies territoriality, or how people take up and defend personal space. People have to decide how much value they want their marker to have. Obviously, leaving a laptop on a table indicates that the table is occupied, but it could also lead to the laptop getting stolen. A pencil, on the other hand, could just be moved out of the way and the space usurped.

### **Topic- 042: Chronemics**

Chronemics is the study of how time affects communication and includes how different time cycles affect our communication. Time can be classified into several different categories, including biological, personal, physical, and cultural time. Biological time refers to the rhythms of living things. Humans follow a circadian rhythm, meaning that we are on a daily cycle that influences when we eat, sleep, and wake. When our natural rhythms are disturbed, by all-nighters, jet lag, or other scheduling abnormalities, our physical and mental health, our communication competence and personal relationships can suffer. Keep biological time in mind as you communicate with others. Remember that early morning conversations and speeches may require more preparation to get yourself awake enough to communicate well and a more patient or energetic delivery to accommodate others who may still be getting warmed up for their day.

Additionally, the way we use time depends in some ways on our status. For example, doctors can make their patients wait for extended periods of time, and executives and celebrities may run consistently behind schedule, making others wait for them. Promptness and the amount of time that is socially acceptable for lateness and waiting vary among individuals and contexts. Chronemics also covers the amount of time we spend talking. We have already learned that conversational turns and turn taking patterns are influenced by social norms and help the progress of our conversations. We all know how annoying it can be when a person dominates a conversation or when we cannot get a person to contribute anything.

A monochronic time system means that things are done one at a time and time is segmented into precise, small units. Under this system, time is scheduled, arranged and managed. A polychronic time system is a system where several things can be done at once, and wider view of time is exhibited and time is perceived in large fluid sections.

Monochronic people	Polychronic people
Do one thing at a time	Do many things at once
Concentrate on a task set before them	Concentrate on an event happening around them
Consider time commitments (deadlines, schedules) seriously	Consider objectives (goals, results) seriously
Are low-context and need information	Are high-context and already have information
Are committed to the job and end results	Are committed to people and relationships
Dedicate themselves to plans	Change plans often and easily
Are more concerned with privacy and individual ownership	Are more concerned with community and shared connections
Emphasize prompt time recognition, regardless of relationship or circumstances	Emphasize response based on nature of relationship and circumstances
Have strong tendency to build temporary, practical relationships	Have strong tendency to build lifetime, familial relationships

Lateness or promptness can send messages about our professionalism, dependability, or other personality traits. Formal time usually applies to professional situations in which we are expected to be on time or even a few minutes early. Quality time is an important part of interpersonal relationships.

**Lesson-08****ANIMAL VS. HUMAN COMMUNICATION****Topic- 043: Introduction: Animal vs. Human Communication**

If someone asked you what separates humans from other animals, one of the first things that would probably come to mind is language. Language is so fundamental to human life that it is hard to imagine what life would be like without it. Barnett highlights the inseparability of language from man when he says, ‘verbal communication is a condition of the existence of human society.’ But at the same time, other animals also communicate: Your cat may let you know when its hungry, ants use pheromones and sound to indicate social status and distress, bees dance to tell one another where to find honey, and chimpanzees can learn sign language.

In the 1960s, linguistic anthropologist Charles F. Hockett defined a set of features that characterizes human language and sets it apart from animal communication. He called these characteristics the design features of language. Every communication system has some of the 13 design features. Only human spoken language has all 13 features.

All 13 features of human spoken language have been provided in the following table:

1	Vocal-Auditory Channel	8	Arbitrariness
2	Broadcast transmission and directional reception	9	Discreteness
3	Rapid Fading(Transmission)	10	Displacement
4	Total Feedback	11	Productivity
5	Interchangeability	12	Traditional Transmission
6	Specialization	13	Duality of Patterning
7	Semanticity		

While primate communication utilizes the first 9 features, the final 4 features (displacement, productivity, cultural transmission, and duality) are reserved for humans. Gibbons relatively close to man possess the first nine design features but are devoid of the last four.

- Displacement
- Productivity
- Traditional transmission
- Duality of patterning

Hockett later added prevarication, reflexiveness, and learnability to the list as uniquely human characteristics making the list up to 16 features. He asserted that even the most basic human languages possess these 16 features. The last seven features are set human language apart from all other forms of communication. Features of human language:

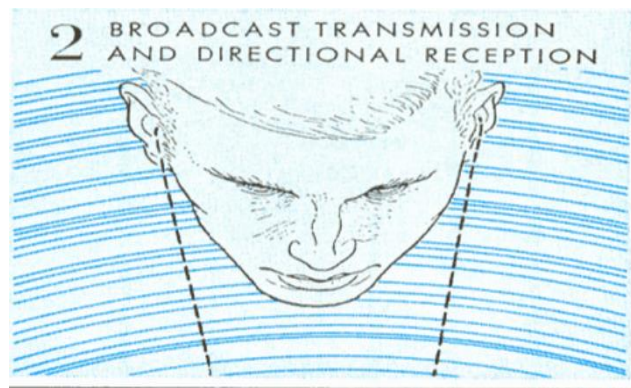
1. Displacement
2. Prevarication

3. Productivity
4. Traditional transmission
5. Learnability
6. Reflexiveness
7. Learnability

So, when we think of language as a way of setting ourselves apart, what is it about our language that is different than how other animals communicate? Hockett believes that if a system lacks even one feature, it is communication not language.

#### **Topic- 044: Broadcast Transmission and Directional Reception**

Message goes out in all directions; receiver can tell what direction message comes from. (Sign language uses line-of-sight transmission instead.) When humans speak, sounds are transmitted in all directions; however, listeners perceive the direction from which the sounds are coming. Similarly, signers broadcast to potentially anyone within the line of sight, while those watching see who is signing. This is the characteristic of most forms of human and animal communication.



This refers to the fact that the human language signal is sent out in all directions, while it is perceived in a limited direction (Hyde). To understand this feature of language, visualize a person standing in the middle of a room and people standing against the wall, forming a circle around him. As the person standing in the middle of the room speaks, his voice carries in all directions around the room, and everyone can hear him, assuming he speaks loud enough. However, the people standing in front of him will have an easier time understanding what he is saying in comparison to the people standing behind him. This has to do with binaural reception, which makes it possible to determine the location of the source of sounds (Salzmann).

This means that the human language signal is sent out in all directions, while it is perceived in a limited direction. For spoken language, the sound perpetuates as a waveform that expands from the point of origin (the mouth) in all directions. This is why a person can stand in the middle of a room and be heard by everyone (assuming they are speaking loudly enough). Language signals (i.e., speech sounds) are emitted as waveforms, which are projected in all directions (broadcasted into auditory space), but are

perceived (by receiving listeners) as emanating from a particular direction, and point of origin (the vocalizing speaker).

### **Topic- 045: Creativity/ Novelty/ Prevarication**

#### **Creativity**

Another distinctive feature is creativity. Human beings use their linguistic resources to produce new expressions and sentences. They arrange and rearrange phonemes, morphemes, words, and phrases in a way that can express an infinite number of ideas. This is also called the open-endedness of language. Animal communication is a closed system. It cannot produce new signals to communicate novel events or experiences. Novel utterances can be made and understood. New words can be invented easily. This is the ability to reform discrete units to form new signals, (such as words.) For example, we make new words out of small units, or rearrange words to make sentences.

Human language can arrange words into an infinite number of ideas, sometimes referred to as discrete infinity. It refers to the idea that language-users can create and understand novel utterances. Humans are able to produce an unlimited number of utterances. The concept of grammatical patterning is also related to productivity, which facilitates the use and comprehension of language. Language is not stagnant, but is constantly changing. New idioms are created all the time; the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation.

Language is productive in two senses. First of all, there are mathematical properties which allow it 'to make infinite use of finite means' (Chomsky, 1996, p. 8). Dual structure, structure dependence, and grammatical operations such as recursion and coordination mean that the set of possible sentences in a language are infinite. It is always possible to insert or add on another bit.

Things are said which have never been said before. This first kind of productivity, however, does not create new units or break rules for their combination. Another kind of productivity in language, however, is the capacity to create new items and new ways of combining them, to be, in other words, creative (Carter, 2004). People often depart from the rules creatively – to be poetic or humorous, or to assert identity. This is most easily seen at the lexical level in the coinage of new words. Lewis Carroll's famous poem 'Jabberwocky', for example, used the invented words 'chortle' and 'galumph', which are now part of the language. Advertisements are full of such playfulness. An advert for the motoring organization the R.A.C., for example, uses its name as a verb: 'We'll R.A.C. to it'.

Language is an open system. We can produce potentially an infinite number of different messages by combining the elements differently. This is not a feature of animal communication, for example, the calls of gibbons have a finite number, and thus a closed system of communication.

#### **Prevarication**

Prevarication is the ability to lie or deceive. When using language, humans can make false or meaningless statements. Language is used to convey information about states of affairs and states of



mind. Yet, as we all know, these are not necessarily true. Language can just as easily be used to withhold information, or to give false information – to prevaricate – and deception is as universal as language itself. Some theorists have gone so far as to suggest that this capacity for deception is at the heart of the development of language both for the species and for individuals. Roger Brown (1973), a leading researcher in child language, pointed out that children are frequently told off for telling untruths but rarely corrected for their grammar. Nevertheless, they all grow up to speak grammatically and tell lies. Robin Dunbar (1996) has suggested that the origins of language may be less to do with its capacity to convey information, and more with its ability to form competing social networks, in which trust and deception are key factors.

### **Novelty**

Language is not stagnant, but constantly changing. New idioms are created all the time and the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation. While the unique design features of language have their effectiveness, language also makes human communication and social relationships problematic. Another unique feature of language is prevarication; a person has the ability to say things that are completely false, a deception that is not common among other animals (Salzmann). By the time children turn three-years-old, about 70% of them are capable of lying. Then, by age four, their rate of lying will peak when they are told not to lie. Young children lie about their actions, but not about their feelings. At age ten, their lying is more sophisticated, and cheating becomes more common (lying).

People lie mainly to dodge trouble, to make themselves look good, or to avoid discomfort to others; it is a means of preserving social relations. Think about the role of ‘white’ lies: people compliment friends or family members on their inedible cooking, praise colleagues’ weak and disorganized first drafts, and a doctor may tell a depressed patient he has a 50-50 chance of a long-term recovery when s/he is confident he will only live another eight months. While at times these lies may seem harmless, these situations are where one can see how language can change one’s life. Lying is morally wrong, but perfect honesty may seem second best next to compassion, respect, and justice in certain situations. However, lying corrupts a human being’s ability to make free, rational choices, and robs people of their human dignity and autonomy. Thus, lies rob people of their freedom to choose rationally.

### **Topic- 046: Discreteness**

Symbols are made by combining smaller symbols that differ discontinuously (e.g., ‘bin’, ‘pin’). Linguistic representations can be broken down into small discrete units, which combine with each other in rule-governed ways. They are perceived categorically, not continuously. For example, English marks number with the plural morpheme /s/, which can be added to the end of any noun. The plural morpheme is perceived categorically, not continuously: we cannot express smaller or larger quantities by varying how loudly we pronounce the /s/. The communication system is made of discrete units, which can be broken apart to form new signals. For example, our sentences are made of words; our words are formed from syllables, stems, and even the units of letters. Each can be broken apart. Discreteness is a requirement for the ninth design feature productivity, but note that just because a system has discrete units does not mean that these units can be broken up to form new units.

(Another note is that languages that might not seem to be discrete, such as Chinese, actually are. For example, Chinese symbols are usually composed of two symbols, which can be broken apart and re-arranged.)

Language uses discrete signs. They are either one thing or another. A sound is perceived as one phoneme or another; there are no intermediate cases. (Though one could create a continuum of sounds between, say, /b/ and /p/, a speaker of a language with this distinction would perceive a sound along that continuum as one or the other.) Words, composed of phonemes, inherit this absolute quality of their components: a word is either 'bat' or 'pat' or another word but there are no intermediate cases.

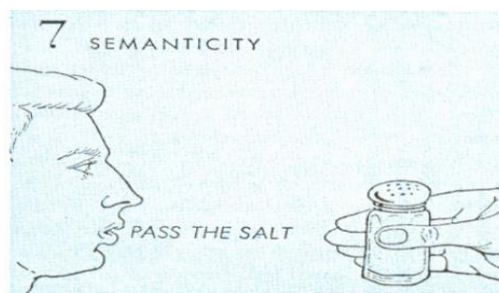
Many acts of non-verbal communication, on the other hand, are graded. If, for example, I smile at you while speaking, squeeze your hand, or laugh, I may increase or decrease the breadth of my smile, the strength of my squeeze, or the loudness of my laugh, thus signifying more or less of whatever I mean by these actions. Discreteness means the basic units of speech can be categorized as belonging to distinct categories. Language can be said to be built up from discrete units (e.g., phonemes in human language). Exchanging such discrete units causes a change in the meaning of a signal. This is an abrupt change, rather than a continuous change of meaning (e.g., 'cat' doesn't gradually change in meaning to 'bat', but changes abruptly in meaning at some point. Speech loudness and pitch can, on the other hand, be changed continuously without abrupt changes of meaning.

#### **Topic- 047: Interchangeability**

Interchangeability refers to the idea that humans can give and receive identical linguistic signals; humans are not limited in the types of messages they can say/hear. One can say 'I am a boy' even if one is a girl. This is not to be confused with lying (prevarication). The importance is that a speaker can physically create any and all messages regardless of their truth or relation to the speaker. In other words, anything that one can hear, one can also say.

Interchangeability refers to the speaker's ability to both receive and broadcast the same signal. This is different to some communication systems where, for example, males produce one set of behaviours and females another, and they are unable to interchange these messages so that males use the female signal, and vice versa. Not all species possess this feature. For example, in order to communicate their status, queen ants produce chemical scents that no other ants can produce.

#### **Topic- 048: Semanticity**



Specific sound signals are directly tied to certain meanings. The signals have meaning. Symbols used (phonemes, morphemes) have particular meanings. Specific sound signals are directly tied to certain meanings. The units created on the second level – whether they are words or combinations of words – have semanticity. That is to say, they mean things. They refer to something other than themselves: entities, ideas, states of affairs, feelings, and so on. ‘Rat’ means a particular kind of rodent, and can be used to refer to one when it appears, or to talk about one which is not there. There is a fixed relationship between a signal and a meaning. Semanticity refers to the idea that speech sounds can be linked to specific meanings, a fundamental aspect of all communication systems. Vervet monkey alarm calls have captured the attention (and, it seems, imagination) of numerous authors after Hockett. The calls of vervet monkeys demonstrate a kind of referential specificity, termed functional reference. The clearest case of arbitrariness and semanticity manifested by a non-human comes, not surprisingly, from the apes and from visual rather than vocal communication—the behaviour in question is the use of lexigrams by enculturated apes such as Kanzi. In short, monkey alarm calls and words are only superficially alike, while being unlike each other in most relevant respects. Finally, alarm calls are present in a number of non-primate or even non-mammalian species e.g., chickens (Evans et al. 1993).

**Lesson-09****WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?****Topic- 049: Introduction**

Language is a method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way; language is a method of expression or communication.

**What is Scientific?**

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, linguistics can be divided into several branches: descriptive linguistics and historical/comparative linguistics (if it is based on its methodology), synchronic and diachronic linguistics (if it is based on its aspect of time), and phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics (if it is based on a language as a system), and sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics (if it is related to or combined with the disciplines of sociology and psychology respectively). In order for a discipline to be scientific, it must be characterized by three features: explicitness, systematicness, and objectivity.

**What is Linguistics?**

The use of a language is the integral part of human language. All languages are surprisingly similar in their basic structure. Language and abstract thought are closely connected; there is a surprising increase in the number of studies about language. The fastest branch of knowledge is linguistics, the systematic study of language. Linguistics tries to answer the basic questions regarding language.

**What is Language?**

How does language work? What do all languages have in common? How does human language differ from animal communication? How does a child learn to speak? How does one write down and analyze an unwritten language? Why does language change? To what extent are social class differences reflected in language? Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Language means in general not a particular language.

According to Robins (1985):

Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential parts of the human life as we know it and as one of the far-reaching of human capabilities, in relation to the whole span of mankind's achievements.

**Linguists vs. Polyglot**

Linguistics does not emphasize practical knowledge or mastery of a particular language. Linguist studies the ways in which language is organized to fulfill human needs, as a system of communication. A linguist like a scientist does a systematic study.

In order for a discipline to be scientific, it must be characterised by three features:

- Explicitness,
- Systematicness
- Objectivity

### **Topic- 050: Explicitness**

Explicitness dictates that you should be clear about the assumptions (proven or unproven) on which a study is based, you have to make the intermediate stages of an argument clear e.g., do not leave anything for the intuition of the reader. As a science, linguistics must fulfill some scientific prerequisites. First, it must have a subject matter. Language is said to be a subject matter of Linguistics. As a subject matter, a language must be clearly and explicitly defined. Before analyzing a language, some linguists define a language in different ways e.g., a language may be defined as a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols that permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact. Thus, the scope of analysis is based on the clearly and explicitly defined subject matter. This is to say that everything beyond the scope such as gestures/bodily movement will be ignored. So, explicitness in defining the subject matter must be conducted in order so that we know what must be studied/ analyzed and what must be left. Degrees of explicitness:

**High Explicitness:** Test of high level of explicitness employs a variety of structured techniques to elicit language data.

**Low Explicitness:** Test of low explicitness collect data of language which is produced spontaneously.

### **Topic- 051: Systematicness**

Systematicness refers to complexity, and variability of language without which it is impossible to reach any general conclusions. Language is studied in a highly organized way. Systematicness entails the consistent use of terms or procedures; the study of language using procedures is as methodical and standardized as possible. In addition, it requires the strict or vigorous testing of our hypotheses: A hypothesis is a statement, which suggests or predicts a relationship between two or more variables e.g., a sound is nasalized whenever it is followed by a nasal sound, or a more general hypothesis like sound changes are regular. To elaborate on hypotheses: the linguist should be very specific. Also, a well-formed hypothesis should assert one relationship at a time i.e., try to study relationships between two variables only X and Y even if the phenomenon you are dealing with is multivariate. This is actually a requirement of experimental design in general. And do not miss this: you will need experimental design in all areas of linguistic research or whatever the type of linguistic phenomenon you are dealing with. Thus, systematicness is also needed by linguistics. Language analysis for the sake to develop linguistics is done systematically within the framework of some general theory of language structure. The linguist tries to verify the theory by making objective observations of actual language data and modifies the theory in the light of what he perceives to be patterns or regularities underlying the data.

### Topic- 052: Objectivity

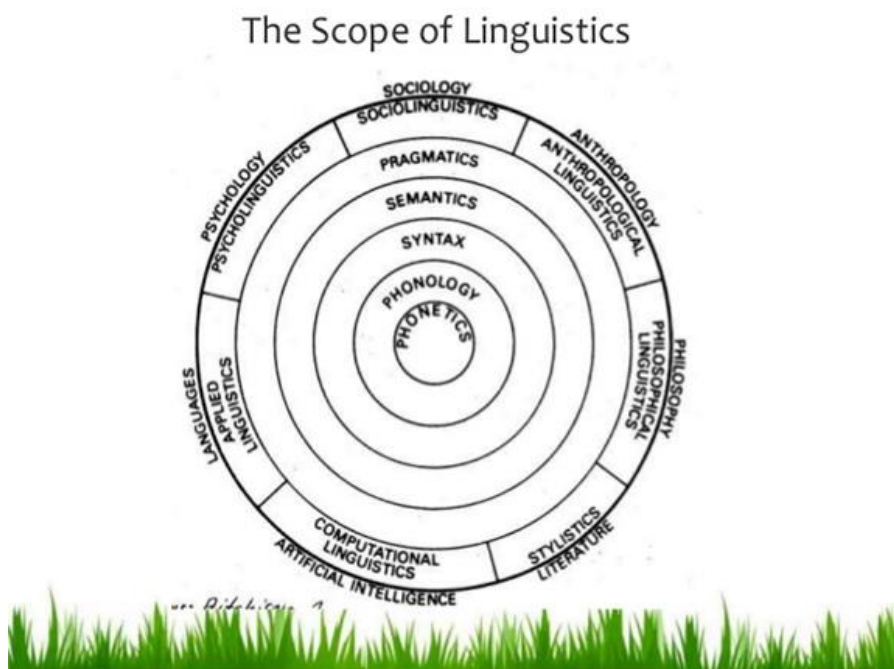
Objectivity is actually more or less synonymous with empiricity. Linguistic studies should be empirical. There are two basic meanings of this term for it to be based on physical observations.

**Empirical test:** Examination of phenomenon takes place under controlled, experimental conditions, the results being available to direct observation and judgment. If replicated, the same results and the same judgment would be obtained. Results should be verifiable.

**Objective Observation:** It must be based on an objective observation and/or investigation. The observation and/or investigation on the subject matter must be conducted objectively. The result of observation and/or investigation must be described objectively. It can be verified by any competent observer or investigator. So objectivity in conducting observation and/or investigation on the subject matter must be fulfilled in any scientific undertaking.

### Topic- 053: The Scope of Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of languages and has a vast scope in understanding the development of humans in the domains of vocalization of communication, history, sociology, anthropology, psychology, and other allied fields of study as subjects including the cognitive neural sciences. Micro-linguistics includes phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Macro-linguistics includes sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, stylistics, discourse analysis, computational linguistics, cognitive linguistics, applied linguistics, etc.



