

History of English Language and Linguistics

II M.A English Literature

III Semester

Name of the Staff: S. Guru Shobana

Assistant Professor: Department of English

Holy Cross Home Science College, Thoothukudi

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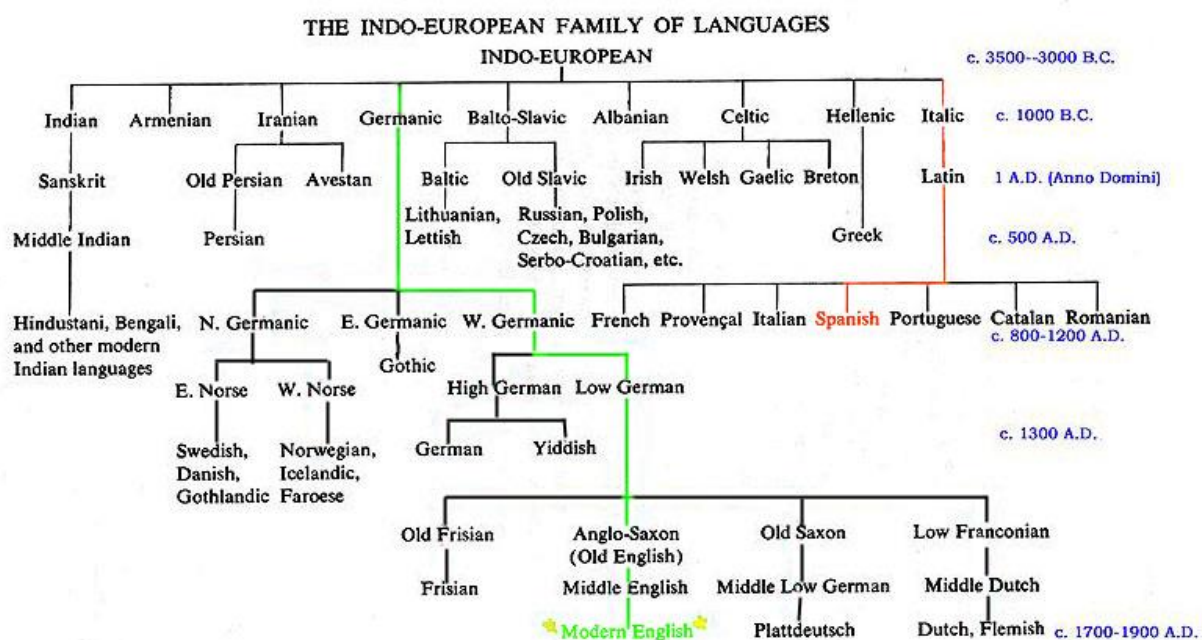
UNIT-1

The Descent of the English Language

Indo- European Family of Languages

The Indo European is the name given to an original homogenous language from which nearly all the languages of Europe, Persian and a large part of India are believed to have descended. The Indo European parent language was spoken by nomadic tribes which wandered on the lands around the Black Sea and even went to the steps of Siberia in the period between 3000 1500 BC. These tribes split into various groups which moved off in different direction in the continent of Euro Asia. Each group took the parent language with it and the language developed along different lines. Thus in the course of years several different dialects of the parent Indo European arose. By 200 BC the Indo European has split into 8 distinct language groups or dialects. In course of time each of these got subdivided and this process was repeated down the ages. Thus we have a number of languages like English, German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, French, Italian, Greek, the north Indian languages etc. which may be traced back to a common ancestor.

The Eight branches of the Indo European parent languages are Indo Aryan, Armenian, Albanian, Balto Slavonic, Greek, italic, Germanic and Celtic. Old English has descended from the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages. The eight branches of the Indo European can be classified into two groups — An Eastern Group and Western Group. The classification based on differences in grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary of the two groups. The eastern group is called Satem Group and the Western Group is called Centum Group. (Satem is the word for hundred in Sanskrit and Centum is the word for hundred in Latin)



- Centum and Satem Group
- Eight Groups
- Romance Languages
- Decent of English

INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES

There are eleven Indo-European groups of languages of which two groups of languages Anatolian and Tocharian extinct. The remaining nine groups exist.