## Lesson-10

**INTRA-DISCIPLINARY BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS****Topic- 054: Intra-disciplinary Branches of Linguistics**

Language is a complex phenomenon and most important activity of human life. Linguistics deals with complex nature, origin, evolution, history and all other elements of it. So, it has become wide subject of serious contemplation. The rapid development of linguistics has given birth to many branches. An ordinary student of linguistics finds himself/herself into the troubled water as to how to deal with so many branches and ups and downs of the subject. There are many branches of linguistics, which have nothing to do with the subject such as:

- **Theoretical linguistics:** deals with concrete theories presented by scholars of language about various aspects concerning to linguistics.
- **Applied linguist:** highlights the various processes of evolution and gradual development of linguistics, which have been taken from year to year.
- **Historical linguistics:** is concerned with constructing theories of language or languages, or with developing linguistic theory.
- **Descriptive Linguistics:** deals with description and elaboration of the theories presented by language scholars.
- **Applied Linguistics:** Applied linguistics deals with application of some fundamental issues relating language. In this branch of linguistics, linguists after pain taking research apply some set formulas and these formulas pave the way for new researches, inquiries and discoveries in the subject. For example, traditional grammar does not quench the thirst of a linguist and he goes beyond it and gives his own method of learning as in traditional grammar one does not go beyond the sentence level whereas in linguistics the maximal unit of language is discourse beyond the sentence level.

**Topic- 055: General Linguistics**

General linguistics is the branch of linguistics that is devoted to the study of the theoretical bases for describing language and methods of investigating linguistic phenomena. General linguistics also studies the connection between linguistics, and other fields of learning, including dialectical materialism, logic, and psychology. In addition, it studies the connection between linguistics and historical materialism, inasmuch as the development of language is conditioned by the structure of society and social processes. General linguistics also studies the relationship between linguistics and semiotics, as well as the connection among linguistics, physiology, and acoustics.

One feature of general linguistics is a dual approach to the study of language—a structural and social approach engendered by the very nature of language. From the standpoint of structural linguistics, general linguistics studies language as an integrated structure consisting of interrelated and interacting phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactical, and other systems, with internal rules specific to each language.



The description of language as a structure may be either synchronic or taking account of the dynamics of development, diachronic. The comparative study of different languages reveals their common features or differences on a typological or genetic level. The study of the content of language helps reveal the nature and processes of thinking, and thereby relates structural linguistics to the social aspect of linguistics.

From the standpoint of sociolinguistics, general linguistics studies the social functions of language, the relationship between language and social processes, and the reflection of these social processes in the social and territorial differentiation of language and in its structural and stylistic variation. The relation between language and society is particularly apparent in the intermediation between the types of social relationships and the different forms of language at different stages of social development, for example, the formation of national languages during the historical emergence of ethnic identity.

### **Topic- 056: Descriptive Linguistics**

Descriptive Linguistics is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given set of speakers at a given time. This time may be the present or the past at a given time. The language is described what may precede it or follow it.

Descriptive linguistics emphasizes in modern linguistics as it is the fundamental aspect of the study of language. It is contrasted with prescriptive linguistics of earlier times because it deals with the description of how language actually works rather than how it should be used. In descriptive linguistics we describe the language systematically at all levels. We analyze and describe the structure of the language.

Modern linguistics is based on a structural approach to language, as exemplified in the work of Bloomfield and others. The terms synchronic and diachronic given by Saussure are used to distinguish between the descriptions of a language at a given time. 'A synchronic description is non-historic; a diachronic description traces the historical development of a language' (Lyons 1981). If we study the changes that have taken place in English from Old English to Middle English, it is a diachronic or historical study. If we study the structure of English as it exists today and describe it without reference to how it was used in the past, it is synchronic study. Descriptivism is the belief that description is more significant or important to teach, study, and practice than prescription.

### **Topic- 057: Comparative Linguistics**

Comparative linguistics is the study of similarities and differences between languages, in particular the comparison of related languages with a view to reconstructing forms in their lost parent languages. Comparative linguistics (originally comparative philology) is a branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness.

Genetic relatedness implies a common origin or proto-language and comparative linguistics aims to construct language families, to reconstruct proto-languages, and specify the changes that have resulted

in the documented languages. To maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts. A number of methods for carrying out language classification have been developed, ranging from simple inspection to computerized hypothesis testing. Such methods have gone through a long process of development.

Every difference between two related languages should be explicable to a high degree of plausibility and systematic changes. A proto-language, or parent language (L) is the one from which other languages have developed. The languages (L 1, L 2) are called sister languages.

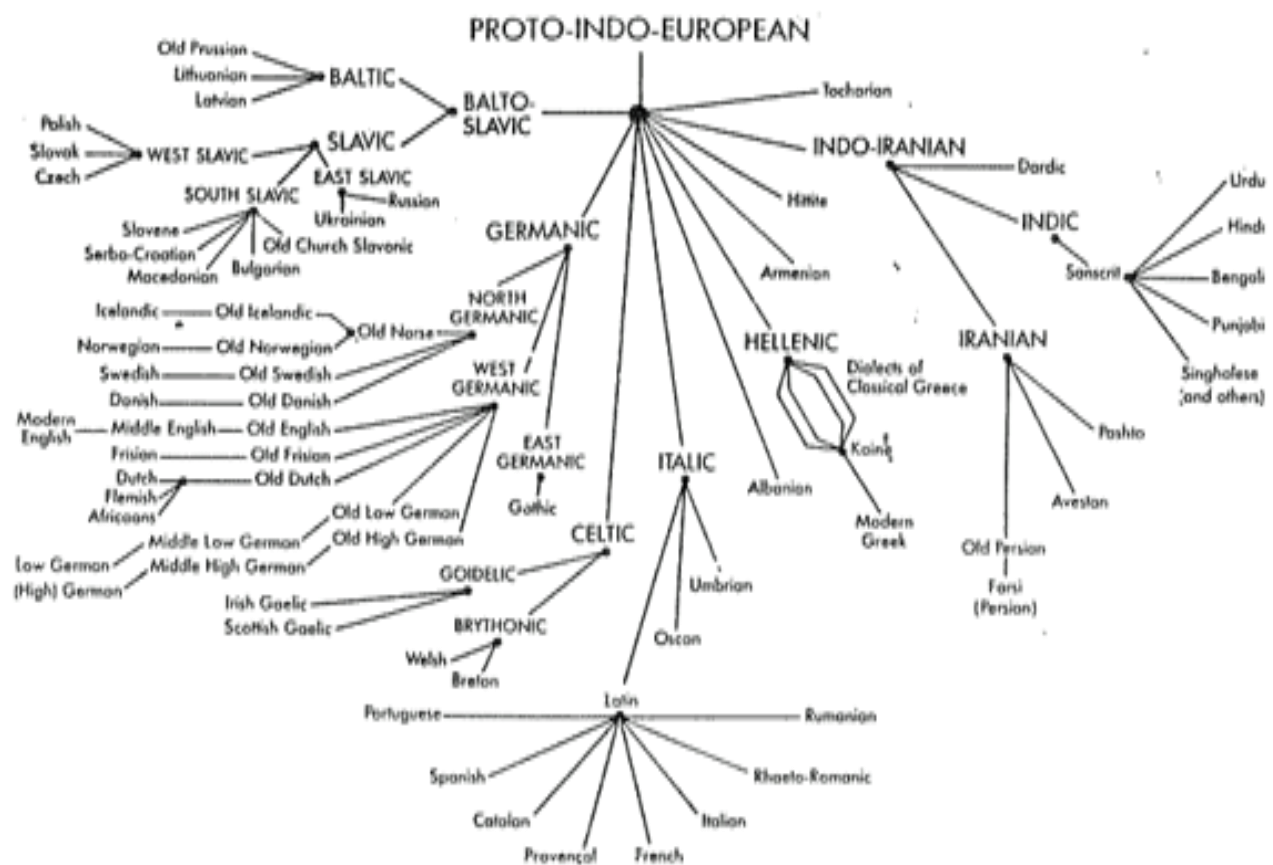
Proto-Indo-European is one out of many language families. The proto-languages were reconstructed by the comparative method which is hypothetical. A reconstruction may have predictive power. Saussure's proposal was that the Indo-European consonant system contained laryngeals, a type of consonant attested in no Indo-European language known at the time. We can find certain Cognate in sister languages of Proto-Indo-European group. Common ancestor in the Italic branch of Indo-European:

- Spanish: madre, padre, amigo
- Italian: madre, padre, amico

Common ancestor in English and German

- English: mother, father and friend
- German: mutter, vater and freund

Following is a tree showing languages of proto-Indo-European language family:



Comparative linguistics like historical linguistics studies law operating in language change and in the formation and development of languages; hence this type of study is related to descriptive linguistics.

### **Topic- 058: Historical Linguistics**

Historical linguistics, also called diachronic linguistics, is the scientific study of language change over time. Principal concerns of historical linguistics include to:

- describe and account for observed changes in particular languages
- reconstruct the pre-history of languages and to determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families
- develop general theories about how and why language changes
- describe the history of speech communities
- study the history of words i.e., etymology
- describe and account for observed changes in particular languages
- develop general theories about how and why language changes

Modern historical linguistics dates from the late 18th century. It grew out of the earlier discipline of philology, the study of ancient texts and documents dating back to antiquity.

At first, historical linguistics was comparative linguistics. Scholars were concerned chiefly with establishing language families and reconstructing prehistoric proto-languages, using the comparative method and internal reconstruction. The focus was initially on the well-known Indo-European languages, many of which had long written histories. The scholars also studied the Uralic languages, another European language family for which less early written material exists. Since then, there has been significant comparative linguistic work expanding outside of European languages as well, such as on the Austronesian languages, and various families of Native American languages, among many others. Comparative linguistics is now, however, only a part of a more broadly conceived discipline of historical linguistics. For the Indo-European languages, comparative study is now a highly specialized field. Most research is being carried out on the subsequent development of these languages, in particular, the development of the modern standard varieties.

Initially, all modern linguistics was historical in orientation. Even the study of modern dialects involved looking at their origins. Ferdinand de Saussure's distinction between synchronic and diachronic linguistics is fundamental to the present day organization of the discipline. In the 20th century, historical linguists successfully extended the application of the theories and methods of the 19th century to the classification and historical study of non-Indo-European languages. Historical linguistics, when contrasted with synchronic linguistics, the study of a language at a particular point in time, is often called diachronic linguistics.

**Lesson-11****INTER-DISCIPLINARY BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS****Topic- 059: Inter-disciplinary Branches**

Linguistics can be divided into intra-disciplinary and interdisciplinary branches:

Intra-disciplinary concerns micro-linguistics whereas interdisciplinary concerns macro-linguistics. Interdisciplinary studies involve two or more academic disciplines which are considered distinct. The most common interdisciplinary branches of Linguistics are: Branches of macro-linguistics:

- Socio-linguistics: it studies the social aspects of language and its relation with society.
- Psycho-linguistics: it studies the language in relation to psychology.

Applied linguistics studies application to the solution of practical problem as the recovery of speech ability. Following are the branches of this discipline:

- Historical Linguistics
- Sociolinguistics
- Psycholinguistics
- Ethno-linguistics or Anthropological Linguistics
- Computational Linguistics

**Topic- 060: Sociolinguistics**

‘Sociolinguistics’ is generally used for the study of the relationship between language and society. This is a broad area of investigation that developed through the interaction of linguistics with a number of other academic disciplines. It has strong connections with anthropology through the study of language and culture, and with sociology through the investigation of the role language plays in the organization of social groups and institutions. It is also tied to social psychology, particularly with regard to how attitudes and perceptions are expressed and how in-group and out-group behaviours are identified. We use all these connections when we try to analyze language from a social perspective.

Whereas the traditional study of regional dialects tended to concentrate on the speech of people in rural areas, the study of social dialects has been mainly concerned with speakers in towns and cities. In the social study of dialect, it is social class that is mainly used to define groups of speakers as having something in common. The two main groups are generally identified as ‘middle class’, those who have more years of education and perform non-manual work, and ‘working class’, those who have fewer years of education and perform manual work of some kind. So, when we refer to ‘working-class speech’, we are talking about a social dialect. The terms ‘upper’ and ‘lower’ are used to further subdivide the groups, mainly on an economic basis, making ‘upper-middle-class speech’ another type of social dialect or sociolect. As in all dialect studies, only certain features of language use are treated as relevant in the analysis of social dialects. These features are pronunciations, words or structures that are regularly used in one form by working-class speakers and in another form by middle-class speakers.

In Edinburgh, Scotland, for example, the word *home* is regularly pronounced as [heim], as if rhyming with *name*, among lower-working-class speakers, and as [həʊm], as if rhyming with *foam*, among middle-class speakers. It is a small difference in pronunciation, but it is an indicator of social status. A more familiar example might be the verb *ain't*, as in *I ain't finished yet*, which is generally used more often in working-class speech than in middle-class speech. When we look for other examples of language use that might be characteristic of a social dialect, we treat class as the social variable and the pronunciation or word as the linguistic variable. We can then try to investigate the extent to which there is systematic variation involving the two variables by counting how often speakers in each class use each version of the linguistic variable. This is not usually an all-or-nothing situation, so studies of social dialects typically report how often speakers in a particular group use a certain form rather than find that only one group or the other uses the form.

Unique circumstances of every life result in each of us having an individual way of speaking, and a personal dialect or idiolect. Features occur frequently in one's speech (or not); they mark you as a member of a particular social group, whether one realizes it or not. Final pronunciation of *-ing* with [ŋ] rather than [ɪŋ] at the end of words such as *sitting* and *drinking* refers to two distinct classes.

### **Topic- 061: Psycholinguistics**

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental aspects of language and speech. It is primarily concerned with the ways in which language is represented and processed in the brain. A branch of linguistics and psychology, psycholinguistics is part of the field of cognitive science. American psychologist Jacob Robert Kantor in his book *An Objective Psychology of Grammar* (1936) introduced the term psycholinguistics. 'Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental mechanisms that make it possible for people to use language. It is a scientific discipline whose goal is a coherent theory of the way in which language is produced and understood.' However, there are two key questions to answer.

- What knowledge of language is needed for us to use language? In a sense, we must know a language to use it, but we are not always fully aware of this knowledge.
- What cognitive processes are involved in the ordinary use of language? By 'ordinary use of language' we mean such things as understanding a lecture, reading a book, writing a letter, and holding a conversation. By cognitive processes, we mean processes such as perception, memory, and thinking. Although we do few things as often or as easily as speaking and listening, we will find that considerable cognitive processing is going on during those activities.

Psycholinguists study how word meaning, sentence meaning, and discourse meaning are computed and represented in mind. They study how complex words and sentences are composed in speech and how they are broken down into their constituents in the acts of listening and reading. There are essentially two schools of thought as to how children acquire or learn language, and there is still much debate as to which theory is the correct one. The first theory states that all language must be learned by the child. The second view states that the abstract system of language cannot be learned, but that humans possess an innate language faculty, or an access to what has been called universal grammar. The view that language must be learned was especially popular before 1960 and is well represented by the mentalistic theories of Jean Piaget and the empiricist Rudolf Carnap. Likewise, the school of psychology known as

behaviourism (B.F. Skinner, 1957) puts forth the point of view that language is a behaviour shaped by conditioned response, hence it is learned.

The innatist perspective began with Noam Chomsky's highly critical review of Skinner's book in 1959. This review helped to start what has been termed 'the cognitive revolution' in psychology. Chomsky posited humans possess a special, innate ability for language and that complex syntactic features, such as recursion, are 'hard-wired' in the brain. These abilities are thought to be beyond the grasp of the most intelligent and social non-humans. According to Chomsky, children acquiring a language have a vast search space to explore among all possible human grammars, yet at the time, there was no evidence that children receive sufficient input to learn all the rules of their language. Hence, there must be some other innate mechanism that endows language ability to humans.

### **Topic- 062: Applied Linguistics**

Applied Linguistics is concerned with practical issues involving language in the life of the community. The most important of these is the learning of second or foreign languages. Linguistics and Applied Linguistics is a challenging and stimulating discipline, offering many opportunities for original work. Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of linguistics that identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to applied linguistics are education, psychology, communication research, anthropology, and sociology.

A background in linguistics is essential for language teachers, translators, speech-language pathologists, audiologists, and many other language professionals.

Applied Linguistics:

- examines the structure of language and its role in communication
- explores how children acquire language
- studies how the skills of second-language speakers develop
- investigates how the social or cultural environment interacts with language
- develops a strong foundation in the structure of language and its role in communication
- gains practical knowledge through clinical observations

Major branches of applied linguistics include bilingualism and multilingualism, conversation analysis, contrastive linguistics, sign linguistics, language assessment, literacies, discourse analysis, language pedagogy, second language acquisition, language planning and policy, inter-linguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, forensic linguistics, and translation.

Applied Linguistics is concerned with practical issues involving language in the life of the community. The most important of these is the learning of second or foreign languages. Others include language policy, multilingualism, language education, the preservation and revival of endangered languages, and the assessment and treatment of language difficulties. Other areas of interest include professional communication, for example, between doctors and their patients, between lawyers and their clients and in courtrooms, as well as other areas of institutional and cross-cultural communication ranging from the boardroom to the routines on an answer phone.



Linguistics and Applied Linguistics is a challenging and stimulating discipline, offering many opportunities for original work.

### **Topic- 063: Computational Linguistics**

Computational linguistics is the branch of linguistics in which the techniques of computer science are applied to the analysis and synthesis of language and speech. Computational linguistics is an interdisciplinary field concerned with the statistical or rule-based modeling of natural language from a computational perspective.

Traditionally, computational linguistics was performed by computer scientists who had specialized in the application of computers to the processing of a natural language. Today, computational linguists often work as members of interdisciplinary teams, which can include regular linguists, experts in the target language, and computer scientists. In general, computational linguistics draws upon the involvement of linguists, computer scientists, experts in artificial intelligence, mathematicians, logicians, philosophers, cognitive scientists, cognitive psychologists, psycholinguists, anthropologists, and neuroscientists, among others.

Computational linguistics has theoretical and applied components. Theoretical computational linguistics focuses on issues in theoretical linguistics and cognitive science, and applied computational linguistics focuses on the practical outcome of modeling human language use.

Computational linguistics is often grouped within the field of artificial intelligence, but actually was present before the development of artificial intelligence. Computational linguistics originated in the United States in the 1950s with the efforts to use computers to translate texts from foreign languages automatically, particularly Russian scientific journals, into English.

Since computers can make arithmetic calculations much faster and more accurately than humans, it was thought to be only a short matter of time before they could also begin to process language. Computational and quantitative methods are also used historically in attempted reconstruction of earlier forms of modern languages and subgrouping modern languages into language families. Earlier methods such as lexicostatistics and glottochronology have been proven to be premature and inaccurate. However, recent interdisciplinary studies, which borrow concepts from biological studies, especially gene mapping, have proved to produce more sophisticated analytical tools and more reliable results.

When machine translation failed to yield accurate translations right away, automated processing of human languages was recognized as more complex than it had originally been assumed. In order to translate one language into another, it was observed that one had to understand the grammar of both languages, including both morphology and syntax. In order to understand syntax, one had to understand the semantics and the lexicon, and even something of the pragmatics of language use. Thus, what started as an effort to translate between languages evolved into an entire discipline devoted to understanding how to represent and process natural languages using computers?



Nowadays research within the scope of computational linguistics is done at computational linguistics departments, computational linguistics laboratories, computer science departments, and linguistics departments. Some research in the field of computational linguistics aims to create working speech or text processing systems while others aim to create a system allowing human-machine interaction. Programs meant for human-machine communication are called conversational agents.

### **Topic- 064: Geographical Linguistics**

Definition of linguistic geography: Local or regional variations of a language or dialect studied as a field of knowledge — also called dialect geography. Language geography is the branch of human geography that studies the geographic distribution of language(s) or its constituent elements. There are two principal fields of study within the geography of language: ‘geography of languages’, which deals with the distribution through history and space of languages, and is concerned with the analysis of the distribution patterns and spatial structures of languages in contact. Geolinguistics being the study of the political, economic and cultural processes that affect the status and distribution of languages or in other words, the study of languages and dialects in contact and in conflict with various societal, economic, ideological, political, and other contemporary trends with regard to a particular geographic location and on a planetary scale.

Linguistic geography can also refer to studies of how people talk about the landscape. For example, toponymy is the study of place names. Landscape ethno-ecology, also known as ethno-physiography, is the study of landscape ontologies and how they are expressed in language.

Many studies have researched the effect of language contact, as the languages or dialects (varieties) of peoples have interacted. This territorial expansion of language groups has usually resulted in the overlaying of languages upon existing speech areas, rather than the replacement of one language by another. An example could be sought in the Norman Conquest of England: Old French became the language of the aristocracy but Middle English remained the language of the majority of the population. Peter Trudgill says, ‘linguistic geography has been geographical only in the sense that it has been concerned with the spatial distribution of linguistic phenomena.’

A common production of linguistic investigators of dialects is the shaded and dotted map (linguistic map) showing where one linguistic feature ends and another begins or overlaps. Various compilations of these maps for England have been issued over the years, including Joseph Wright's English Dialect Dictionary (1896–1905), the Survey of English Dialects (1962-8), and The Linguistic Atlas of England (1978).

## Lesson-12

## LINGUISTICS VS. TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

**Topic- 065: Introduction**

Words can only be combined in limited number of patterns. We recognize that the phrase ‘the lucky boys’ is a well formed phrase in English, but that the following two ‘phrases’ are not at all well-formed.

- \*boys the lucky
- \*lucky boys the (an asterisk \*is used to indicate that a form is unacceptable or ungrammatical.)

So, we can see that English has strict rules for combining words into phrases. The article *the* must go before the adjective *lucky*, which must go before the noun *boys*. So, in order to be grammatical, this type of phrase must have the following sequence:

article + adjective + noun

and not

\*noun + article + adjective

The process of describing the structure of phrases and sentences in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences is one way of defining grammar. It is the kind of definition assumed when we talk about the grammar of English as opposed to the grammar of Swahili, Tagalog or Turkish.

**Traditional Grammar**

The terms ‘article,’ ‘adjective,’ and ‘noun’ that we use to label the grammatical categories of the words in the phrase *the lucky boys* come from traditional grammar, which has its origins in the description of languages such as Latin and Greek. Since there were well-established grammatical descriptions of these languages, it seemed appropriate to adopt the existing categories from these descriptions and apply them in the analysis of ‘newer’ languages such as English. After all, Latin and Greek were the languages of scholarship, religion, philosophy and ‘knowledge,’ so the grammar of these languages was taken to be the model for other grammars. The best-known terms from that tradition are those used in describing the parts of speech.

**The Parts of Speech**

Terms such as ‘adjective’ and ‘noun’ are used to label forms in the language as the parts of speech or word classes. The technical terms used to describe each part of speech are illustrated in the following sentence and simple definitions of each term are listed below.

Art	Adj	N	V	Art	N	P	Art	N	Conj	Pro	V	Pro	Adv
The	lucky	boys	found	a	backpack	in	the	park	and	they	opened	it	carefully

Basic definitions of this type are useful for identifying most forms in a language such as English, but they are not completely reliable. A different approach might focus on some other properties of the parts of speech. For example, a noun can be defined as a form that comes after an article (a, the) and can take inflections for possessive (-'s) and plural (-s). Of course, not all nouns (e.g., information, mud) have all these characteristics. Moreover, these characteristics are unlikely to be true of nouns in other languages that we might want to describe. An alternative way of looking at nouns and other parts of speech had to be found in order to carry out structural analysis.

## Agreement

In addition to the terms used for the parts of speech, traditional grammatical analysis has also given us a number of other categories, including 'number,' 'person,' 'tense,' 'voice' and, 'gender.' These categories can be discussed in isolation, but their role in describing language structure becomes clearer when we consider them in terms of agreement. For example, we say that the verb *loves* 'agrees with' the noun *Cathy* in the following sentence:

Cathy loves her dog.

This agreement is partially based on the category of number, that is, whether the noun is singular or plural. It is also based on the category of person, which covers the distinctions of first person (involving the speaker), second person (involving the hearer), and third person (involving any others). The different forms of English pronouns can be described in terms of person and number. We use *me* for first person singular, *you* for second person singular, and *him*, *her*, *it* (or *Cathy*) for third person singular. So, in the sentence *Cathy loves her dog*, we have a noun *Cathy*, which is third person singular, and we use the verb *loves* (not *love*) to 'agree with' the noun.

In addition, the form of the verb must be described in terms of another category called tense. In this case, the verb *loves* is in the present tense, which is different from the past tense (*loved*). The sentence is also in the active voice, describing what *Cathy* does (i.e., she performs the action of the verb). An alternative would be the passive voice, which can be used to describe what happens to *Cathy* (i.e., she does not perform the action), as in *Cathy is loved by her dog* or just *Cathy is loved*.

Our final category is gender, which helps us describe the agreement between *Cathy* and *her* in our example sentence. In English, we have to describe this relationship in terms of natural gender, mainly derived from a biological distinction between male and female. The agreement between *Cathy* and *her* is based on a distinction made in English between reference to female entities (*she*, *her*), male entities (*he*, *his*), and things or creatures, when the sex is unknown or irrelevant (*it*, *its*).

The type of biological distinction used in English is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that use grammatical gender. Whereas natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminine), and is not tied to sex. In this latter sense, nouns are classified according to their gender class, and typically, articles and adjectives have different forms to 'agree with' the gender of the noun.

**Topic- 066: Linguistics: The Scientific Study of Language****Definition of Linguistics**

Linguistics may be defined as the scientific study of language. This definition is hardly sufficient to give the reader any positive indication of the fundamental principles of the subject. It may be made a little more revealing by drawing in greater detail the implications contained in the qualification 'scientific'. For the moment, it will be enough to say that by the scientific study of language is meant its investigation by means of controlled and empirically verifiable observations and with reference to some general theory of language-structure. The scientific approaches of linguistics are as follows:

Objectivity	No primitive, pure, beautiful, cultural, and sophisticated languages
Empiricism	Not speculative or intuitive, observation, experiments, analyze the data and make generalization
Rationalism	Role that mind plays in the acquisition of knowledge
Exhaustiveness	Deals with all relevant data
Consistency	Allows no contradictory statements
Economy	Repetition is not allowed, economic statements, fewer concepts or symbols

Like any scientific discipline, linguistics too is not static. Viewpoints and theoretical methods in the field change even in fundamental ways from time to time.

**Topic- 067: Linguistics and Descriptivism**

Descriptivism is a nonjudgmental approach to language that focuses on how it is actually spoken and written. It is also called linguistic descriptivism, and is contrasted with prescriptivism. The idea behind descriptive linguistics is that a language is defined by what people do with it. In other words, you begin by studying and listening to native speakers.

In the article 'Beyond and Between the Three Circles', linguist Christian Mair has observed that the 'study of human languages in the spirit of linguistic descriptivism has been one of the great democratic enterprises of the past two centuries of scholarship in the humanities. In the twentieth century, structuralist descriptivism and sociolinguistics have . . . taught us to respect the structural complexity, communicative adequacy and creative-expressive potential of all the world's languages, including socially stigmatized working-class and ethnic speech.' Look at the different approaches of descriptivism and prescriptivism.

Do not split an infinitive.	He would like to quickly finish his homework.
Do not end a sentence with a preposition.	Who did you go with?
Never begin a sentence with and!	And he started his practice.
The pronoun must be in nominative case after comparative adjective.	Mary runs faster than me.
Nominative case of pronoun is used after verb to be.	It is me.

Except only in certain educational contexts, modern linguists utterly reject prescriptivism, and their investigations are based instead on descriptivism. In a descriptivist approach, we try to describe the facts of linguistic behaviour exactly as we find them, and we refrain from making value judgments about the speech of native speakers.

For instance, if we take inventory of the specific linguistic features of the discourse of a given speech community (e.g., gamers, sports enthusiasts, technology majors), we are within the realm of descriptivism. A speech community, as Gumperz (1968, p.381) points out, is 'any human aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and sets off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage.

Descriptivism involves observing and analyzing, without passing too much judgment, the habits and practices within speech communities, focusing on language users and uses without attempting to get them to modify their language according to standards external to the language itself. Descriptive linguistics aims to understand the ways people use language in the world, given all of the forces that influence such use. Prescriptivism lies at the other end of this continuum and is usually associated with stipulating rules and norms for language use.

#### **Topic- 068: Linguistics is of Non-Speculative Nature**

Linguistics is non-speculative. So, the main difference between scientific and non-scientific study of language is that linguistics is empirical rather than speculative or intuitive. It operates with publically verifiable data obtained by means of observation and experiment.

Speculative mood is an epistemic grammatical mood found in some languages, which indicates that the utterance is based on speculation of the speaker, and not necessarily known to be the case. For example, 'The butler could have been the killer.'

#### **Topic- 069: Linguistics and Objectivity**

Close to the property of empiricism is objectivity. Objectivity is that, 'it considers all languages to be equal'. For a linguist, there are no primitive, pure, beautiful, cultural, and sophisticated languages. Objectivity is difficult to attain because language is so familiar to us that we can hardly dissociate ourselves from it. Practical familiarity with language stands in the way of its objective examination.

All sorts of social, cultural, and nationalistic prejudices are associated with laypersons' view of particular language(s). The objective study of language is hindered by various cultural, social, and historical misconceptions about certain languages.

In linguistics, objectivity also means that the linguist and his informants are distinct. The linguist listens; his informants talk. Questions of reproducibility are different. Language is taken for granted as we are familiar with language since childhood in a practical and unreflective manner. For example, one dialect of a particular language might be thought to be purer than another. Objectivity demands that

prescriptive beliefs should be challenged and terms like pure and primitive should either be clearly defined or rejected.

### **Topic- 070: Linguistics and Spoken Language**

A spoken language is a language produced by articulate sounds, as opposed to a written language. Many languages have no written form and so, are only spoken. Within the field of linguistics, the current consensus is that speech is an innate human capability, and written language is a cultural invention.

An oral language or vocal language is a language produced with the vocal tract, as opposed to a sign language, which is produced with the hands and face. The term 'spoken language' is sometimes used to mean only vocal languages, especially by linguists, making all three terms synonyms by excluding sign languages. Others refer to sign language as 'spoken', especially in contrast to written transcriptions of signs.

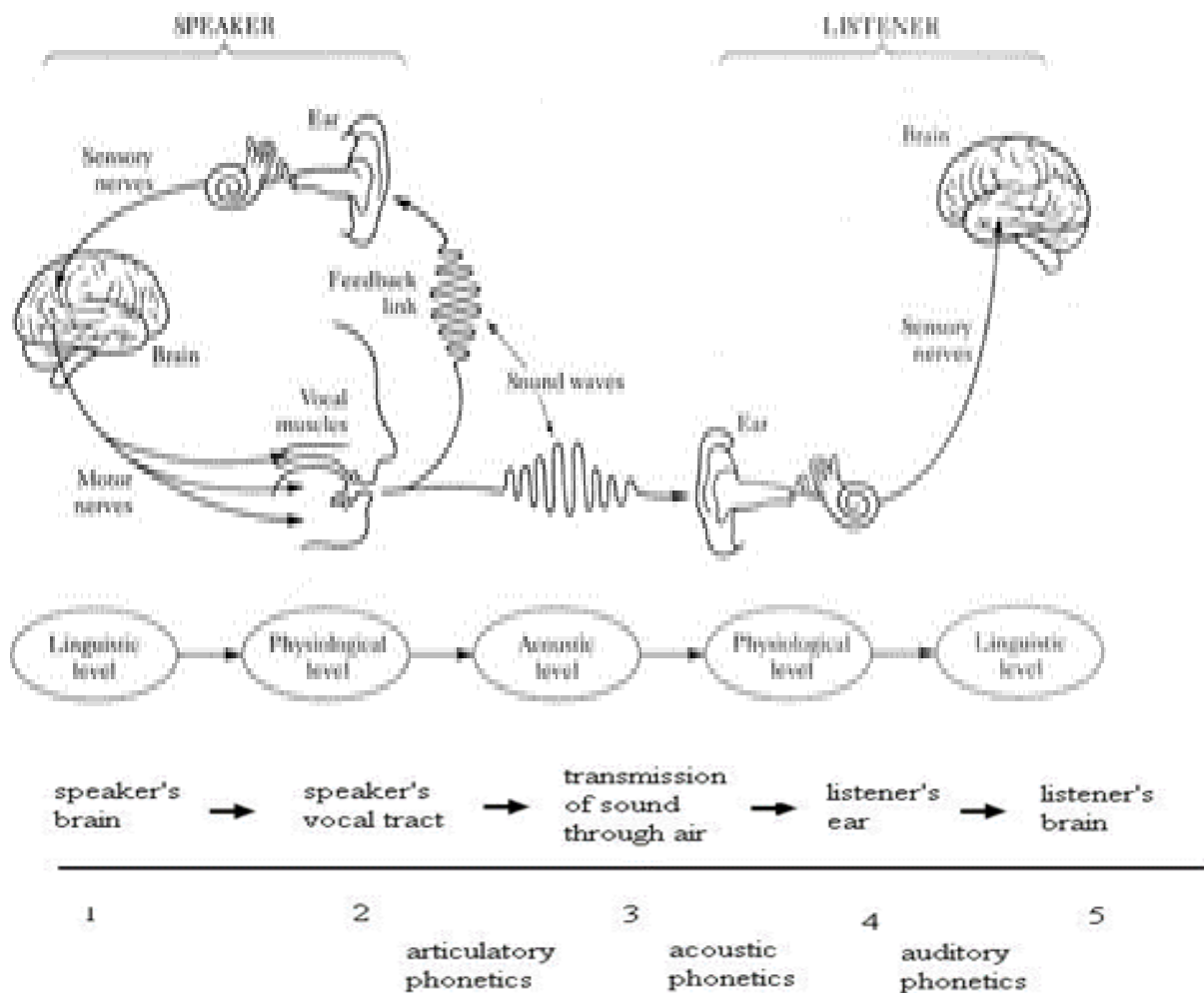
In spoken language, much of the meaning is determined by the context. That contrasts with written language in which more of the meaning is provided directly by the text. In spoken language, the truth of a proposition is determined by common-sense reference to experience. The relationship between spoken language and written language is complex. Within the field of linguistics, the current consensus is that speech is an innate human capability, and written language is a cultural invention. However, some linguists, such as those of the Prague school, argue that written language and spoken language possess distinct qualities which would argue against written language being dependent on spoken language for its existence.

Accordingly, language is treated almost exclusively from the point of view of linguistics. Linguists study individual human languages and linguistic behaviour in order to discover the fundamental properties of this general human language. Through this enterprise, they also hope to discover some fundamental aspects of what it means to be human. The importance of language and languages goes far beyond internal structure, extending to almost all human endeavours.

## Lesson-13

**PHONETICS AND ITS BRANCHES****Topic- 071: Definition**

Phonetics and phonology deal with pronunciation, or, more precisely, with speech sounds and the sound system. First of all, phonetics divides, or segments concrete utterances into individual speech sounds. It is therefore exclusively concerned with parole or performance. Phonetics (pronounced /fə'netiks/, from the Greek means sound, voice) is a branch of linguistics that comprises the study of the sounds of human speech, or—in the case of sign languages—the equivalent aspects of sign. It is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds or signs (phones): their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neurophysiological status. Phonology, on the other hand, is concerned with the abstract, grammatical characterization of the systems of sounds or signs. The following illustration encompasses the width and breadth of phonetics:



Phonetics can then be divided into three distinct phases: (1) articulatory phonetics, (2) acoustic phonetics, and (3) auditory phonetics.

- 1) **Articulatory phonetics** describes in detail how the speech organs, also called vocal organs or articulators, in the vocal tract are used in order to produce, or articulate, speech sounds. It also analyses which organs and muscles are used by the speakers to produce speech.
- 2) **Acoustic phonetics** studies the physical properties of speech sounds i.e., the way in which the air vibrates as sounds pass from speaker to listener. A spectrograph is a machine that measures the sound waves and depicts them as images, called spectrograms or sonograms, showing the duration, frequency, intensity, and quality of the sounds.
- 3) **Auditory phonetics** investigates the perception of speech sounds by the listener i.e., how the sounds are transmitted from the ear to the brain, and how they are processed. It also focuses on the effect those sounds have when they reach the listener's ear and brain. Phonetics is thus a linguistic field that draws heavily on other scientific disciplines including anatomy, physiology, neurology, and physics.

### **Topic- 072: Nature and Functions of Phonetics**

Phonetics is the scientific study of language. It does not study an individual language; rather it studies language in general. It is concerned with the nature of language and communication. Research for general properties common to all human language or group of languages is the main concern of linguistics. Like human body, language is very complex. Language system functions because of words, structures, sounds, etc.

Language works through symbols. Symbols used in language must be known to the speaker and listener. Language is not an inherent function of man. Speech is the instrument of society. Language does not remain in vacuum. Language is flexible; it changes from time to time. The study of linguistics quenches a linguist's thirst; it gives him the knowledge of the properties and mysteries of language; it helps him in improving and reforming spelling, vocabulary, pronunciation, and usage.

### **Topic- 073: Articulatory Phonetics**

#### **Articulatory Phonetics**

Phonetics is the study of the production of speech sounds. Unlike auditory phonetics, articulatory phonetics deals with the sender rather than the receiver of the message. It discusses the physical manifestation of language in sound waves; how these sounds are articulated and perceived, characteristics of human sound, methods for description, classification and transcription. We want to know:

- what these sounds are, how they fall into patterns
- how they change in different circumstances
- what aspects of the sounds are necessary for conveying the meaning of what is being said
- the apparatus of speech



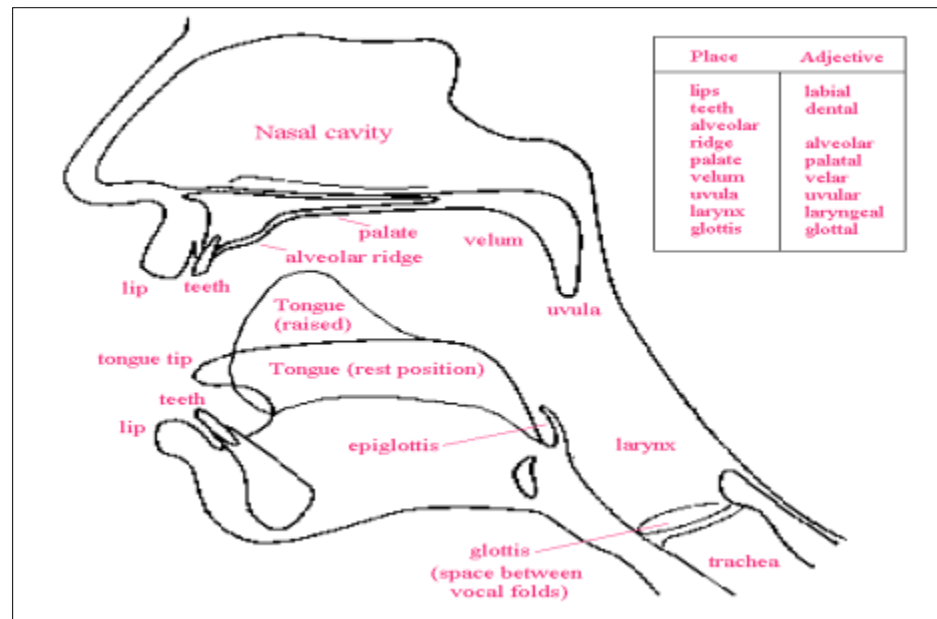
## Articulatory Phonetics

**Airstream:** a stream of air coming from the lungs produces speech. The lungs act as a bellows, pushing air through the throat, nose, and mouth.

**Ingressive Sounds:** Speech sounds produced while inhaling are called ingressive sounds. English does not have any such sound but a few languages have.

**Egressive Sounds:** Sounds produced by expelling air are called egressive sounds. All languages produce sounds by expelling.

**Organs of Speech or Articulators:** The air is modified by the structures of the respiratory and digestive systems before it is released. These structures are referred to as the organs of speech or articulators.

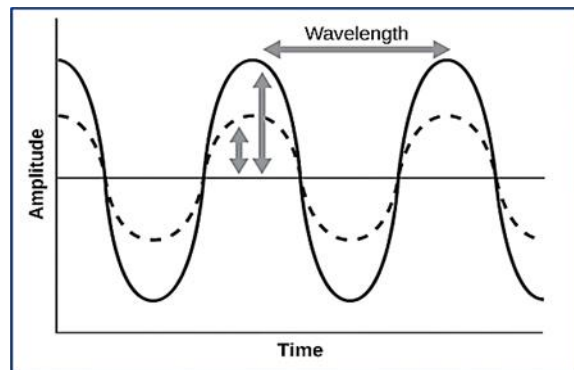


In studying articulation, phoneticians explain how humans produce speech sounds via the interaction of different physiological structures. Generally, articulatory phonetics is concerned with the transformation of aerodynamic energy into acoustic energy.

### Topic- 074: Acoustic Phonetics

Acoustic phonetics is the study of sound waves made by the human vocal organs for communication. Phoneticians depict and analyze sound waves using machines and computer programs. Speech consists of variations in air pressure which result from physical disturbances of air molecules caused by the flow of air out of the lungs. This airflow makes the air molecules alternately crowd together

and move apart (oscillate), creating increases and decreases, respectively, in air pressure. The resulting sound wave transmits these changes in pressure from speaker to hearer.

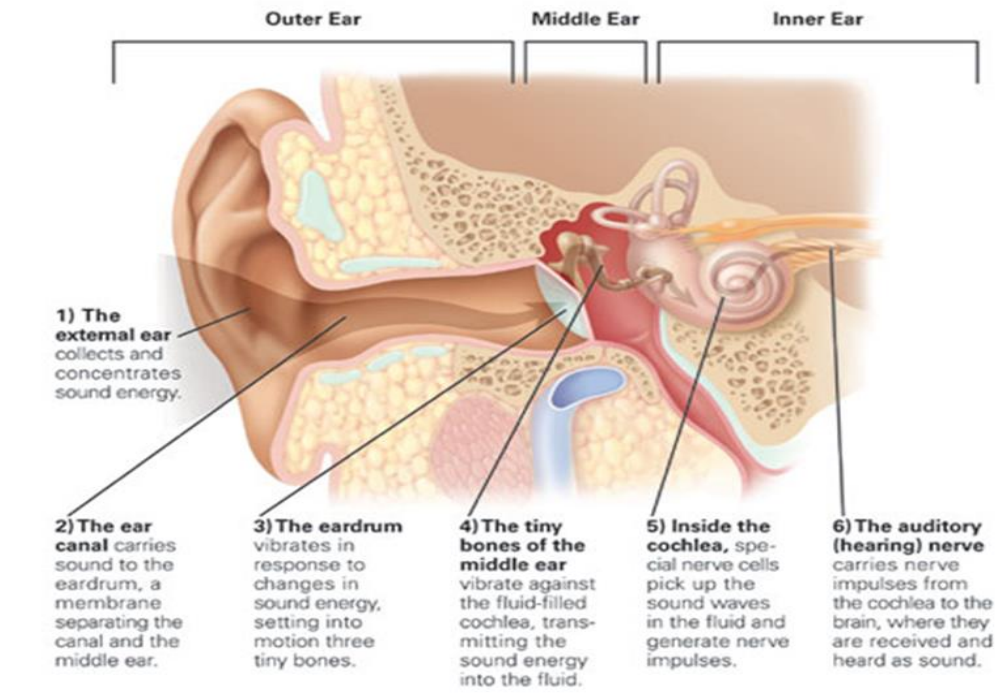


Sound waves can be described in terms of physical properties such as cycle, period, frequency, and amplitude. A cycle is a sequence of one increase and one decrease in air pressure. A period is the amount of time (expressed in seconds or milliseconds) that one cycle takes. Frequency is the number of cycles in one second, expressed in hertz (Hz). An increase in frequency usually results in an increase in perceived pitch. Amplitude refers to the magnitude of vibrations, with larger vibrations resulting in greater peaks of pressure (greater amplitude), which usually result in an increase in perceived loudness. Unlike pure tones, which rarely occur in the environment, speech sounds are complex waves with combinations of different frequencies and amplitudes.