INDIAN

The Indo-European language in the Indian context is Sanskrit and Prakrit. Sanskrit is representing the literary language. The Prakrit is accounting for dialects. The earliest of the Sanskrit division is Vedic Sanskrit. It prevailed between 2000B.C. and 1500B.C. It is the language of the four Vedas. A strong grammatical system in Sanskrit evolved in 4th century B.C. it helped the language to attain literary status. This is called Classical Sanskrit. Sanskrit is held as the mother of all north Indian languages and the language of Lanka-Sinhalese. In the 6th Century B.C. Pali, a Prakrit dialect rose to literary status. From the Prakrit dialects a number of North Indian and Pakistani languages evolved. A mixture of Arabic and Persian is called Hindustani. Romany is the language of the gypsies of the north-west India. During the course of their nomadic ventures around 5th century A.D. they carried it to the various parts of the world.

IRANIAN

Today's Iran is formerly known as Old Persian region. There evolved two languages A) Old Persian B) Zend. The nomadic north Indian population mixed up with the Persians. Together evolved to the central parts of China and then to the Southern parts of the Russian region. Then they mingled up with the Latvians. Then the features of Sanskrit entered Lettic. Afghan Pushtu, Beluchi, Kurdish and a host of dialects account for the linguistic varieties in the Iranian group.

ARMENIAN

Initially it was thought that the Armenian language was a part of the Iranian group. Later it was understood that it is an independent language of the Indo-European family. Old Armenian is the language of the Christian scripture. It is known as literary Armenian. It is known to the outside world from the 5th century A.D. onwards. It has similarities with Iranian. There is no grammatical gender in the language. It prevails in the region between the south of Caucasus mountains and the Eastern end of the Black sea.

AKBANIAN

It is known to the outside world from the 17th century A.D. This is the language of ancient Illyria. It is spoken in the region North west of Greece. This language is of mixed character with Latin, Turkish, Greek and Slovene. Its southern variation is known as Gheg. Its northern variation is Tosk.

BALTO-SLAVIC

Prussian, Lettic and Lithuanian are Baltic languages. Prussian extinct. There is an inter relatedness between Lettic and Sanskrit. The Slavic languages have two groups the south eastern and western. Russians, Bulgarian and Illyria belong to the South eastern group. Czech or Boemian, Polish, Serbian or Slovene belong to the western group.

ITALIC

The Latin dialect belongs to this group. It is the literary language of ancient Rome. It is known to us from about 300 B.C. there were some other languages in the Italian region. They are Ligurian, Etruscan, Messapian, Oscan, Venetic and Umbrian. Since the Romans were dominant, their language Latin was also dominant. There are two variations in Latin. They are 1. Vulgar, 2. Classical. French, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese were born of vulgar Latin.

CELTIC

The Celtic population was spread in Spain, Portugal, France, West Germany, Northern Italy and England. The Celtic Branch includes three groups. A) the Gallic: it is little known to us through names quoted by Greek and Latin authors or through inscriptions and coins. B) the Brittonic: it includes the Welsh, the Cornish and the language spoken in North West France. C) the Gaelic: it includes the Irish, the Scotch, the Gaelic and the language spoken in the north of Ireland.

GERMANIC/TEUTONIC

English language belongs to this branch together with German, Dutch, Finnish and the Scandinavian languages. The oldest representative of this branch is Gothic. It is preserved partial translation of the Bible by Bishop Ulfilas who lived from 310 A.D to 381 A.D. Old Norse is Scandinavian. It was a single speech until 1000 A.D. Frisian is known from the 14th century AD. The other languages under this group date from the seventh to ninth centuries. From the above information it is clear that English is a member of the Indo-European family. It belongs to the Germanic Teutonic group. It was introduced into Britain by nomadic tribes from Germany. It is essentially a Low German dialect. We could not use the terms English or England in connection with the language before the mid of the fifteenth century.