### **Topic- 075: Auditory Phonetics**

In auditory phonetics, we are dealing with two distinct operations that are closely interrelated and influence each other: on the one hand, we can talk about audition proper, that is, the perception of sounds by our auditory apparatus and the transforming of the information into a neural sign and sending it to the brain. On the other hand, we can talk about the analysis of this information by the brain, which eventually leads to the decoding of the message, that is, understanding of the verbal message.

As a beginner, however, it will be sufficient for you to get a basic idea of how our auditory system and the general hearing process work. Have a close look at the picture below, and read through the brief description that follows.



Keeping it very simple, we can state, that any sound coming from any source, be it a door slamming or someone speaking to you, is spreading from that source as a sound wave, causing the molecules on its way to crowd together and move apart again or in other words, to vibrate. When these vibrating air molecules reach your ear, they cause the eardrum in your middle ear to vibrate too and this vibration is then carried on from the eardrum to the three little bones: mallet, incus, and stirrup.

From the stirrup, the vibration is carried on to the inner ear, and into the cochlea, a little coil-like organ filled with liquid. Inside the cochlea, there are two membranes: the vestibular membrane and the basilar membrane. The latter membrane plays a central role in the act of audition because this is where the auditory receptor cells are located.

Depending on the frequency of the sound coming in, a different part with different receptor cells of the basilar membrane is stimulated. Thus, low-frequency (grave) sounds will make the membrane vibrate at the less stiff (upper) end, while high-frequency (acute) sounds will cause the lower and stiffer end of the membrane to vibrate. The cells on the basilar membrane convert these vibrations into neural signals that are transmitted via the auditory nerves to the central receptor and controller of the entire process, the brain, where we identify the incoming sound as actual sound with a specific pitch.

### **Topic- 076: Instrumental Phonetics**

Instrumental phonetics is a quantitative approach. It attempts to characterize speech in terms of measurements and numbers rather than by relying on listeners' impression. It uses different instruments for the study of speech sounds. It is supposed best for acoustic analysis as it uses sound spectrograph that produces a picture of the sounds. Nowadays, this analysis is done by computer instead of an instrument. It is best used for pitch display.

For articulatory activity many instruments are used such as Radiography (x-rays), Laryngoscopy (inside larynx), Palatography (patterns of contact between tongue and palate), and Glottography (studying the vibration of vocal folds and many others).

Measurement of airflow from vocal tract and air pressure within it also gives us a valuable indirect picture of other aspects of articulation. Not all instrumental studies are experimental.

When a theory or hypothesis is being tested under controlled conditions, the research is experimental. But if one simply makes a measurement using instruments, this is not the case. Instrumental phonetics is a quantitative approach; it attempts to characterize speech in terms of measurements and numbers rather than by relying on listeners' impressions. Many different instruments have been devised for the study of speech sounds.

**Lesson-14****PHONOLOGY AND ITS BRANCHES****Topic- 077: Definition****Introduction**

Phonology is the study of the sound system of languages. It is the mental representation of sounds as part of a symbolic cognitive system; it studies how abstract sound categories are manipulated in the processing of language. Phonology is concerned with the range and function of sounds in a specific language and with rules, which can be written to show the types of phonetic relationship that relates and contrasts words and other linguistic units.

Phonology deals with the speakers' knowledge of the sound system of a language. It is therefore exclusively concerned with language or competence. Phonology can be divided into two branches:

- Segmental phonology
- Supra-segmental phonology

Segmental phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds provided by phonetics. Unlike phonetics, however, segmental phonology is not interested in the production, the physical properties, or the perception of these sounds, but in the function and possible combinations of sounds within the sound system.

Supra-segmental phonology, also called prosody, is concerned with those features of pronunciation that cannot be segmented because they extend over more than one segment, or sound. Such features include stress, rhythm, and intonation (also called pitch contour or pitch movement).

**Topic- 078: Difference between Phonetics and Phonology**

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized in individual languages. On the other hand, phonetics is the study of the actual process of sound making. Both are important areas of the study of linguistics. Phonetics and phonology are two subfields of linguistics dealing with speech sounds. Both of them seem to be overlapping in recent years, and therefore create some confusion regarding their meanings.

Phonetics has been derived from the Greek word *phone* meaning sound/voice. It is one of the important branches of linguistics, which deals with the study of speech sounds. It covers the domain of speech production and its transmission. It also covers the reception aspect of speech. The sounds made by us when we talk are studied through different branches of phonetics like acoustic phonetics, auditory phonetics, and articulatory phonetics. On the other hand, phonology focuses on the organization of sounds by studying speech patterns. The key words for describing phonology are distribution and patterning related to speech. It is aimed to determine the sound patterns of all the languages. Phonologists may look into questions like – why there is a difference in the plurals of cat and dog; the former ends with the /s/

sound, whereas the latter ends with the /z/ sound. Some differences between the two have been mentioned below:

<b>Phonetics</b>	<b>Phonology</b>
<b>Definition</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Phonetics can be considered a branch of linguistics as it deals with the study of the sounds of human speech. It also considers the function production and auditory qualities of human speeches.</li> </ul>	<b>Definition</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Phonology is another branch of linguistics, which focuses on the organization of sounds by studying speech patterns. The key words for describing phonology are distribution and patterning related to speech.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Described as physics of sound</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Psychology of sound</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Focuses on theories of speech production and perception</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Rules or constraints to find out about the combinations of sounds of a language.</li> </ul>
<b>Branches</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Acoustic phonetics is related to the study of physical attributes of sound produced by the vocal tract.</li> <li>Auditory phonetics deals with understanding that how the ear perceives sound and how the brain recognizes different speech units.</li> <li>Articulatory phonetics deals with studying the making of single sounds by the vocal tract.</li> </ul>	<b>Branches</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Segmental Phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds derived from phonetics.</li> <li>Supra-segmental phonology deals with attributes (like rhythm, stress, etc.) of pronunciation which cannot be segmented.</li> </ul>

We can summarize that phonetics looks into the speech sounds of a language in a generalized and idealized manner. On the other hand, phonology looks into the functional aspect of speech sounds in that language. Phonetics and Phonology are closely related to each other, and therefore it is often recommended not to divide them on the basis of strict rules or points.

### **Topic- 079: Phoneme: the Basic Unit of Phonology**

Phoneme is the basic unit of phonology, the smallest unit of sound that may cause a change of meaning within a language. It has no meaning by itself. For example, in the words ‘bake’ and ‘bade,’ only one phoneme brings change in the meaning of the two. Phonemes correspond to the sounds of the alphabet. However, there is not always a one-to-one relationship between a letter and a phoneme. The words dog and shape have different spellings but the same three sounds.

Following is a list of phones, both vowels and consonants.

### Segments of English Sounds

#### Consonant Sounds

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

#### Short Vowel Sounds

ɪ	e	æ	ʌ	ɒ	ʊ	ə
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

#### Long Vowel Sounds

i:	ɑ:	ɔ:	u:	ɜ:
----	----	----	----	----

#### Diphthong Sounds

eɪ	aɪ	ɔɪ	aʊ	əʊ	ɪə	eə	ʊə
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There are 44 phonemes in BBC English accent. However, in different dialects the number of phonemes is different. Through the process of segmentation, a phoneme can have a particular pronunciation in one word and a slightly different pronunciation in another e.g., in the word laughed/la:fd/, the letter d has /t/ sound but in played it is /d/ sound.

### Topic- 080: Segmental Phonology

Segmental phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds provided by phonetics. Segmental phonology is not interested in the production, the physical properties, or the perception of these sounds, but in the function and possible combinations of sounds within the sound system. A segment is 'any discrete unit that can be identified, either physically or auditorily, in the stream of speech'. The term is most used in phonetics and phonology to refer to phones and phonemes.



Segments are called ‘discrete’ because they are separate and individual, such as consonants and vowels, and occur in a distinct temporal order.

A phone is any distinct speech sound or gesture, regardless of whether the exact sound is critical to the meanings of words. In contrast, a phoneme is a speech sound that, in a given language, if it were swapped with another phoneme, would change the meaning of the word, for example, Bet /bet/ and Bed /bed/. Phones are absolute, not specific to any language, but phonemes can be discussed only in reference to specific language. So, segmental phonology is based on the segmentation of language into individual speech sounds.

### **Topic- 081: Supra-segmental Phonology**

Vowels and consonants can be thought of as the segments of which speech is composed. Together they form the syllables that make up utterances. Other features known as supra-segmentals are superimposed on the syllables.

These include variations in

- Stress
- Pitch
- Tone
- Juncture

Stress or accent is the relative emphasis or prominence given to a certain syllable in a word, or to a certain word in a phrase or sentence. Produced by increased activity of the respiratory muscles, variations in stress are used in English to distinguish between a noun and a verb:

- Insult (N)
- Insult (V)
- Increase (N)
- Increase (V)

The pitch of voice is determined by the frequency with which the vocal cords vibrate. Tone is the use of pitch in language to distinguish lexical or grammatical meaning, that is, to distinguish or to inflect words. Juncture, in linguistics, is the manner of moving (transition) or mode of relationship between two consecutive sounds.

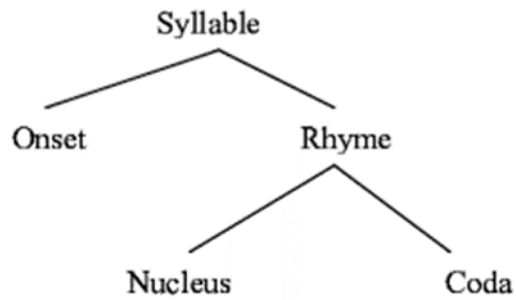
- ‘a name’ /ə.neɪm/ and ‘an aim’ /ən.eɪm/
- ‘that stuff’ /ðæt.stʌf/ and ‘that's tough’ /ðæts.tʌf/

## Lesson-15

## SYLLABLE

**Topic- 082: Syllable and Division of Words into Syllables**

A unit of pronunciation having one vowel sound, with or without surrounding consonants, forming the whole or a part of a word; for example, there are two syllables in ‘contact’ and three in ‘potato’. The structure of English syllable consists of onset (consonant), and rhyme that consists of a nucleus (vowel) and a coda (consonant).

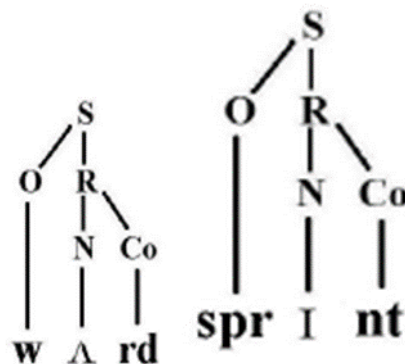


A syllable can be defined both phonetically and phonologically. Phonetically it consists of a centre with no obstruction of air before and after there is greater obstruction to airflow, for example, cat /kæt/. Phonologically, it looks at the possible phoneme combination called phonotactics.

How a word begins:

- Air
- Nice
- Smoke
- Spray

Syllables are often considered the phonological ‘building blocks’ of words. They can influence the rhythm of a language, its prosody, its poetic metre, and its stress patterns.



A word that consists of a single syllable (like English dog) is called a monosyllable (and is said to be monosyllabic). Similar terms include disyllable and disyllabic (also bisyllable and bisyllabic) for a word of two syllables; trisyllable (and trisyllabic) for a word of three syllables; and polysyllable (and polysyllabic), which may refer either to a word of more than three syllables or to any word of more than one syllable. Dividing a syllable can be difficult as we can observe from the following division of the word 'extra':

Division of syllable

- i. e.kstrə
- ii. ek.strə
- iii. eks.trə
- iv. ekst.rə
- v. ekstr.ə

A word may have no consonant or up to three consonants in the beginning and up to four in the end.

### **Topic- 083: The Structure of the Syllable**

An ideal syllable consists of CVC (Consonant Vowel Consonant), for example, cat/kæt/. However, there can be variety in the structure of the syllable.

1. A minimum syllable has no onset or coda, for example:

- Are/a:/
- Or/ɔ:/
- Err/ɜ:/

/m/ and /ʃ/ are also considered syllables by some phoneticians.

2. Some syllables only have onset. For example,

- Car /ka:/
- Key /ki:/
- More /mɔ:/

3. Some syllable may have no onset but have a coda.

- Am / { æm/
- Ought /ɔ:t/
- Ease /i:z/

4. Some syllables have both onset and coda.

- Hut /hʌt/
- Sat /sæt/
- Fill /fɪl/

**Zero Onset:** If the first syllable of a word begins with a vowel, it can be any vowel except /ʊ/ which is rare. Initial consonant of a word may be any except /ŋ/.

**Topic- 084: Syllabic Consonants**

Some syllables especially unstressed after the stressed syllable happen to be weak syllables. They normally consist of /l, r, n/ in words like cattle /kæt.əl/ or /kæt.l/. In such cases if the preceding sound is alveolar e.g. wrestle /res.l/ or /res. əl/ or plosive such as couple /kʌp.l/, the schwa sound is elided and the power of vowel is transferred to the following consonants making it a syllabic consonant.

The following words can take -ing keeping their syllabic quality intact.

- Bottling /'bɒt.lɪŋ/
- Struggling /strʌg.lɪŋ/
- Coddle+ing /'kɒd.lɪŋ/
- Cod+ling /'kɒd.lɪŋ/

Words ending with one or more consonant letters followed by 'al' and 'el':

- Panel /'pænl/
- Petal /pet(ə)l/
- Parcel /'pɑ:s(ə)l/
- Babel /'beɪbl/

In syllabic /n/ the word 'Listen' /lɪsən/ becomes /lɪsn/ and /'gəʊldən/ becomes /'gəʊldn/.

**Topic- 085: Types of the Syllable**

Every word is made from syllables. An open syllable has only one vowel. The vowel has a long sound and is the last letter of the syllable. Open syllables have only one consonant between the open syllable and the next vowel such as *ba. by*.

A closed syllable has only one vowel. The vowel has a short sound (like the 'i' in mill). If the word is only 2 letters, it must end with a consonant, for example: in, on, of, at, and it. If the word is 3+ letters, a closed syllable has 1 consonant before and 1+ consonants after the vowel. For examples: cat, catch, net, nest, web, man, roll, and bark. If a word has 2 closed syllables next to each other, there will be two consonants between the vowels, for example: win-ter, sum-mer, com-mon, and tem-per.

An r-controlled syllable is a vowel, diphthong, or triphthong with an 'r' or a 're' after it. For example: deer, whis-per, worth, care, and fire. er, ur, and ir vowels sound like the er in per, fur, her, birth, shirt, and hurt.

Some ar vowels that sound like the ar in 'far', for example, par, far, car, and star. Other ar vowels sound like the ar in 'share', pair, hare, hair, and stare or vowels sound like the 'or' in for or, floor, and door.

A vowel team syllable is a group of 2-4 letters, usually vowels, which make a 1 vowel sound. If a vowel team is made of 2 vowels, usually only the first vowel is pronounced, for example: rain, fail, suit, and clean.

The silent-e syllable is also called VCe, which stands for Vowel-Consonant-e. It consists of a vowel, followed by a consonant, followed by an 'e' that is silent. The vowel has a long sound (like the 'i' in line), for example, take, cake, theme, line, tone, tune, and ex-ile.

The C-le syllable is also called the Consonant-le. It consists of a consonant followed by an 'le'. It is usually the last syllable in a root word, for example, tack-le, freck-le, tick-le, and buck-le.

### **Topic- 086: Consonant Clusters**

Any consonants can occur before or after the vowel sound in a syllable. A syllable may begin with any consonant except /ŋ/ which are rare in English syllables.

#### **1) Two-consonant cluster in initial position**

S+t=stay, S+w=sway, S+m=smoke. In these examples /S/ is pre-initial consonant and /t,w,m/ will be initial consonants.

2) One of the set of fifteen consonants followed by /l,r,w,j/ in play, tray, quick, and few. In these words, the first sound is initial, and the second will be post initial.

#### **3) Three consonant cluster in initial position:**

S + p,t,k + l,r,w

- Split
- Stream
- Square

In these words /S/ is pre initial. /p,t,k/ are initial and /l,r,w/ are post initial.

Any consonant can be final other than /h,r,w,j/ consonants.

Two types of final consonants:

#### **1) Pre-final +final**

- /m, n, ŋ, l, s/
- bump /bʌmp/, bent /bent/, bank /bæŋk/, belt /belt/, ask /æsk/
- 

#### **2) Final+post-final**

- /s, z, t, d, θ/
- Bets, beds, backed,
- Bagged, eighth

## Two Types of Final Three-Consonant Cluster

## Consonant clusters

Two types of final three-consonant cluster

		Pre-final	Final	Post-final
helped	he	l	p	t
banks	bæ	ŋ	k	s
bonds	bɒ	n	d	z
twelfth	twe	l	f	θ

## Consonant clusters

Second types

		Pre-final	final	Post Final 1	Post final 2
fifths	fɪ	-	f	θ	s
next	ne	-	k	s	t
lapsed	læ	-	p	s	t

## Consonant clusters

### Second types

		Pre-final	Final	Post-final 1	Post-final 2
twelfths	twɛ	l	f	θ	s
prompts	prɒ	m	p	t	s

### A Different Analysis with No Pre-Final Consonant

## Consonant clusters

### A different analysis with no pre-final

		Pre-Final	final	Post-final1	Post-final 2	Post-final 3
Sixths	sɪ	-	k	s	θ	s
texts	te	-	k	s	t	s

### Topic- 087: Abutting Consonants

English has three consonants in the beginning of a syllable and up to four consonants at the end. Sequences of consonants occurring in the beginning or end of a syllable are called consonant cluster. In the word send /send/, /-nd/ belongs to the same syllable whereas in number /'nʌmbər/, /-mb-/ belongs to two different syllables. Consonants like /-m/ and /b-/ occurring together in a word but belonging to two different syllables are called abutting consonants.



**Lesson-16****STRESS****Topic- 088: Definition**

In phonology, stress or accent is relative emphasis or prominence given to a certain syllable in a word, or to a certain word in a phrase or sentence. If you look at the following words, you will find that the first word is a single syllable word and the stress or accent is given in the beginning of the syllable. The second word is a disyllable word and the stress is given on the first syllable while the third word is a tri-syllable word and the stress is given to the second syllable:

phrase /'freɪz/

profile /'prəʊ.faɪl/

potato /pə'teɪ.təʊ/

This emphasis is typically caused by such properties as increased loudness and vowel length, full articulation of the vowel, and changes in pitch. The terms stress and accent are often used synonymously in this context, but they are sometimes distinguished. For example, when emphasis is produced through pitch alone, it is called pitch accent, and when produced through length alone, it is called quantitative accent. When caused by a combination of various intensified properties, it is called stress accent or dynamic accent; English uses variable stress accent.

What are the characteristics of stress? We can look at this question from two points: production point of view and perception point of view. From production point of view, the articulatory muscles are more active, and the speakers use more energy, and there is higher sub-glottal pressure.

From the perception point of view, the stressed syllable has the feature of prominence which has certain qualities such as loudness, vowel length, quality, and pitch, which are also used for other linguistic functions; it is difficult to define stress solely phonetically.

Four characteristics of prominence

- Louder
- Length
- Pitch
- Quality

The stress placed on syllables within words is called word stress or lexical stress. Some languages have fixed stress, meaning that the stress on virtually any multisyllabic word falls on a particular syllable, such as the first or penultimate. Other languages, like English, have variable stress, where the position of stress in a word is not predictable in that way. Sometimes more than one level of stress, such as primary stress and secondary stress, may be identified. However, some languages, such as French and Mandarin, are sometimes analyzed as lacking lexical stress entirely. Stress is placed on lexical words like verb, adjective, and noun, whereas preposition, articles, and pronouns are not stressed.

### **Topic- 089: Types of Stress (Word-stress)**

The stress placed on words within sentences is called sentence stress or prosodic stress. This is one of the three components of prosody, along with rhythm and intonation. Spoken English is rhythmic, like music and poetry, and that rhythm is based on pauses and stress. The stress tells the listener which words are important. Most unstressed words are ignored or discarded. If English is spoken without rhythm, the native speaker is forced to listen to every word, which is boring, difficult, and tiring. Thus, rhythm is essential for good spoken English. For rhythm, they use stress.

There are two types of syllables: Stressed vs. unstressed syllables

- **Primary stress:** The syllable that is louder than the unstressed syllable has primary stress. It is marked in IPA by putting a raised vertical line ['] at the beginning of the syllable. In the word 'about' /ə'baʊt/ second syllable is stressed. The second syllable is prominent and said with great force, so, this is primary stress.
- **Secondary stress:** The syllables having secondary stress are not completely unstressed, but are not as loud as the primary stress. Secondary stress is marked with a lowered vertical line [,] at the beginning of the syllable.
- In 'photographic' /fəʊ.tə'græf.ɪk/ we find primary stress is on third syllable whereas secondary stress is on first syllable.

Besides, stress occurs on **three types of situations** or syntactic categories in English:

1. **Syllable stress:** In syllable stress, one syllable in a word is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent syllables.
2. **Word stress:** In word stress, one word is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent words in a sentence.
3. **Phrase, clause or sentence stress:** In phrase, clause or sentence stress, one phrase, clause or sentence is pronounced louder and more clearly than adjacent phrases, clauses or sentences in a paragraph. This type of stress occurs when the speaker seeks to draw attention to the most important sentence in a long paragraph.

### **Topic- 090: Sentence Stress**

Sentence stress is the music of spoken English. Like word stress, sentence stress can help understand spoken English, even rapid spoken English. Sentence stress gives English its rhythm or 'beat'. Word stress is accent on one syllable within a word whereas sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence.

Most sentences have two basic types of words:

#### **Content Words**

Content words are the key words of a sentence. They are the important words that carry the meaning or sense—the real content.

## Structure Words

Structure words are not very important words. They are small, simple words that make the sentence grammatically correct. They give the sentence its correct form i.e., its structure. Content words cannot be removed while structural words can be removed.

## Sentence Stress

Sentence stress					
O o o		o O o		o o O	
word	sentence	word	sentence	word	sentence
<u>Photograph</u> <u>Canada</u> <u>cabbages</u>	<u>Answer</u> me! <u>Doesn't</u> he? <u>Copy</u> it!	<u>September</u> <u>tomorrow</u> <u>remember</u>	<u>Excuse</u> me, I <u>think</u> so. He <u>told</u> her.	<u>Afternoon</u> <u>Japanese</u> <u>Portuguese</u>	Do you <u>smoke</u> ? One of <u>these</u> ? He's <u>arrived</u> .

### Sentence stress

Short sentences and phrases in English have some typical stress patterns.

O o O	What's the <b>time</b> ? Yes, of course! Thanks a lot!
O o O o	See you later!      Pleased to meet you! Can't you hear me?
o O o O	A piece of cake. The <b>shop</b> was closed. It's <b>time</b> to go.
O o o O	What do you do? Where do you live? Give me a call.
o o O o	Are you <b>COMing</b> ? Do you <b>like</b> it? Is he <b>happy</b> ?

## Sentence stress

The space between stress and unstressed syllable stays more or less the same length whether one or more unstressed syllables are pushed into it. So for example, these three sentences take about the same length of time to say.

ooo

Don't tell Mike.

ooOooOo

Go and speak to Mary.

oooOoooOoo

Hurry and give it to Jonathan.

## Sentence stress

### Sentences with all the words stressed:

We put stress on one syllable of all the most important words. In some situations, emergencies for example, all of the words are important. In this case, there is stress on one syllable of all of the words (in some cases, the sentence may have only one word).

O Help! Quick! Smile'.

Oo Quiet! Sorry!

OO Look out! Take care! Wake up! Don't move!

Come back! Stand still! Sit down!

OoO Don't forget! Hurry up! Go away! Stay awake!

Don't be late!

OOo Keep quiet! Don't worry!

OOO Don't look now! Go straight on! Don't turn round!

oOoo Emergency

In English sentence stress, the following kinds of words are usually stressed. The examples given are from the sentences.

- verbs (help)
- two-part verbs (look out)
- adjectives (quick)
- nouns (emergency)
- negative auxiliary verbs (don't)
- positive auxiliary verbs such as be in 'Don't be late!' are not usually stressed.

These are the kinds of words which are not normally stressed, with example words from the sentences.

- pronouns (your)
- the verb (was)
- auxiliary verbs (can)
- articles (the)
- conjunctions (and, or)
- prepositions (to)
- negative auxiliary verbs (can't, don't, hasn't, etc.) are usually stressed

### **Topic- 091: Syllable-timed Languages and Stress-timed Languages**

Many people think, when they are studying a language, and they are new to it, that they need to pronounce each word fully and clearly in order to be well-understood. However, in English that is actually not the case. English is a stress-timed language. That means some syllables will be longer, and some will be shorter. Many languages, however, are syllable-timed, which means each syllable has the same length. Examples of syllable-timed languages include French, Spanish, and Cantonese. Therefore, when a British/American hears a sentence of English, with each syllable having the same length, it takes just a little bit longer to get the meaning. This is because stressed syllables will pop out of the line because they are longer, and they have more shape. The English ears and brains go straight to those words. Those are the content words. When all syllables are the same length, then there is no way for the ear to know which words are the most important.

In a syllable-timed language, every syllable is perceived as taking up roughly the same amount of time, though the absolute length of time depends on the prosody. Syllable-timed languages tend to give syllables approximately equal prominence, and generally lack reduced vowels.

French, Italian, Spanish, Icelandic, Cantonese, Mandarin Chinese, Georgian, Romanian, Armenian, Welsh, and Turkish are commonly quoted as examples of syllable-timed languages. This type of rhythm was originally metaphorically referred to as 'machine-gun rhythm' because each underlying rhythmical unit is of the same duration, similar to the transient bullet noise of a machine-gun.

Since the 1950s, speech scientists have tried to show the existence of equal syllable durations in the acoustic speech signal without success. More recent research claims that the duration of consonantal and vocalic intervals is responsible for syllable-timed perception.\

In a stress-timed language, syllables may last different amounts of time, but there is perceived to be a fairly constant amount of time (on average) between consecutive stressed syllables. Consequently, unstressed syllables between stressed syllables tend to be compressed to fit into the time interval. If two stressed syllables are separated by a single unstressed syllable, as in 'COME for TEA', the unstressed syllable will be relatively long, while if a larger number of unstressed syllables intervene, as in 'COME and have some TEA', the unstressed syllables will be shorter.

Stress timing is sometimes called Morse-code rhythm, but any resemblance between the two is only superficial. It is strongly related to vowel reduction processes. English, Thai, German, Russian, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Faroese, Dutch, Portuguese, and Persian are typical stress-timed languages. Some stress-timed languages, for example Arabic, retain unreduced vowels.

### **Topic- 092: General Rules of Stress**

While giving stress it is important to see whether the word is morphologically simple or complex (one or more affixes) or a compound. Besides, what grammatical category it belongs to, how many syllables the word has and what the phonological structure of the syllables is. All these things matter while giving stress to a syllable in a word. Syllables can be divided into strong and weak.

Strong syllable has a rhyme composed of: long vowel/diphthong or a vowel + coda

(1 or more consonants) - /'dai/ /'hɑ:t/ /'bæt/

Weak syllable has a syllable peak which is a short vowel and Ø coda unless the peak is /ə/ or /ɪ/, e.g.,

/rɪ'dju:s/ /'əv pən/

We also find unstressed strong syllables e.g., in dialect both syllables are strong but the first one is stressed. Only strong syllables can be stressed. Weak syllables are always unstressed.

Stress is on either the 1st or the 2nd syllable.

In verbs, if the 2nd syllable is strong, it is stressed.

- Apply /ə'plai/
- Arrive /ə'raɪv/

If the 2nd syllable is weak, the 1st syllable is stressed.

- Enter /'en.tə/
- Envy /'en.vi/

The 1st syllable is also stressed in case the 2nd syllable contains /əv/.

- Follow /'fɒl.əv/
- Borrow /'bɒr.əv/

Simple adjectives are stressed according to the same rule that if one syllable is weak, the other syllable is stressed.

- even /'i:v(ə)n/
- correct /kə'rekt/

### **Exceptions**

Adjectives that end in strong syllables but are stressed on the 1st:

- honest /'ɒn.ɪst/
- perfect /'pɜ:.fekt/

### **Different Rule for Nouns**

Stress is on the 2nd syllable unless it contains a short vowel:

- Balloon /bə'lu:n/

- Money /'mʌni/

Other two-syllable words seem to behave like verbs and adjectives.

## Verbs

Strong final syllable is stressed:

entertain /en.tə'teɪn/

If the final syllable is weak, the preceding (penultimate) syllable (if strong) will be stressed:

- encounter /ɪn'kaʊn.tə/
- determine /dɪ'tɜː.mɪn/

If they are both weak, the stress is on the first one e.g., parody /'pær.ə.di/.

## Nouns

If the final syllable is weak, or contains /əʊ/, stress falls on the preceding: potato /pə'teɪ.təʊ/

If the final and penultimate syllables are weak, stress is on the initial syllable e.g., quantity /'kwɒn.tə.ti/ because stress tends to move to strong syllables.



## Lesson-17

**MORPHOLOGY I****Topic- 093: Morphology**

Morphology is the study of words. How are they formed? What is their relationship to other words in the same language? It analyses the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Morphology is essentially the grammar of words and deals with the forms of words e.g., the relation between take and took, dog and dogs. Words can be related to other words by rules, for example, English speakers recognize that the words dog, dogs, and dogcatcher are closely related.

**Lexemes and Word Forms**

The distinction between these two senses of 'word' is arguably the most important one in morphology. The first sense of 'word,' the one in which dog and dogs are 'the same word,' is called lexeme. The second sense is called word form. We thus say that dog and dogs are different forms of the same lexeme. Dog and dog catcher, on the other hand, are different lexemes; for example, they refer to two different kinds of entities. The form of a word that is chosen conventionally to represent the canonical form of a word is called a lemma, or citation form. Informally, word formation rules form 'new words' (that is, new lexemes).

While inflection rules yield variant forms of the 'same' word (lexeme). Joining two words to make a new word is process of compounding or compound form such as dogcatcher. Derivation involves affixing bound (non-independent) forms to existing lexemes, whereby the addition of the affix derives a new lexeme. The word independent is derived from the word dependent by prefixing it with the derivational prefix in-, while dependent itself is derived from the verb depend.

In many languages, what appear to be single forms actually turn out to contain a large number of 'word-like' elements. For example, in Swahili (spoken throughout East Africa), the form *nitakupenda* conveys what, in English, would have to be represented as something like *I will love you*. Now, is the Swahili from a single word? If it is a 'word,' then it seems to consist of a number of elements which, in English, turn up as separate 'words.' A rough correspondence can be presented in the following way:

- ni- ta- ku- penda
- 'I will you love'

Perhaps a better way of looking at linguistic forms in different languages would be to use this notion of 'elements' in the message, rather than depend on identifying only 'words.' The type of exercise we have just performed is an example of investigating basic forms in language, generally known as morphology. This term, which literally means 'the study of forms,' was originally used in Biology, but since the middle of the nineteenth century, has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyses all those basic 'elements' used in a language. What we have been describing as 'elements' in the form of a linguistic message, are technically known as 'morphemes.'

**Topic- 094: Morpheme**

A morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in a language. In other words, it is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. A morpheme is not identical to a word, and the principal difference between the two is that a morpheme may or may not stand alone, whereas a word, by definition, is freestanding. When a morpheme stands by itself, it is considered a root because it has a meaning of its own (e.g., the morpheme dog) and when it depends on another morpheme to express an idea, it is an affix because it has a grammatical function (e.g., the –s in dogs to indicate that it is plural). Every word comprises one or more morphemes.

Talks, talker, talked, talking

The root is talk where -s, -er, -ed and -ing are affixes.

Word forms' may consist of a number of elements. All these elements are described as morphemes.

Therefore, a morpheme is 'a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. Units of grammatical function include forms used to indicate past tense or plural, etc. In the sentence 'the police reopened the investigation' contains three morphemes that is, re-, open and -ed.

A morpheme meets three criteria: it is a word or part of word that has a meaning. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of meaningless remainder. It recurs in differing verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning.

- Unlikely un +like + ly
- Unkindly un +kind + ly

The following words are single morphemes as if divided would lose the meaning they have as in the present words.

- Carpet
- Garbage

**Topic- 095: Free Morphemes**

The morpheme that can stand alone as a single word by itself is called free morpheme. The free morphemes can generally be identified as the set of separate English word forms such as basic nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. When they are used with bound morphemes, the basic word forms are technically known as stems.

Free Morphemes:

Reopened: open

Tourists: tour

The following are bound morphemes:

- re-
- -ed
- -ist
- -s

Unexplainable  
 Explain (stem)  
 un- (bound)  
 -able (bound)

The description is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English.  
 receive, reduce and repeat,  
 -ceive, -duce and -peat  
 These are 'bound stems' as they cannot stand alone as words.

A free morpheme can occur in isolation and cannot be divided into smaller meaning units. 'House' or 'dog' are 'free stems' such as dress and care. The stem that cannot be further split up is also called root.

### **Topic- 096: Bound Morphemes**

Segments or forms that cannot normally stand alone and are typically attached to another form are called Bound Morphemes. Bound morphemes are also called affixes (prefixes and suffixes) in English.

Reopened: re- -ed  
 Environmentalist: -ist  
 Schools: -s

Words	Prefix	Base/stem	Words	Base/stem	Affix
unhappy	un-	happy	friendship	friend	-ship
immobile	im-	mobile	Boyhood	boy	-hood
enable	en-	Able	Boys	boy	-s
Illegal	il-	legal	Nicely	nice	-ly

Affixes can be both inflectional and derivational morphemes.

### **Topic- 097: Lexical Morphemes**

Free morphemes fall into two categories.

- Lexical morphemes
- Functional morphemes

Lexical morphemes are absolutely necessary to convey an idea to someone else. They can be understood fully in and of itself—boy, for example, as well as run, green, quick, paper, large, throw, and now.

Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are typical kinds of lexical morphemes. Lexical morphemes are longer and, with the exception of 'ox' and American English's 'ax', are spelt with a minimum of three graphemes. Lexical morphemes carry stress as a word as well as in a sentence. Functional morphemes will only be stressed if prominence on them is contextually warranted e.g.,  
 It is HER book.

**Topic- 098: Functional Morphemes**

Free morphemes fall into two categories:

- Lexical morpheme
- Functional morpheme

Some examples of functional morphemes are and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, the, that, it, and them. Functional morphemes function to specify the relationship between one lexical morpheme and another. The functional morphemes in the language fall in the word classes as

- Conjunctions
- Prepositions
- Articles
- Pronouns
- Auxiliary verbs
- Modals
- Quantifiers

A functional morpheme simply modifies the meaning of the word, rather than supplying the root meaning of the word. It encodes grammatical meaning e.g., the girls entered the classroom. In this sentence, 'the' is functional morpheme, which is specifying girl and classroom.

Functional morphemes belong to the 'closed' class of words. Normally, new functional morphemes cannot be coined.

## Lesson-18

**MORPHOLOGY II****Topic- 099: Derivational Morphemes**

The set of affixes that make up the category of bound morphemes can also be divided into two types.

- Derivational Morpheme
- Inflectional Morpheme

Derivational morphemes change the grammatical categories of words.

Word	Part of speech	Affix	New word	Changed class
bake	verb	-er	Baker	noun
quick	adjective	-ly	Quickly	adverb
Happy	Adjective	-ness	happiness	noun

Derivational morphemes can be added to free morphemes or to other derivational morphemes. For example, the concept can be explained in the word ‘Transform’ (v) as follows:

Form (root word)

Prefix trans-, a derivational morpheme

Suffix -ation making it ‘transformation’ (n)

-al to transformation will change it to ‘transformational’ (adj.)

**Semantic Content**

Content words add meaning but they are not words. In English, all prefixes are derivational. This contrasts with English suffixes, which may be either derivational or inflectional. The set of derivational affixes is open-ended; that is, there are a potentially infinite number of them.

**Topic- 100: Inflectional Morphemes**

An inflectional morpheme is a suffix that is added to a word to assign a particular grammatical property to that word. For example,

Play +ing = playing

They serve as grammatical markers that indicate tense, number, possession, or comparison. Inflectional morphemes do not change the essential meaning or the grammatical category of a word.

Noun plural ( -s)	-s -es	Book+s/ glass+es	Books /glasses
Possessive noun	-‘s	Captain+‘s	Captain‘s
Verb present tense	-s	start+s	Starts
Verb past tense	-ed	play+ed	Played
Verb present participle	-ing	Playing	Playing

Verb past participle	-en	Eat+en	Eaten
Adjective comparative	-er	larg+er	Larger
Adjective superlative	-est	large+st	Largest

Only lexical words take inflectional affixes. The inflectional affixes are few; there number is only eight in English. Closed classes of words take no inflectional affixes in English. Inflectional affixes always follow derivational affixes. An inflectional morpheme does not have the capacity to change the meaning or the syntactic class of the words it is bound to and will have a predictable meaning for all such words.

### **Topic- 101: Derivational vs. Inflectional Morphemes**

Inflectional morphemes never change the grammatical category e.g.,

- Tall (adj.)
- Taller (adj.)

Inflectional suffixes follow derivational suffixes.

- Workers
- Work -er (derivational suffix) -s (inflectional suffix)

Derivational morphemes often change the part of speech.

- read (verb) becomes reader (noun)

Some derivational morphemes do not change the grammatical category of a word.

prefixes as un- re-

- happy and unhappy
- fill and refill are verbs

-hood and -dom in neighbourhood and kingdom

- Derivational morphemes show the 'inner' layer of words.
- Inflectional suffixes mark the 'outer' layer of words.

Derivational morphemes are of a large number while inflectional are a few in number.

### **Topic- 102: Morphological Description**

The difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes is as follows.

Old and older are adjectives. -er inflection (from Old English -ra) simply creates a different version of the adjective.

The verb *teach* becomes the noun *teacher* if we add the derivational morpheme -er (from Old English -ere). The suffix -er in Modern English is as an inflectional morpheme as part of an adjective, as a distinct derivational morpheme as part of a noun.

Here is the morphological description of the sentence 'The child's simplicity impressed the teacher'.

<b>Morpheme</b>	Free	Lexical	Child impress teach simple
	Bound	Functional	The
		Derivational	-er, city
		Inflectional	-‘s , -ed

### Order of Morpheme

Derivational morpheme come first teacher+s and inflectional morpheme comes after teacher+s.

### Topic- 103: Problems in Morphological Description

Apparent description of morphological analysis is simple as it can be seen in the following example:

Cat + -s = cats

But what is the plural of these words: Sheep + ? Man + ?

If institution + -al = institutional and -al is an adjective suffix, but in legal -al is not used to make leg adjective as leg alone has no meaning of the word legal in it.

### Other Problematic Cases

The relationship between law and legal is also of the same problem. At best we can say that law (Old English (lagu) from a Scandinavian source) and legal (Latin form legalis (‘of the law’) have come into English from different languages and different periods. We do not find any derivational relationship between the following:

- noun adjective
- law legal
- mouth oral

### Topic- 104: Morphs and Allomorphs

As phone is actual realization of the phonemes, morphs are actual forms to realize morphemes.

- Cats cat+s(plural)
- Buses bus +es( plural)

At least, there are two different morphs (-s,-es) /s/ and /ɪz/ to realize the inflectional morpheme ‘plural’.

### Allomorph

A group of different morphs, version of one morpheme, is called ‘allomorphs’.



Plural morpheme	Allomorphs
{e(s)}	/ɪz/ in the case of words ending in /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/
	e.g., buses /bʌsɪz/, vases /va: zɪz/, bushes /bʊʃɪz/
	ʊ ʃ ɪz/, rouges /ru: ʒɪz/, churches /tʃɜ: tʃɪz/, judges /dʒʌdʒɪz/
	/s/ in the case of words ending in a voiceless consonant (other than /ʃ, s, tʃ/): cats /kæts/, caps /kæps/
	/z/ in the case of words ending in voiced sounds (other than (/z, ʒ, dʒ/): boys /bɔɪz/, bags /bægz/

Similarly, the present tense morpheme {-e(s)} has three allomorphs /s/, /z/ and /ɪz/.

- Packs /pæks/
- Digs /dɪgz/
- Washes /wɒʃɪz/

The past tense morpheme of English, {-e(d)} has also three different (phonologically conditioned) allomorphs /t/, /d/ and /ɪd/.

Past morpheme	Example
{e(d)}	/t/ after morphs ending in voiceless sounds (except /t/) booked /bʊkt/, pushed /pʊʃt/
	/d/ after morphs ending in voiced sounds (except /d/) loved /lʌvd/, bagged /bægd/
	/ɪd/ after morphs ending in /t/ and /d/ wanted /'wɒntɪd/, wedded /wedɪd/

Another plural morph is 'zero morph'

Plural form of sheep is:

Sheep +∅

Man + Plural (vowel change) irregular plural form

Other morphological processes at work in languages:

Go + past tense > went

**Lesson-19****MORPHOLOGY III****Topic- 105: Coinage**

Coinage is the word formation process in which a new word is created either deliberately or accidentally without using the other word formation processes, and often from seemingly nothing. As neologism or coinage, we identify the word formation process of inventing entirely new words. This is constant evolution of new words and new uses. It is a sign of vitality and creativeness in the way a language is shaped by the needs of its users. These words are invented as trade names for commercial products, and soon they become general terms.

Older examples are aspirin, nylon, vaseline and zipper; recent examples are granola, kleenex, teflon, and Xerox. They have become everyday words in the language; for example, the word Google from the word Googleplex, which later became the name of a company (Google). Similarly, for searching something online the word 'ebay' is used.

Have you tried ebaying it?

**Eponyms**

New words are also made based on the name of a person or a place.

- Hoover (after the person who marketed it )
- Spangle (after the person who invented it)
- Sandwich (after an Earl who would have two pieces of bread with meat while gambling)
- Jeans (after a city of Italy Genoa)

Some eponyms are technical terms, based on the names of those who first discovered or invented things such as:

- Fahrenheit (from the German, Gabriel Fahrenheit)
- Volt (from the Italian, Alessandro Volta)
- Watt (from the Scottish inventor, James Watt)

**Topic- 106: Borrowing**

In linguistics, borrowing (also known as lexical borrowing) is the process by which a word from one language is adapted for use in another. The word that is borrowed is called a borrowing, a borrowed word, or a loanword. A borrowed word is never given back as the word indicates. It is the most common source of new words in English. Some common borrowed words and the languages that have been borrowed are mentioned below.

- Croissant (French) Dope (Dutch)
- Lilac (Persian)
- Piano (Italian)

- Pretzel (German),
- Sofa (Arabic),
- Tattoo (Tahitian)
- Tycoon (Japanese)
- Yogurt (Turkish)
- Zebra (Bantu)

### Loan Translation or Calque

Sometimes words in another language are translated. This process is called loan translation or a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. The English word skyscraper is thus translated as the following and all of these are calques for the English word skyscraper.

- French gratte-ciel, (literally translates as ‘scrape-sky,’)
- Dutch wolkenkrabber (‘cloud scratcher’)
- German Wolkenkratzer (‘cloud scraper’),

The English expression ‘moment of truth’ is a Spanish phrase *el momento de la verdad*. Nowadays, some Spanish speakers eat *perros calientes* (dogs hot) or hot dogs.

### Topic- 107: Compounding / Blending

Joining of two separate words to produce a single form is a very common word formation process in languages.

Examples of compounding using all nouns:

bookcase, doorknob, fingerprint, sunburn, textbook, wallpaper, wastebasket and waterbed

Using adjectives:

good-looking, low-paid

Compounds of adjective:

Fast plus noun food=fast-food restaurant, a full-time job.

It is a very common process in other languages too.

### Blending

The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term:

Smoke +fog = smog

Smoke + haze= smaze

Smoke + murk=smurk

- Bit()
- Brunch (breakfast + lunch )
- Motel (hotel + motor)
- Telecast ()
- Infotainment ( information + entertainment)
- Simulcast ()

Mixing of languages

- Franglais ( French + English)
- Spanglish (Spanish + English )

Information technology

Telex ()

### **Topic- 108: Clipping**

The element of reduction that is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as clipping for example:

Fax from facsimile

This process occurs with a word of more than one syllable and usually the beginning is clipped. It is used in casual speech.

gas (gasoline), ad (advertisement), cab (cabriolet), condo (condominium), fan (fanatic), flu (Influenza)

English speakers also like to clip each other's names.

Ed, Liz, Mike, Ron, Sam, Sue, Tom

In educational field

chem, exam, gym, lab, math, policy, prof and typo

### **Hypocorisms**

A particular type of reduction, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as hypocorisms. In this process a longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then -y or -ie is added to the end.

Movie ('moving pictures'), telly ('television'), Aussie ('Australian'), barbie ('barbecue'), brekky ('breakfast'), hankie ('handkerchief')

### **Topic- 109: Acronyms**

An acronym is a word or name formed as an abbreviation from the initial components in a phrase or a word, usually individual letters, and sometimes syllables (as in Benelux). There are no universal standards of the multiple names for such abbreviations and of their orthographic styling. Words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.

CD ('compact disk'), VCR ('video cassette recorder')

The initials are pronounced as new single words.

NATO, NASA, UNESCO

There are many every day terms such as: laser ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), radar ('radio detecting and ranging'), scuba ('self-contained underwater breathing apparatus') are examples of this process.

Names for organizations are often designed to have their acronym represent an appropriate term.

**Some New Acronyms**

- ATM ('automatic teller machine'), PIN ('personal identification number')
- I sometimes forget my PIN number when I go to the ATM machine.

**Topic- 110: Derivation (Prefixes, Suffixes, Infixes)**

A derivational affix is an affix by means of which one word is formed (derived) from another. The derived word is often of a different word class from the original. In contrast to an inflectional affix, a derivational affix:

- is not part of an obligatory set of affixes
- generally occurs closer to the root
- generally is more meaningful, and
- is more likely to result in a form that has a somewhat idiosyncratic meaning.

Prefixes are the kind of affixes which are added to the beginning of the word: un-, mis- . Affixes added to the end of the word -less, -ish are suffixes.

All English words formed by this derivational process have either prefixes or suffixes, or both.

- Mislead
- Disrespectful
- Foolishness

**Infix**

A third type of affix not normally used in English is found in some other languages of the world. However, there are few examples of infixes in English such as: Absogoddamlutely!, Fandamntastic.

## Lesson-20

## GRAMMAR I

**Topic- 111: Grammar**

The word grammar is from Greek word ‘gramma’ which means ‘art of letters’. Grammar is the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term also refers to the study of such rules, and this field includes phonology, morphology, and syntax, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

Grammar refers to cognitive information underlying language use. Speakers of a language have a set of internalized rules for using that language. These rules constitute grammar, and the vast majority of the information in the grammar is—at least in the case of one's native language—acquired not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers. Much of this work is done during early childhood; learning a language later in life usually involves a greater degree of explicit instruction.

The Babylonians made some early attempts at language description, but the first systematic grammars, of Sanskrit, originated in Iron Age India. Most known of them are:

- Yaska (6th century BC)
- Pāṇini (4th century BC)
- Pingala (200 BC)
- Katyayana (300 BC)
- Patanjali (2nd century BC)

English has strict rules for combining words into phrases.

- Noun Phrase  
The good boy  
Art + adj. + noun
- Verb Phrase  
Is playing  
Aux + verb
- Adjective Phrase  
Very beautiful  
Adverb + Adjective
- Adverb Phrase  
Quite easily  
Adverb + Adverb
- Prepositional phrase  
To the park  
Preposition + Art + noun

Different languages have different ways of sequencing phrases.

**Topic- 112: Traditional Grammar**

The collection of prescriptive rules and concepts about the structure of language that is commonly taught in schools is known as traditional grammar. It is largely based on the principles of Latin grammar, not on current linguistic research in English. It focuses on the distinction between what some people do with language, and what they ought to do with it, according to a pre-established standard.

The chief goal is to perpetuate a historical model of what supposedly constitutes proper language. The terms ‘article,’ ‘adjective’ and ‘noun’ that we use to label the grammatical categories come from traditional grammar. Latin and Greek were the languages of scholarship, religion, philosophy and ‘knowledge’; the grammars of these languages were taken to be the model for other grammars especially in English language. Here are some characteristics of traditional grammar:

- Mechanics: Proper Punctuation
- Style: Sentence Structure
- Usage: Diction
- Usage: Parts of Speech
- Style: Spelling

The best-known terms from that tradition are those used in describing the parts of speech.

**Topic- 113: The Parts of Speech**

In traditional grammar, a part of speech is a category of words which have similar grammatical properties. The Sanskrit grammarian Yāska defined four main categories (6th century BC). Dionysius Thrax (2nd century BC) gave the concept of eight parts of speech which was further modified by Latin grammarian Priscian (500 AD). Basic definitions of this type are useful for identifying most forms in a language such as English. A different approach might focus on some other properties of the parts of speech.

**Topic- 114: Agreement**

Traditional grammatical analysis has also given us a number of other categories, including ‘number,’ ‘person,’ ‘tense,’ ‘voice’ and ‘gender.’ Their role in describing language structure becomes clearer when we consider them in terms of agreement e.g., ‘Cathy loves her dog.’

Agreement is partially based on the category of number. The subject is singular so the verb is also singular. It is also based on the category of ‘person’. Similarly, in this sentence the verb is singular because their person takes a singular verb. The different forms of English pronouns can be described in terms of person and number.

e.g., I, we, he, she, etc.

In the sentence

‘Cathy loves her dog.’

‘Loves’ is present tense. Also the above sentence is in active voice.

A passive voice would be



Her dog is loved by Cathy.

Gender describes the agreement between Cathy and her. A distinction in English is made between reference to female entities, male entities, and things or creatures.

### **Topic- 115: Grammatical Gender**

The type of biological distinction used in English is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that use grammatical gender. Natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminine), and is not tied to sex. Nouns are classified according to their gender class, and typically, articles and adjectives have different forms to ‘agree with’ the gender of the noun in many languages.

Spanish, for example, has two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine, illustrated by the expressions *el sol* ‘the sun’ and *la luna* ‘the moon’. German uses three genders, masculine *der Mond* ‘the moon’, feminine *die Sonne* ‘the sun’, and neuter *das Feuer* ‘the fire’. The different forms of the articles in both the Spanish (*el* or *la*) and German (*der*, *die* or *das*) examples correspond to differences in the gender class of the nouns.

A young girl is biologically ‘female’ but the German noun *das Ma’dchen* used to talk about her is grammatically neuter. The French noun *le livre* (‘the book’) is grammatically masculine, but neither we nor the French people consider a book to be biologically male. The grammatical category of gender is very usefully applied in describing a number of languages (including Latin), but may not be appropriate for describing forms in other languages such as English.

### **Topic- 116: Traditional Analysis**

The notion of ‘appropriateness’ of analytic categories for a particular language has not always been a consideration. Each of the Latin verb forms is different, according to the categories of person and number. The English verb forms are (with one exception) mostly the same. In English, it makes more sense to say the categories describe different pronouns.

#### **Traditional Analysis**

		English		Latin
	First person singular	I	love	amo
	Second person singular	You	love	amas
Present tense Active voice	Second person singular	She	loves	amat
	First person plural	We	love	amamus
	Second person plural	You	love	amatis
	Third person Plural	They	love	Amat

**Lesson-21****GRAMMAR II****Topic- 117: The Prescriptive Approach**

It is one thing to adopt the grammatical labels (e.g., ‘noun,’ ‘verb’) to categorize words in English sentences. It is quite another thing to go on to claim that the structure of English sentences should be like the structure of sentences in Latin. This was an approach taken by a number of influential grammarians, mainly in eighteenth-century England, who set out rules for the ‘proper’ use of English. This view of grammar as a set of rules for the ‘proper’ use of a language is still to be found today and may be best characterized as the prescriptive approach.

- You must not split an infinitive.
- You need to immediately see him. Incorrect
- You need to see him immediately. Correct
- You must not end a sentence with a preposition.
- Who did you go with? Incorrect
- With whom did you go? Correct

The case of pronoun after comparative should be the nominative case for example,

- And Mary runs faster than me. Incorrect
- Mary runs faster than I. Correct
- Me and my family.... Incorrect
- My family and I.... Correct

In addition, in proper English writing, one should never begin a sentence with and! Similarly one cannot split an infinitive like the following is considered incorrect.

To boldly go

This is so because it follows the Latin rules imposed on English, whereas in Latin *ire* (‘to go’) is one word, and *audacter* (‘boldly’) is another. Besides, the Latin word for infinitive *ire* is single word and cannot be split. English structures are different from those of Latin.

**Topic- 118: The Descriptive Approach**

Using a well-established grammatical description of Latin is a useful guide for some European languages (e.g., Italian or Spanish), but is less useful for others (e.g., English). This last point became clear to those linguists who were trying to describe the structure of the native languages of North America toward the end of the nineteenth century. The categories and rules that were appropriate for Latin grammar just did not seem to fit these languages. In twentieth century, a rather different approach was adopted. The linguists took the samples of the language they were interested in and attempted to describe the regular structures of the language. This is called the descriptive approach. A descriptive grammarian would say that a sentence is ‘grammatical’ if a native speaker of the language would produce that

sentence in speaking. So, all prescriptive or normative rules of Latin grammar were considered to be applicable to English.

### **Topic- 119: Structural Analysis**

One type of descriptive approach is called structural analysis and its main concern is to investigate the distribution of forms in a language. The method involves the use of ‘test-frames’ that can be sentences with empty slots in them. All the forms that fit in the same test-frame are the examples of the same grammatical category. We can fill in the words like boy, girl or horse but not a pronoun like he, she, it, in the following slot:

The ----- drinks water.

----- drinks water.

We can see that the pronouns fit in this second set of test-frames, and not in the first set (\*The it makes a lot of noise). In the older analysis, under the influence of Latin, pronouns were described as ‘words used in place of nouns’. We can now see that it is more accurate to say that pronouns are used in place of noun phrases (not just nouns). By developing a set of test-frames of this type and discovering which forms fit the slots in the test-frames, we can produce a description of aspects of the sentence structures of a language.

### **Topic- 120: Constituent Analysis**

Constituent analysis is an approach to describe language. It is designed to show how small constituents (or components) in sentences go together to form larger constituents. One basic step is determining how words go together to form phrases.

At word level

An old man brought a shotgun to the wedding.

How do they go together to form constituent at phrase level?

(An old) ( man brought) (brought a) ( shotgun to)( to the)

The phrase-like constituents here are combinations of the following types:

- an old man
- a shotgun
- the wedding

### **Topic- 121: Labeled and Bracketed Sentences**

An alternative type of diagram is designed to show how the constituents in sentence structure can be marked off by using labeled brackets.

Sentence are shown at the word level

[the] or [dog],

at the phrase level

[the dog] or [loved the girl],

and at the sentence level

[The dog loved the girl].

We can then label each constituent using these abbreviated grammatical terms:

Art (= article) V (= verb) N (= noun) VP (= verb phrase) NP (= noun phrase) S (= sentence)

Constituent analysis is not only useful for describing the structure of English sentences, it helps us understand each constituent at different levels.

### **Topic- 122: A Gaelic Sentence**

Gaelic sentence is organised with the following structure:

V NP NP

It is different from English that has the following structure:

NP V NP

It may help us understand why a Spanish learner of English produces phrases like

\*the book good

So, different languages have different structures.

**Lesson-22****SYNTAX I****Topic- 123: Introduction**

The word 'syntax' comes originally from Greek and literally means 'a putting together' or arrangement. There was an attempt to produce an accurate description of the sequence or ordering 'arrangement' of elements in the linear structure of the sentence. In the more recent attempts to analyze syntactic structure, there has been a greater focus on the underlying rule system that we used to produce or 'generate' sentences.

A prepositional phrase in English consists of a preposition followed by a noun phrase and a noun phrase consists of an article and a noun. For example, 'near London' is a correct prepositional phrase as London is a proper noun and does not need an article; on the other hand, 'with dog' is not a correct prepositional phrase as 'dog' should have article 'a' with it. So, the correct prepositional phrase is 'a dog'.

**Another Goal of Syntactic Analysis**

A small and finite (i.e., limited) set of rules that will be capable of producing a large and potentially infinite (i.e., unlimited) number of well-formed structures. The small and finite set of rules is sometimes described as a 'generative grammar' because it can be used to 'generate' or produce sentence structures and not just describe them.

This type of grammar should also be capable of revealing the basis of two other phenomena:  
How some superficially different sentences are closely related?  
How some superficially similar sentences are in fact different?

**Topic- 124: Generative Grammar**

Generative grammar is a linguistic theory that regards grammar as a system of rules that generates exactly those combinations of words that form grammatical sentences in a given language. The generative school has focused on the study of syntax, but has also addressed other aspects of a language's structure, including morphology and phonology. Early versions of Chomsky's theory were called transformational grammar, which is still used as a general term that includes his subsequent theories. Generativists have argued that many of the properties of a generative grammar arise from a universal grammar that is innate to the human brain, rather than being learned from the environment. Noam Chomsky opposed the earlier theories of structuralism by rejecting the idea that each language is different from the other.

The basic concept sets forth the rules to recognize grammatical sentences in a language. These rules differentiate the correct structures from improper sequences of words or ungrammatical sentences in the same language. The sentence is represented as a tree having branches denoting the subordinate and superordinate elements rather than just a sequence of words. Generative grammar attempts to formalize the implicit rules that a person uses while speaking his native language. The rules of generative grammar may appear to be useful only in language studies.

**Topic- 125: Properties of Generative Grammar**

Noam Chomsky has argued that many of the properties of a generative grammar arise from an ‘innate’ universal grammar, which is common to all languages. The grammar must generate all the well-formed syntactic structures (i.e., sentences) of the language and fails to generate any ill-formed structures. The grammar will have a finite (i.e., limited) number of rules but will be capable of generating an infinite number of well-formed structures. The productivity of language would be captured within the grammar. Rules of this grammar also need the crucial property of recursion. The grammar will have to capture the fact that a sentence can have another sentence inside it. Grammar should also be capable of revealing the basis of two other phenomena:

**1. How some superficially distinct sentences are closely related?**

Charlie broke the window.

The window was broken by Charlie.

**2. How some superficially similar sentences are in fact distinct?**

The king is easy to please.

The king is eager to please.

**Topic- 126: Well-Formed Syntactic Structures**

Well-formedness is the quality of a clause, word, or other linguistic element that conforms to the grammar of the language of which it is a part. Well-formed words or phrases are grammatical, meaning they obey all relevant rules of grammar. A form that violates some grammar rule is ill-formed and does not constitute part of the language. A word may be phonologically well-formed. A word, phrase, clause, or utterance may be grammatically well-formed. A semantically well-formed utterance or sentence is one that is meaningful. Grammatical well-formedness and semantic well-formedness do not always coincide, e.g., colorless green ideas sleep furiously. This sentence is grammatically correct but semantically incorrect. Sometimes, native speakers of a language do not agree whether a particular word, phrase, or clause is well-formed. The problem of well-formedness is a problem for generative linguistics. Grammatical generator follows some universal patterns that should not vary among speakers.

**Topic- 127: Finite Number of Rules**

‘A small set of rules operating on a large but finite set of words generates an infinite number of sentences.’ The problem with this definition is that it assumes a very bound and discrete view of all elements: rules, lexical items, and sentences. Language is not organized in sentences and the difference between words and rules is likely to be an artifact of dictionary making and grammar writing. Similarly, there is no guarantee, that the actual number of possible sentences is infinite rather than just unimaginably and practically inexhaustibly large (as was argued by Pullum and Scholtz in 2010). As a matter of practical fact, the set of possible expressions in a given language may or may not be infinite; the actual set of all expressions ever uttered is going to be finite.

The set of expressions actually produced by humans (or even machines) is going to be too large to enumerate practically by current (and possibly any) technology but it is going to be finite. Therefore, it really does not matter whether language is infinite or not. The thing that matters is that any language is

going to allow a set of expressions that is sufficiently large for any purpose a human language can be put toward.

### **Topic- 128: Recursion**

#### **The Crucial Property of Recursion**

Recursive ('repeatable any number of times') rules have the capacity to be applied more than once in generating a structure. For example,

The gun was on the table.

The above sentence has one prepositional phrase describing location i.e., 'on the table'.

We can also add 'near the window' and 'in the bedroom' in this sentence. Then it will be

The gun was on the table near the window in the bedroom.

Sentences are put inside other sentences e.g., 'Mary helped George.' can become 'Cathy knew that Mary helped George.' In addition, two sentences can be generated inside another sentence such as: John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

Principally, there is no end to recursion. Grammar will have to capture the facts that:

- A sentence can have another sentence inside it.
- A phrase can be repeated as often as required.
- Recursion is a feature of grammar.
- It is an essential part of a theory of cosmic structure.



**Lesson-23****SYNTAX II****Topic- 129: Surface Structure**

In transformational and generative grammar, surface structure is the outward form of a sentence. Surface structures are derived from deep structures by a series of transformations. Deep and surface structures are often used as terms in a simple binary opposition, with the deep structure representing meaning, and the surface structure being the actual sentence we see. The final stage in the syntactic representation of a sentence provides the input to the phonological component of grammar. It corresponds to the structure of the sentence we articulate and hear.

- Charlie broke the window.
- The window was broken by Charlie.

The distinction between them is a difference in their surface structure. The grammar must be capable of showing how a single underlying abstract representation can become different surface structures.

**Topic- 130: Deep Structure**

- Charlie broke the window.
- The window was broken by Charlie.

The distinction between them is a difference in their surface structure. This superficial difference in form disguises the fact that the two sentences are very closely related, even identical, at some less superficial level. The ‘underlying’ level, where the basic components (Noun Phrase +Verb +Noun Phrase) shared by the two sentences can be represented, is called their ‘deep structure’. The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented. That same deep structure can be the source of many other surface structures such as:

It was Charlie who broke the window.

The grammar must be capable of showing how a single underlying abstract representation can become different surface structures.

**Topic- 131: Structural Ambiguity**

Observe the following two distinct deep structures:

- ‘Annie had an umbrella and she bumped into a man with it.’
- ‘Annie bumped into a man and the man happened to be carrying an umbrella.’

These two different versions of events can actually be expressed in the same surface structure form: Annie bumped into a man with an umbrella. This sentence provides an example of structural ambiguity. It has two distinct underlying interpretations that have to be represented differently in deep structure.

Phrases can also be structurally ambiguous.

- ‘small boys and girls’  
can be
- ‘small boys and (small) girls’
- ‘small boys and (all) girls.’

Our syntactic analysis will have to be capable of showing the structural distinction between these underlying representations.

### **Topic- 132: Symbols Used in Syntactic Description**

While describing syntactical categories some symbols are used as abbreviations for syntactic categories.

- ‘S’ (= sentence),
- ‘NP’ (= noun phrase), ‘N’ (= noun),
- ‘Art’ (= article),
- ‘V’ (= verb) and
- ‘VP’ (= verb phrase)
- ‘PP’ (= prepositional phrase),

Three more symbols that are commonly used in syntactic description are the following:

First: an arrow → typically used in the following type of rule:

NP → Art N The dog (→) an article (Art) the and a noun (N) dog

Second: a pair of round brackets ()

‘the dog’ and ‘the small dog’ (NP)

NP → Art (Adj) N

The above shorthand notation expresses the idea that a noun phrase rewrites as (→) an article (Art) and a noun (N), with the option of including an adjective (Adj.) in a specific position between them.

Third:

Curly brackets { }

These indicate that only one of the elements enclosed within the curly brackets must be selected.

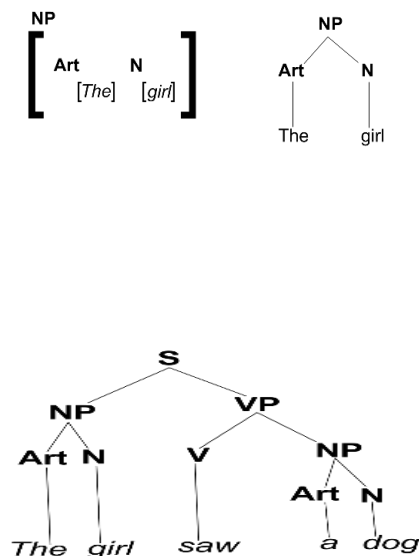
The list of common symbols and abbreviations is summarized here.

- S sentence
- NP noun phrase
- PN proper noun
- N noun
- VP verb phrase
- Adv. adverb
- V verb
- Adj. adjective
- Prep preposition
- Art article
- Pro pronoun
- PP prepositional phrase

- ungrammatical sentence
- → consists of / rewrites as
- () optional constituent
- {} one and only one of these constituents must be selected.

### **Topic- 133: Labelled Tree Diagrams**

The most common way to create a visual representation of syntactic structures is through tree diagrams. We can use the symbols introduced (Art=article, N = noun, NP = noun phrase) to label parts of the tree as we try to capture the hierarchical organization of those parts in the underlying structure of phrases and sentences. At the top of the tree diagram, we begin with a sentence (S), and divide it into two constituents (NP and VP). In turn, the NP constituent is divided into two other constituents (Art and N) and VP into V and NP.



At the top of the tree diagram, we begin with a sentence (S) and divide it into two constituents (NP and VP). In turn, the NP constituent is divided into two other constituents (Art and N).

**Lesson-24****SYNTAX III (RULES OF SYNTACTIC DESCRIPTION)****Topic- 134: Phrase Structure Rules**

These are the rules that form phrases of different types e.g., noun phrase, verb phrase, and adjective phrase etc. A tree diagram can have two different ways: simply as a static representation of the structure of the sentence shown at the bottom of the tree diagram. Every single sentence can have a tree diagram. The other one is the dynamic format which is a way of generating not only that particular sentence, but a very large number of other sentences with similar structures. This second approach is very appealing because it would enable us to generate a very large number of sentences with what looks like a very small number of rules. These rules are called phrase structure rules.

These rules state that the structure of a phrase of a specific type will consist of one or more constituents in a particular order. Phrase structure rules present the information of the tree diagram in another format.

- $S \rightarrow NP VP$
- $NP \rightarrow \{Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN\}$
- $VP \rightarrow V NP (PP) (Adv)$
- $PP \rightarrow Prep NP$

**Topic- 135: Lexical Rules**

Phrase structure rules generate structures. To turn those structures into recognizable English, we also need lexical rules. They specify which words can we rewrite constituents such as N. The first rule in the following set states that 'a proper noun rewrites as Mary or George'.

- $PN \rightarrow \{Mary, George\}$
- $N \rightarrow \{girl, dog, boy\}$
- $Art \rightarrow \{a, the\}$
- $Pro \rightarrow \{it, you\}$
- $V \rightarrow \{followed, helped, saw\}$

**These rules generate the grammatical sentences:**

- 1) A dog followed the boy.
- 2) Mary helped George.
- 3) George saw the dog
- 4) The boy helped you
- 5) It followed Mary.
- 6) You saw it.

But the ungrammatical sentences lack the rules like:

Dog followed boy.

The helped you boy.

George Mary dog.

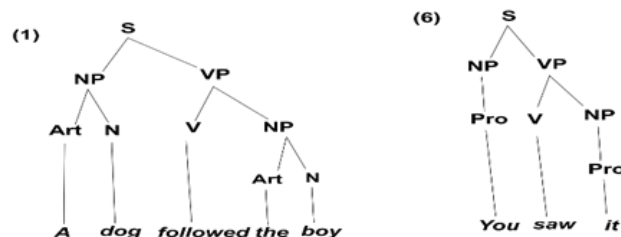
Helped George the dog.

You it saw.

Mary George helped.

As a way of visualizing how the phrase structure rules form the basis of these sentences, we can draw the tree diagrams for sentences (1) and (6).

The same PS rules can be shown on tree diagram.



### **Topic- 136: Back to Recursion**

The simple phrase structure rules listed earlier have no recursive elements. Each time we start to create an S, we only create a single S (sentence structure). We actually need to be able to include sentence structures within other sentence structures. In traditional grammar, these 'sentence structures' were described as 'clauses'.

- Mary helped George.
- Cathy knew that [Mary helped George].

Being tediously recursive, there are repeatable elements in these sentences:

- John believed that [Cathy knew that [Mary helped George]].

Two new proper nouns and two new verbs have been used.

- $PN \rightarrow \{\text{John, Cathy}\}$
- $V \rightarrow \{\text{believed, knew}\}$ .

The word 'that' introduces a complement phrase as;

- Mary helped George.
- Cathy knew that Mary helped George.
- John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

### **Topic- 137: Transformational Rules**

Transformational rules (T-Rules) relate the spoken form of the sentence (surface structure) to their underlying meaning (deep structure), for example,

- Linguists often use large words.
- Large words are often used by linguists.

These set contain s synonymous sentence. As the forms are different their phrase marker would be different. Surface structure refers to the actual utterance that can be broken down by traditional analysis. Different surface structure may have the same deep structure or vice versa.

### **Some Types of Transformations**

**Deletion:** A sentence that undergoes the transformation must have the same meaning as the sentence from which it was derived.

**Imperative transformation:** Transformation never changes meaning. The meaning remains same, e.g.,  
You come home  
Come home.

### **Insertion transformation**

He knew she was here.  
He knew that she was here.  
He won the race is history.  
That he won the race is history.

### **Substitution transformation**

Pronoun substitution  
Pronominalization Transformation  
Tony thought that Tony was the best.  
Tony thought that he was the best.

### **Topic- 138: Particle Movement**

Particle movement takes place in a construction which is made up of a verb and a particle (e.g., 'look up the number'). The relocation of the particle to the right of the noun phrase that serves as the object (e.g., 'look the number up') is an example of particle movement. .

The boy passed out the candy.  
The boy passed the candy out.  
Linguists often use large words.  
Large words are often used by linguists.

However, movement is not always possible.  
Please go over your homework tonight.  
pl go your homework over tonight.

Particle movement is optional in Subject-verb-direct object

Mary put out the fire.

However, in certain structures it is obligatory movement when the direct object is a personal pronoun.

\*Mary put out it.

Mary put it out.

### Demonstrative Pronoun

Pick that out.

Throw this out.

### Obligatory Movement with Reflexes as Objects

- Jane let herself out.
- The thief turned himself over to the police.
- I dried myself off.
- Mary put the fire out.
- 'Out' does not indicate lactation.
- Tom /turned off/ the ignition.
- Tom turned the ignition off.
- Tom/ turned/ off the road.

### Adverb of Manner

Mother hung up the clothes quickly.

\*Mother hung quickly up the clothes.

Particles in S-V-O are the particles with which particle movement may occur.

### Topic- 139: IC analysis

Immediate constituent analysis or IC analysis is a method of sentence analysis that was first mentioned by Leonard Bloomfield and developed further by Rulon Wells. The principle of IC analysis is to cut a sentence into two and then to cut those parts into two and to continue with the segmentation until the smallest indivisible unit, the morphemes are reached. As a general principle the division is binary.

The young man followed a girl.

The young man +followed a girl.

Followed + a girl

a+ girl

The young man = the +young man

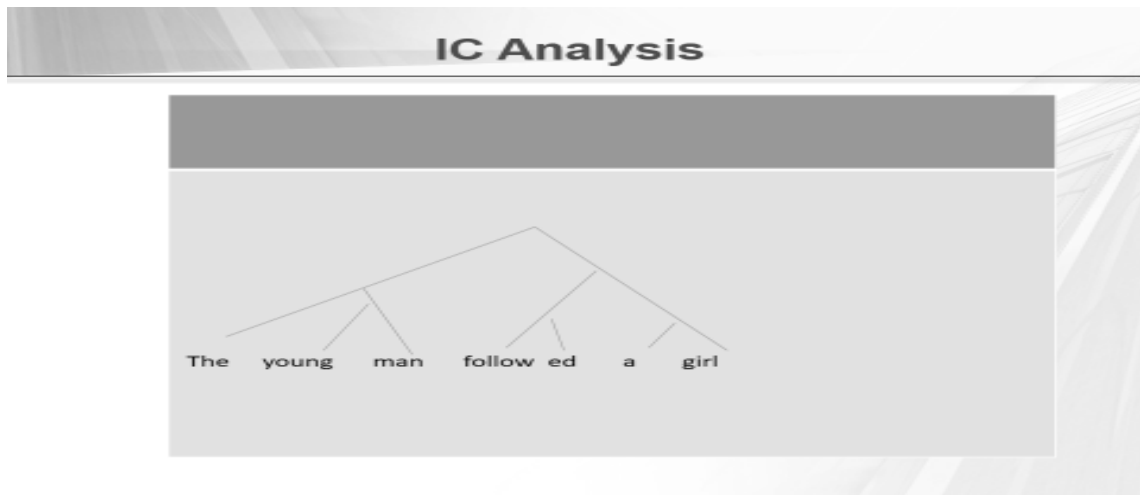
Young+ man

Follow+ed

The || young || man | follow || ed || a || girl |.

((The (((young) (man))) ((followed) ((a) (girl)))).





How do we know where to make a cut? The answer is in expansion.

**Expansion:** Expansion is a technical term, the substitution of one sequence of elements for another. A sequence of element said to be the expansion of another.

- Children
- American children
- Three American children
- Three American children with a dog
- Those three American children with a dog

However, it is not always easy to have a binary cut as in some case it is difficult to justified

- Egyptian cotton shirt
- Egyptian + cotton shirt
- Egyptian cotton + shirt

IC analyses have certain flaws. Firstly, it does not indicate what kind of elements those constituent parts are; it does not even identify except implication. Secondly, it does not show clearly that noun phrases are built on nouns, verb phrases on verbs, etc. Thirdly, IC analysis does not tell us how to form new sentences, i.e., to produce sentences that have not already been attested in some corpus of data.

**Lesson-25****SEMANTICS I****Topic- 140: Definition**

The word semantics comes from Greece word sema (noun) which means ‘symbol’ or ‘sign’. The verb is Semaino which means ‘signify’. The symbol of the synonymy of sema is a linguistic sign. Saussure (1996) states that linguistic sign consists of the signifier, component, in sort of sounds and the signified, the referent outside of language. Semantics is a term which is used in linguistics, which studies the relation between linguistic sign and signified thing. In other words, semantics is a branch of linguistics, which studies about the meaning.

Halliday (1985) states that the term “semantics” does not simply refers to the meaning of words; it is the entire system of meanings of a language, expressed by grammar as well as by vocabulary. Semantics brings in symbols use in the language and outside the language, but its primary concern is human language. In semantics, one is trying to make explicit meanings, i.e., in which manner words and sentences of various grammatical constructions are used and understood by native speakers of that language.

**Topic- 141: Types of Meaning**

- Semantics is the study of meaning in language. There is more interest in certain aspects of meaning than in others. There are different types of meanings. We can have the following types of meaning:
- **Lexical meaning** refers to the meaning of words that belong to one of the four lexical word classes. It is the aspect of meaning usually given in a dictionary.
- **Grammatical meaning** includes the meaning of grammatical items (e.g., function words and inflectional affixes), grammatical functions (e.g., subject and object), and different sentence-types (e.g., declarative and interrogative).
- Taking into account certain non-linguistic aspects of meaning, Geoffrey Leech (1981) lists seven different types of meaning.
- **Referential meaning** (also called denotative meaning, descriptive meaning, conceptual meaning, or sense) refers to the logical, cognitive, or denotative content of an expression.
- **Connotative meaning** (associative meaning) denotes the associations and secondary meanings the expression evokes.
- **Social meaning** (stylistic meaning) is the information that the linguistic expression conveys about certain social characteristics.
- **Emotive or affective** component of the expression is referred to as its affective meaning. Social meaning and affective meaning together are sometimes called connotation.
- **Reflected meaning** refers to certain associations with another sense of the same expression, whereas collocative meaning (collocation) is conveyed by characteristic word combinations.
- **Thematic meaning** denotes the organization of a message in terms of information structure.

**Topic- 142: Conceptual or Denotative Meaning**

Conceptual meaning or denotative meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word. It is the type of meaning that dictionaries are designed to describe. Some of the basic components of a word like 'needle' in English might include "thin, sharp, steel instrument." These components would be part of the conceptual meaning of needle. However, different people might have different associations or connotations attached to a word like needle. They might associate it with "pain," or "illness," or "blood," or "drugs," or "thread," or "knitting," or "hard to find" (especially in a haystack), and these associations may differ from one person to the next. These types of associations are not treated as part of the word's conceptual meaning. In a similar way, some people may associate the expression low-calorie, when used to describe a product, with "healthy," but this is not part of the basic conceptual meaning of the expression (i.e., "producing a small amount of heat or energy"). Poets, song-writers, novelists, literary critics, advertisers and lovers may all be interested in how words can evoke certain aspects of associative meaning, but in linguistic semantics we're more concerned with trying to analyze the conceptual meaning.

**Topic- 143: Associative or Connotative Meaning**

Connotative meaning is what people think about two words and find whether it is possible or impossible for the word to have two different meanings from its denotative meaning. Based on it, the meaning depends on personal interpretation. Sometimes, people have the same or different thought. Sometimes when a word has both positive and negative sense value, the word is called a connotative meaning word. It is also pointed out that connotation meaning is subjective, in notion that there is a shift from common meaning because it has been added by sense and certain value, for example, bookworm is used for a person who always read books, with a negative sense.

Connotative meaning is the communicative value that an expression has, by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content. It can vary from age to age, from society to society, and from individual to individual.

**Topic- 144: Propositional Meaning**

Propositional meaning is the type of meaning that comes from the context within which the sentence is used. Another distinction that has been made is called 'linguistic meaning' which is different from a proposition, and does not carry truth-value. E.g., 'Mary loves Carl' means the same as 'Mary ama Carl.'

The Spanish speaker then fully understands the linguistic meaning of 'Mary loves Carl' but without needing to know any proposition, any truth or falsehood, which the English sentence has ever expressed. The linguistic meaning of a declarative sentence is distinct from the proposition expressed by the sentence on some occasion of the sentence's use.

Propositions are statements about the world which can be true or false. They form the basis of human reasoning and determine our views, selfhood, and actions. In linguistic behaviour, propositions emerge in complete sentences (or clauses). It is the full sentence, in a context, that forms a proposition. “A jeep crashed into a barrier” establishes a topic/subject (“a jeep”) and makes a conceptually verifiable statement about it. Sarah realizes that a jeep crashed into a barrier.” “Sarah thinks that a jeep crashed into a barrier.”

Each of these sentences contains an embedded clause, e.g., “[Sarah realizes [that a jeep crashed into a barrier]]” The embedded content is dependent on the verb in the superordinate clause. Mental state verbs can be categorized as factive (e.g., ‘realize’, ‘regret’, and ‘know’) or non-factive (e.g., ‘believe’, ‘think’, and ‘assume’). For a factive sentence such as ‘Sarah realizes that a jeep crashed into a barrier’ to be true, the jeep must have crashed into a barrier and Sarah must be certain about it. For the non-factive sentence, ‘Sarah thinks that a jeep crashed into the barrier’ to be true, It does not actually matter whether the accident happened. Only Sarah’s representation of the world is important. Propositional meaning is the type of meaning that comes from the context within which the sentence is used independent of the context.

#### **Topic- 145: The Prosodic Meaning**

Prosody is the study of the tune and rhythm of speech, and the way these features contribute to meaning. Prosody features apply to a level above that of the individual phoneme and very often to sequences of words. Speech contains various levels of information that can be described as;

- Linguistic - direct expression of meaning
- Paralinguistic - may indicate attitude or membership of a speech community
- Non-linguistic - may indicate something about a speaker's vocal physiology, state of health or emotional state.

In linguistics, prosody is concerned with properties of syllables and larger units of speech. These contribute to linguistic functions such as intonation, tone, stress, and rhythm. Prosody may reflect various features of the speaker or the utterance: The emotional state of the speaker; the form of the utterance (statement, question, or command); the presence of irony or sarcasm; emphasis, contrast, and focus or other elements of language that may not be encoded by grammar or by the choice of vocabulary.

**Lesson-26****SEMANTICS II (SEMANTIC FEATURES and SEMANTIC ROLES)****Topic- 146: Semantic Features**

One way in which the study of basic conceptual meaning might be helpful would be as a means of accounting for the ‘oddness’ we experience when we read sentences such as the following:

- The hamburger ate the boy.
- The table listens to the radio.
- The horse is reading the newspaper.

The oddness is not due to syntactic structure

The hamburger ate the boy.

NP          VP          NP

The boy ate the hamburger

The components of the conceptual meaning of the noun hamburger must be significantly different from those of the noun boy. The kind of noun that can be the subject of the verb ate must denote an entity that is capable of ‘eating’. The noun hamburger does not have this property and the noun boy does. The crucial element or feature of meaning that any noun must have in order to be used as the subject of the verb ate. Such an element may be as general as ‘animate being’.

Particular feature

Having (+) or not having (–)

The noun boy has is ‘+animate’ (= denotes an animate being) and the feature that the noun hamburger has is ‘–animate’ (= does not denote an animate being).

The N [+human] is reading the newspaper.

This approach would give us the ability to predict which nouns make this sentence semantically odd. Part of the problem seems to be that the approach involves a view of words in a language as some sort of ‘containers’ that carry meaning components. There is clearly more to the meaning of words than these basic types of features.

**Topic- 147: Semantic Roles**

A semantic role is the underlying relationship that a participant has with the main verb in a clause. Semantic role is the actual role a participant plays in some real or imagined situation, apart from the linguistic encoding of those situations. Semantic roles are used to indicate the role played by each entity in a sentence and are ranging from very specific to very general. If the situation is a simple event, as in ‘The boy kicked the ball’, then the verb describes an action (kick). The noun phrases in the sentence describe the roles of entities, such as people and things, involved in the action. We can identify a small

number of semantic roles (also called ‘thematic roles’) for these noun phrases. The major drawbacks of the semantic role approach are; there is no agreement about which and how many roles are needed.

### **Topic- 148: Agent**

Agent is the semantic role of a person or thing who is the doer of an event. An agent is usually the grammatical subject of the verb in an active clause. A prototypical agent is conscious, acts with volition (on purpose), and performs an action that has a physical, visible effect.

- The boy ran down the street.
- He was chased by the dog.

Although we have changed an active clause into a passive one, and the boy is now the subject, nothing has changed in the real world. Although agents are typically human (The boy), they can also be non-human entities that cause actions, as in noun phrases denoting a natural force (The wind), a machine (A car), or a creature (The dog), all of which affect the ball as theme.

- The boy kicked the ball.
- The wind blew the ball away.
- A car ran over the ball.
- The dog caught the ball.

Semantic roles indicate the parts played by participants in ‘a state of affairs’ or ‘a situation’.

### **Topic- 149: Theme**

Another role is taken by the ball as ‘the entity that is involved in or affected by the action’, which is called the theme (or sometimes the ‘patient’). The theme can also be an entity (The ball) that is simply being described (i.e., not performing an action), as in

- The ball was red.

The theme is typically non-human, but can be human (the boy), as in the dog chased the boy.

- The boy kicked the ball.
- The wind blew the ball away.
- A car ran over the ball.

The same physical entity can appear in two different semantic roles in a sentence, as in

The boy cut himself. The boy is agent and himself is theme. The theme may also be called ‘patient’ or ‘undergoer’.

### **Topic- 150: Instrument**

If an agent uses another entity in order to perform an action, that other entity fills the role of instrument.

- The boy cut the rope with an old razor.
- He drew the picture with a crayon.

In these examples with an old razor and with a crayon are ‘instrument’ with which the agent performed the action.

**Topic- 151: Experiencer, Location, Source and Goal****Experiencer**

Experiencer is the semantic role of an entity (or referent) which receives, accepts, experiences, or undergoes the effect of an action.

We see something.

We know something.

We enjoy something.

No action is being performed by agents.

**The boy** feels sad.

The experiencer (The boy) is the only semantic role.

Did **you** hear that noise?

The experiencer is you and the theme is that noise.

**Location:** A number of other semantic roles designate where an entity is in the description of an event where an entity is (on the table, in the room) fills the role of location.

**Source:** Where the entity moves from is the source (from Chicago)

**Goal:** Where it moves to, is the goal (to New Lahore),

- We drove from Chicago to New Lahore.
- We transfer money from savings to checking.

The source is savings. The goal is checking.

**Lesson-27****SEMANTICS III (LEXICAL RELATIONS)****Topic- 152: Synonymy**

- What was his answer?
- What was his reply?

Two or more words with very closely related meanings are called synonyms. They can often, though not always, be substituted for each other in sentences. Other common examples of synonyms are the pairs:

- almost/nearly, big/large,
- broad/wide, buy/purchase,
- cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa,
- freedom/ liberty.

The idea of ‘sameness’ of meaning used in discussing synonymy is not necessarily ‘total sameness’.

- Sandy had only one answer correct on the test.

Here the word reply would sound odd. Synonymous forms may also differ in terms of formal versus informal uses.

- My father purchased a large automobile.
- My dad bought a big car.

The second version sounds much more casual or informal than the first.

**Topic- 153: Antonymy**

Antonymy refers to the pair-wise relation of lexical items in context that are understood to be semantically opposite (as discussed below).

- Alive/dead
- Big/small
- Fast/slow
- Happy/sad
- Hot/cold
- Long/short
- Male/ female
- Married/single
- Old/new,
- Rich/poor

Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms.

- Two main types, ‘Gradable’ (opposites along a scale)
- ‘Non-gradable’ (direct opposites).

Gradable antonyms are like the following pair:

big/ small,



They can be used in comparative constructions like:

- I'm bigger than you.
- A pony is smaller than a horse.

The negative of one member of a gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other.

For example, the sentence 'My car is not old' does not necessarily mean 'My car is new'.

Non-gradable antonyms (also called "complementary pairs"), in these comparative constructions are not normally used.

- Someone as deader
- More dead than another.

The negative of one member of a non-gradable pair does imply the other member.

- My grandparents are not alive.
- My grandparents are dead.

Other non-gradable antonyms in the earlier list are the pairs: male/female, married/single and true/false.

We usually avoid describing one member of an antonymous pair as the negative of the other. They are reversives. Undress can be treated as the opposite of dress; it doesn't mean 'not dress'. It actually means 'the reverse of dress'. Other common examples are enter/exit, pack/unpack, lengthen/shorten, raise/lower, tie/untie etc.

#### **Topic- 154: Hyponymy**

- Animal/dog
- Dog/poodle
- Vegetable/ carrot
- flower/rose
- Tree/banyan

The meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is hyponymy.

- rose is a hyponym of flower

In hyponymous connections, we are essentially looking at the meaning of words in some type of hierarchical relationship.

Superordinate (= higher-level)

Two or more words that share the same superordinate term are co-hyponyms. Co-hyponymy captures the concept of 'is a kind of', as 'an asp is a kind of snake'. It is not only words for "things" that are hyponyms. Words such as; punch shoot and stab, describing 'actions', can all be treated as co-hyponyms of the superordinate term injure.

#### **Topic- 155: Prototypes**

- Canary, cormorant,
- Dove, duck
- Flamingo, parrot

- Pelican, robin

All birds are equally co-hyponyms of the superordinate bird. The most characteristic instance of the category 'bird' is robin. The idea of 'the characteristic instance' of a category is known as the prototype. The concept of a prototype helps explain the meaning of certain words, like bird, not in terms of component features (e.g., 'has feathers', 'has wings'), but in terms of resemblance to the clearest example. Ostrich or penguin should be hyponyms of bird (technically they are), but have no trouble deciding about sparrow or pigeon.

### Category labels

Furniture: chair is a better example than bench or stool.

Clothing: people recognize shirts quicker than shoes.

Vegetable: they accept carrot before potato or tomato.

There is some general pattern to the categorization process involved in prototypes and that it determines our interpretation of word meaning. Individual experience can lead to substantial variation in interpretation:

Avocado or tomato as fruit or vegetable.

They may be co-hyponyms of both fruit and vegetable in different contexts.

### **Topic- 156: Homophony, Homonymy and Polysemy**

Two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, are described as homophones:

- bare/bear,
- meat/meet,
- flour/ flower,
- pail/pale,
- right/write,
- sew/so
- to/too/two.

### Homonyms

One form (written or spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings. They have separate histories and meanings. But they have exactly the same form.

- bank (of a river)
- bank (financial institution)
- bat (flying creature) bat (used in sports)
- mole (on skin)
- mole (small animal)
- pupil (at school)
- pupil (in the eye)
- race (contest of speed) race (ethnic group)

**Polysemy:** Polysemy is an interesting phenomenon that concerns cases in which a word or phrase enjoys multiple, related meanings.

- head the object on top of body,
- froth on top of a glass of beer,
- person at the top of a company or department
- foot (of person, of bed, of mountain)
- run (person does, water does, colors do)

### **Homonymy or Polysemy?**

Polysemy is the phenomenon whereby a single word form is associated with two or several related senses: face, foot, get, head and run are some examples of polysemy

Homonymy is characterized as the phenomenon where a single word form is associated with two or several unrelated meanings, for examples, bank, mail, mole and sole, etc.

Two forms may be distinguished via homonymy and for one of the forms also to have various uses via polysemy. The words date (a thing we can eat) and dates (a point in time) are homonyms. The 'point in time' kind of date is polysemous in terms of a particular day and month (on a letter), an arranged meeting time (an appointment), a social meeting (with someone we like), and even a person (that person we like).

### **Topic- 157: Metonymy**

Metonymy is another type of relationship between words based simply on a close connection in everyday experience.

- A container–contents relation (bottle/water, can/juice)
- A whole–part relation (car/wheels, house/roof).
- A representative–symbol relationship (king/crow.
- The President/the White House).

Using one of these words to refer to the other is metonymy.

- He had the whole can.
- We also accept the White House has announced ...
- Downing Street protested...
- Filling up the car,
- Answering the door,
- Boiling a kettle,
- Giving someone a hand,
- Needing some wheels

Metonymy meanings are highly conventionalized and easy to interpret. However, making sense of such expressions often depends on context, background knowledge and inference.

The strings are too quiet (music etc.).

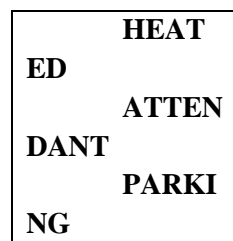
I prefer cable (regarding TV channels).

**Lesson-28****PRAGMATICS I****Topic- 158: Definition****Introduction**

Pragmatics is the study of meaning in context. This branch of linguistics is concerned with the relationship of sentences to the environment in which they occur is categorized. The communication depends on not only recognizing the meaning of the words in an utterance, but also to interpret what speakers mean to say. The study of what speakers mean is called pragmatics.

**Topic- 159: Invisible Meaning**

Pragmatics is the study of “invisible” meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn’t actually said or written. A lot of shared assumptions and expectations exist when people try to communicate.



We can park a car in this place, that it’s a heated area, and that there will be an attendant to look after the car. Our interpretation of the ‘meaning’ of the sign is not based solely on the words, but on what we think the writer intended to communicate. We are actively involved in creating an interpretation of what we read and hear.

**Topic- 160: No Text Without Context**

There are some very common words in our language that cannot be interpreted at all if we do not know the context, especially the physical context of the speaker. These are words such as here and there, this or that, now and then, yesterday, today or tomorrow, as well as pronouns such as you, me, her, him, it, and them. Some sentences of English are virtually impossible to understand if we do not know who is speaking, about whom, where and when. Look at the following sentence:

You’ll have to bring it back tomorrow because she isn’t here today.

It contains a large number of expressions (you, it, tomorrow, she, here, today) that rely on knowledge of the immediate physical context for their interpretation (i.e., that the delivery driver will have to return on February 15 to 660 College Drive with the long box labeled ‘flowers, handle with care’ addressed to Ms. Ruby). Expressions such as tomorrow and here are obvious examples of bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker’s intended meaning.

**Topic- 161: Linguistic Context**

There are different kinds of context. One kind is described as linguistic context, also known as co-text. The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence. The surrounding co-text has a strong effect on what we think the word probably means. We identified the word 'bank' as a homonym, a single form with more than one meaning; how do we usually know which meaning is intended in a particular sentence?

We normally interpret on the basis of linguistic context. If the word bank is used in a sentence together with words like steep or overgrown, we have no problem deciding which type of bank is meant. Or, if we hear someone say that she has to get to the bank to withdraw some cash, we know from this linguistic context which type of bank is intended.

**Topic- 162: Physical Context**

The physical context is the location of the given word, the situation in which it is used, as well as timing, all of which aid proper understanding of the word. (E.g., furniture and how it is arranged, size of the room, colors, temperature, time of day, etc.) If we see the word 'BANK' on the wall of a building in a city, the physical contexts will influence our interpretation. We should keep in mind that it is not the actual physical situation 'out there' that constitutes the communication events rather the relevant context in our mental representation of those aspects help to arrive us at an interpretation of the given word.

**Topic- 163: Social Cultural Context**

Socio-cultural context refers to the idea that language is closely linked to the culture and society in which it is used. This means when language is learnt, the socio-cultural context in which it is used needs to be taken into consideration as well. Social-Cultural context still includes factors such as illiteracy rate, population geographic distribution, educational level and the populations' ethnic composition. All of these factors can influence the organization's performance, affecting its productivity level and product's quality patterns.

**Social context**

- Particular social background
- Social status

**Cultural context**

- cultural setting
- cultural backgrounds
- Style, subject matter, and attitudes

Activities that can raise awareness of socio-cultural context include using stories, analyzing newspaper headlines, and looking at slang and idiomatic language.

## Lesson-29

## PRAGMATICS II

**Topic- 164: Deixis/Deictic Expressions**

A deictic expression (or deixis) is a word or phrase (such as this, that, these, those, now, then) that points to the time, place, or situation in which a speaker is speaking. The bits of language that we can only understand in terms of the speaker's intended meaning. They are technically known as deictic (/daɪktɪk/) expressions, from the Greek word deixis, which means "pointing" via language.

**Person deixis:** To point to things (it, this, these boxes) and people (him, them, those idiots).

**Spatial deixis:** To point to a location (here, there, near that)

**Temporal deixis:** To a time (now, then, last week)

All these deictic expressions have to be interpreted in terms of which person; place or time the speaker has in mind. We make a broad distinction between what is marked as close to the speaker (this, here, now) and what is distant (that, there, then). Movement is away from the speaker's location (go) or toward the speaker's location (come).

- Here she comes!
- There she goes!

People can actually use deixis to have some fun.

- Free drink tomorrow

**Topic- 165: Person Deixis**

Deixis is the phenomena of requiring contextual information to create the meaning of a phrase. The term of 'deixis' is used from the Greek word which means 'to show' or 'to indicate', used to denote the elements in a language which refer directly to the situation. It stipulates what a deictic reference to the participant role of a referent is such as: -

- The Speaker: The utterer of a message. Deictic center of his/her own deictic references
- The addressee: The listener of a message
- The Referents: Neither speaker nor the addressee, might present there but not addresses directly

The deictic center is a reference point in relation to which a deictic expression is to be interpreted. The deictic center is also most typically the present time, location, participant role and so forth of speaker. So, the speaker, the actual location and actual time of the utterance are respectively, the deictic center for the interpretation of 'I', 'here', 'now', e.g., 'I am here now'.

What is a participant role? This highlights the relation that people have to each other with regards to their involvement in a speech event, e.g., What is an addressee? What is an audience? What is a speaker? What is a target? etc. Person Deixis concerns with encoding of the role of participants in the speech event in which the utterance in question is delivered.

Basic three-part divisions are:

- First person
- Second person
- Third person

A deictic reference indicates a referent not identified as the speaker or the addressee and usually implies the gender that the utterance refers to. The term “deixis” becomes more and more metaphoric, ambiguous and vague since it is used for many semantically different situations. Pragmatic meaning is determined by the context; in this case deictic reference, the crucial contextual element is the point of origin of the utterance. In an exchange of dialogue like:

A- When will you be back?

B- I should be back by eight but you know what buses are like.

These uses of language pick out a person, a place and a time which can only be determined by the context in which it took place.

### **Topic- 166: Place Deixis**

Place deixis are also known as space deixis, concerns itself with the spatial locations relevant to an utterance. Similarly to person deixis, the locations may be either those of the speaker and addressee or those of persons or objects being referred to. Similarly to person deixis, the locations may be either those of the speaker and addressee or those of persons or objects being referred to. The most salient English examples are the adverbs ‘here’ and ‘there’, and the demonstratives ‘this’ and ‘that’ - although those are far from being the only deictic words. Some examples:

- I enjoy living in this city.
- Here we will place the statue.
- She was sitting over there.

Place deictic terms are generally understood to be relative to the location of the speaker, as in: ‘The shop is across the street.’ Where ‘across the street’ is understood to mean ‘across the street from where I am right now’.

It is interesting to note that although ‘here’ and ‘there’ are often used to refer to locations near to and far from the speaker, respectively, ‘there’ can also refer to the location of the addressee, if they are not in the same location as the speaker.

Here is a good spot; it is too sunny over there. It exemplifies the former usage,

How is the weather there? It is an example of the latter.

### **Deictic Projection:**

In some contexts, spatial deixis is used metaphorically rather than physically, i.e., the speaker is not speaking as the deictic centre. For example:

I am coming home now.

The above utterance would generally be considered as the speaker's expression of his/her going home, yet it appears to be perfectly normal for one to project his physical presence to his home rather than

away from home. Two-way referential distinction in their deictic system: proximal, i.e., near or closer to the speaker; and distal, i.e., far from the speaker and/or closer to the addressee.

This and that, here and there, etc. as place deixis are the expression used to show the location relative to the location of a participant in the speech event.

### **Topic- 167: Time Deixis**

Time, or temporal, deixis concerns itself with the various times involved in and referred to in an utterance. This includes time adverbs like ‘now’, ‘then’, ‘soon’, and so forth, and also different tenses. The ‘tomorrow’ of a day last year was a different day from the ‘tomorrow’ of a day next week. Time adverbs can be relative to the time when an utterance is made the ‘encoding time’ or ET or when the utterance is heard ‘decoding time’, or DT.

Although these are frequently the same time, they can differ, as in the case of prerecorded broadcasts or correspondence. For example, if one were to write:

- It is raining now, but I hope when you read this it will be sunny.

Tenses are generally separated into absolute (deictic) and relative tenses.

- He went.
- He had gone.

The basic time of temporal deixis in English language is in the choice of verb tense.

English has only two basic forms, the present and the past:

- I live here now.
- I lived there then.
- This/last/next Monday/week/month/year.
- Now, then, ago, later, soon, before.
- Yesterday, today, tomorrow.

Time deixis is an expression in relation to the certain point of time when the utterance is produced by the speaker.

### **Topic- 168: Reference**

Words are used to refer to people, places and times. Reference is an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something. To perform an act of reference, we can use proper nouns, other nouns in phrases or pronouns. We sometimes assume that these words identify someone or something uniquely, but it is more accurate to say that, for each word or phrase, there is a ‘range of reference’. The words Jennifer or friend or she can be used to refer to many entities in the world. Reference depends on who is using it. We can also refer to things when we are not sure what to call them. We can use expressions such as the ‘blue thing’ and ‘that sticky stuff’ and we can even invent names. A brand name for a motorcycle may be used to refer to a person who rides it.

### **Topic- 169: Inference**

A successful act of reference depends more on the listener’s ability to recognize what we mean than on the listener’s ‘dictionary’ knowledge of a word we use.



- Where is the spinach salad sitting?
- He is sitting by the door.
- Can I look at your Chomsky?
- Sure, it is on the shelf over there.

It is clear that names associated with things (salad) may refer to people, and names of people (Chomsky) to refer to things. The key process here is called inference. An inference is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant. The listener has to operate with the inference:

‘If X is the name of the writer of a book, then X can be used to identify a copy of a book by that writer’.

Similar types of inferences are necessary to understand someone who says that Picasso is in the museum or we saw Shakespeare in London or Jennifer is wearing Calvin Klein.

## Lesson-30

**PRAGMATICS III****Topic- 170: Anaphora**

The use of a word referring back to a word used earlier in a text or conversation, to avoid repetition, for example, the pronouns he, she, it, and they and the verb do.

- I like it, and so do they.
- We saw a funny home video about a boy washing a puppy in a small bath. The puppy started struggling and shaking and the boy got really wet. When he let go, it jumped out of the bath and ran away.

Referential relationship, the second (or subsequent) referring expression is an example of anaphora ('referring back'). The first mention is called the antecedent.

A boy, a puppy and a small bath are antecedents

The puppy, the boy, he, it and the bath are 'anaphoric expressions'.

Anaphora can be defined as subsequent reference to an already introduced entity. The connection between an antecedent and an anaphoric expression is created by the use of a pronoun (it), or a phrase with 'the' plus the antecedent noun (the puppy) or another noun that is related to the antecedent in some way (The little dog ran out of the room). The connection between antecedents and anaphoric expressions is often based on inference.

- We found a house to rent, but the kitchen was very small.
- I caught a bus and asked the driver if it went near the downtown area.
- If X is a house, then X has a kitchen.

**Topic- 171: Presupposition**

What a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as a presupposition. A presupposition is an implicit assumption about the world or background belief relating to an utterance whose truth is taken for granted in discourse. Examples of presuppositions include:

When did you stop smoking?

**Presuppositions:** You used to smoke. You no longer do so.

Built-in presuppositions are very useful devices for interrogators or trial lawyers.

Okay, Mr. Buckingham, how fast were you going when you ran the red light?

- Did you eat the cheese?
- Presupposition: There was some cheese.
- Your brother is waiting outside.
- Presupposition: You have a brother.

Presupposition concerns inferences related to the use of linguistic expressions but also affected by the context in which they are used.

**Topic- 172: Constancy under Negation Test**

One of the tests used to check for the presuppositions underlying sentences involves negating a sentence with a particular presupposition and checking if the presupposition remains true.

- My car is a wreck. (or the negative version)
- My car is not a wreck.

The underlying presupposition (I have a car.) remains true despite the fact that the two sentences have opposite meanings. This is called the 'constancy under negation' test for identifying a presupposition.

- Your dog is lovely.
- Your dog is not lovely.
- Presupposition: You have a dog.
- John does not regret having failed the exams.
- John regrets having failed the exams.
- Presupposition: John failed the exams.
- I used to regret marrying her, but I do not regret marrying her now.

The presupposition (I married her) remains constant even though the verb regret changes from affirmative to negative.

**Topic- 173: Speech Acts**

A speech act is an utterance that has performative function in language and communication. "Almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention. This is the act of saying something; what one is saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience". The term speech act is used to describe actions such as 'requesting', 'commanding', 'questioning' or 'informing'. We can define a speech act as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance.

I'll be there at six.

You are not just speaking; you seem to be performing the speech act of 'promising'. Speech acts can be analyzed on three levels:

**A locutionary act:** The performance of an utterance: the actual utterance and its ostensible meaning, comprising phonetic, phatic and rhetic acts corresponding to the verbal, syntactic and semantic aspects of any meaningful utterance.

**An illocutionary act:** The pragmatic 'illocutionary force' of the utterance, thus its intended significance as a socially valid verbal action.

**Perlocutionary act:** Its actual effect, such as persuading, convincing, scaring, enlightening, inspiring, or otherwise getting someone to do or realize something, whether intended or not.

**Topic- 174: Direct Speech Acts**

A direct relationship between the structure and the communicative function of the utterance is called direct speech act.

We do not know something.

We ask someone to provide the information.

Can you ride a bicycle?

**Topic- 175: Indirect Speech Acts**

It means that there is an indirect relationship between the form and the function of the utterance. 'Can you pass the salt'? This structure is not really asking a question about someone's ability. It is used to make a request. An indirect speech act is a syntactic structure associated with the function of a question, but in this case with the function of a request. Whenever one of the structures in the example above is used to perform a function other than the one listed beside it on the same line, the result is an indirect speech act. The sentence 'You left the door open' is a request for closing the door. Failing to recognize another person's indirect speech act can create confusion:

Visitor: excuse me. Do you know where the ambassador hotel is?

Passer-by: oh sure, I know where it is. (and walks away)

Indirect speech acts are based on some complex social assumptions. They were actually used as requests for directions. Indirect speech acts seem to be that actions such as requests, presented in an indirect way are generally considered to be gentler or more polite in our society than direct speech acts:

Could you open that door for me?

Open that door for me!

**Lesson-31****DISCOURSE ANALYSIS I****Topic- 176: Definition**

The big favour and the small favour:

‘Do me a favour’. is an instance of small favour so there is a small pause.

Can you do me a favour, hand me that pencil’. No pause at all.

Big favors are,

‘Could you do me a favour’ ...

‘Yeah ? What? Well’ .

The longer it takes them to get to it, the bigger the pain it is going to be. Some of the most interesting observations are made, not in terms of the components of language, but in terms of the way language is used, even how pauses are used. We were, in effect, asking how it is that language-users successfully interpret what other language-users intend to convey. When we carry this investigation further and ask the following:

- How we make sense of what we read?
- How we can recognize well-constructed texts as opposed to those that are jumbled or incoherent?
- How we understand speakers who communicate more than they say?
- And how we successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation?

We are undertaking what is known as discourse analysis. Discourse analysts not only study language use ‘beyond the sentence boundary’ but also prefer to analyze naturally occurring language use, not invented examples.

**Topic- 177: The Origins of Discourse Analysis**

The term discourse analysis was first employed by Zelling Harris as the name for ‘a method for the analysis of the connected speech or writing for continuing descriptive linguistics beyond the limit of a single sentence at a time and for correlating culture and language’ (Harris, 1952). The word ‘discourse’ is usually defined as ‘language beyond the sentence’ and so the analysis of discourse is typically concerned with the study of language in texts and conversation.

As language-users, we are capable of more than simply recognizing correct versus incorrect forms and structures. We can cope with fragments in newspaper headlines such as: Trains collide; two die, and know that what happened in the first part was the cause of what happened in the second part.

We have the ability to create complex discourse interpretations of fragmentary linguistic messages. Discourse analysis is the study of how stretches of language used in communication assume meaning, purpose, and unity for their users.

**Topic- 178: Critical Discourse Analysis**

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political and historical contexts. Fairclough (1993) defines CDA as discourse analysis, which aims to explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes.

Critical Discourse Analysis aims to help reveal some of the hidden and 'out of sight' values, positions, and perspectives. CDA explores the connection between the use of language and the social and political of language contexts in which it occurs. Some principles for CDA:

- a. Social and political issues are constructed and reflected in discourse
- b. Power relations are negotiated and performed through discourse.
- c. Discourse both reflects and reproduces social relations
- d. Ideologies are produced and reflected in the use of discourse.

**Topic- 179: Interpreting Discourse**

Discourse Analysis—what speakers do in conversation-- is the analysis of language 'beyond the sentence'. But taking them together as a single discourse makes you go back and revise your interpretation of the first sentence after you've read the second. Even coping with texts, written in English, breaking a lot of the rules of the English language is possible to interpret. Rather than simply reject the text as ungrammatical, we try to make sense of it. Look at the example:

'My natal was in a small town, very close to Riyadh capital of Saudi Arabia. The distance between my town and Riyadh is seven miles exactly. Its name is Al masani that means in English Factories. It takes this name from the people's carrier. In my childhood I remember the people live there were very simple. Most of the people were farmer.'

The key elements investigated in the study of discourse are: the effort to interpret (or to be interpreted) and how we accomplish it. We certainly rely on what we know about linguistic form and structure. As language-users, we have more knowledge than that.

**Topic- 180: Cohesion**

Cohesion is the grammatical and lexical linking within a text or sentence that holds a text together and gives it meaning. It is related to the broader concept of coherence. The structure depends on factors quite different from those required in the structure of a single sentence. Some of those factors are described in terms of cohesion, or the ties and connections within the texts.

'My father once bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he sold it to help pay for my college education. Sometimes I think I would rather have the convertible.'

- Connections to maintain reference to the same people and things throughout: father – he – he – he; my – my – I; Lincoln – it
- Connections between phrases such as: a Lincoln convertible – that car – the convertible.
- More general connections created by a number of terms that share a common element of meaning, such as ‘money’ (bought–saving–penny–worth a fortune–sold– pay)
- ‘Time’ (once – nowadays – sometimes).
- A connector (However) that marks the relationship of what follows to what went before.

The verb tenses in the first four sentences are all in the past. A different time is indicated by the present tense of the final sentence. An appropriate number of cohesive ties may be a crucial factor in our judgments on whether something is well written or not. Cohesive structure differs from one language to the next. Cohesion alone is not sufficient to enable connectedness. There must be some other factors that lead us to distinguish connected texts that make sense from those that do not.

### **Topic- 181: Coherence**

Coherence is the key to the concept ‘everything fitting together well’. It is beyond the text that exists in people, not in words or structures. It is people who ‘make sense’ of what they read and hear. People arrive at an interpretation that is in line with their experiences, the way the world is. Coherence is the own understanding of something based on personal experiences. It is a way to incorporate all the disparate elements into a single coherent interpretation, and a process of filling the gaps that exist in the conversation or in the texts. Coherence creates meaningful connections not actually expressed by the words. The process not restricted to trying to understand “odd” texts. In conversational interactions a great deal of what is meant is not actually present in what is said.

HER: That’s the telephone.

HIM: I’m in the bath.

HER: O.K.

She makes a request of him to perform action.

He states reason why he cannot comply with request.

She undertakes to perform action.

To understand the conversation one requires a reasonable analysis of what took place in the conversation, then it is clear that language-users must have a lot of knowledge of how conversation works that is not simply “linguistic” knowledge.