OLD English (600 - 1100 AD)

Grimm's Law (The. First Consonant Shift)

The consonant system of the Indo-European language has a rich array of stop consonants. This system underwent great changes in the Germanic group of languages. Erasmus Rask, a Danish scholar studied these changes and arrived at the conclusion that the changes were systematic and in accordance with a certain law of change. Jacob Grimm, a German philologist analyzed these changes and formulated an explanation in the form of a law. It is also called the first consonant shift to distinguish it from a later series of changes which took place in Old High German.

The following are the various changes brought under Grimm's Law.

The Indo-European voiceless stops /p/,/t/,/k/ became voiceless fricatives /f/,/ö/ and /h

1.IE/P/ > Germanic /f/

Eg: Latin Pater >English father

Latin Pes >English foot

2.IE /t/ > Germanic /ö/

Eg: Latin Pater > English father

Latin tres > English three

3.IE /k/ > Germanic /h/

Eg: Lain caput> English head

Lain cor > English heart

II. Indo-European voiced stop consonants /b/,/d/ and /g/ became voiceless stops /p/,/t/ and /k/ in Germanic

1. IE /b/ Germanic /p/

Eg: Latin labum > English lip

Latin bursa > English purse

2.IE /d/ > Germanic /t/

Eg: Latin decem > English ten

Latin edo > English eat

3.IE /g/ > Germanic /k/

Eg: Latin ager > English acre

Latin genu > English knee

Indo-European aspirates /bh/, /dh/ and /gh/ became voiced stops /b/, /d/, and /g/ in Germanic

IE /bh/ Germanic /b/

Eg: Sanskrit bhrata > English brother

Sanskrit bharami > English bear

IE /dh/ Germanic /d/

Eg: Sanskrit Madhya > English middle

Sanskrit bandhanam > English bind

IE /gh/ Germanic /g/

Eg: Sanskrit dirgha > English long

Sanskrit vyaghram > English tiger

These changes can be represented as follows

bh	b	p	f
dh	d	t	th
gh	g	k	h

After Grimm had formulated the law regarding the change of certain IE consonants, it was noted that there are certain exception to Grimm's Law which were subsequently explained by the Danish Philologist Karl Verner. This law formulated by Karl Verner is known as Verner's Law. It was noticed that between such a pair of words as Latin 'centum' and English 'Hundred', the correspondence between k and h was

according to rule, but that between t and d was not. The t in English should have been 'th'. Verner showed that the change of t to d was caused by a change in the place of the accent. He explained that when the Indo-European accent was not on the vowel immediately preceding the consonant, such voiceless consonants became voiced in Germanic. This explanation was of great importance in accounting for the forms of the past participle in many strong verbs.

In Old English the past tense (singular) of 'cwethan' (to say) is 'cawth', but the past participle is 'cewdan'. So also the past tense of 'weorthan' (to become) is 'wearth' but the past participle is 'worden'. In the past participle the accent is on the vowel after the consonant. This is why the 'th' has been voiced to 'd'.

Verner's Law

Verner's Law is of great significance because it vindicates the claim of regularity for the sound changes which Grimm's Law attempted to define.

Mutation (Umlaut)

Mutation (Umlaut) is the term applied to certain changes in vowels that took place in Old English during the early Anglo-Saxon period. The word Mutation means 'change'. The process is also known as i-mutation, because the change was caused by the vowel 'i' (or sometimes 'j') Mutation may be defined as the process by which vowels in accented syllables were modified through the influence of an 'i' or 'j' subsequently disappearing. The plural of tooth (teeth) may be taken as an illustration for the process of mutation. In Old English the word for tooth was *tod* and the plural was *tööiz*. The 'i' in the second syllable influenced the 'o' in the first syllable (accented syllable) and changed it to e, so that the plural became *téöiz* then the 'i' and 'z' disappeared. Thus the word became *teeth*. Similarly Old English *föt* formed from its plural through mutation.

Mutated Abstract Nouns: In Old English, an abstract noun was formed from an adjective by the addition of an ending 'iöu'. Thus the adjective for Old English language was 'langiöu' (length). By the influence of the 'i' in the 2nd syllable, the 'a' in the first syllable changed to 'e'. So that 'langiöu' becomes 'lengö'. In the same way we have abstract nouns like strength (adjective strong).

Mutated Verbs: Certain verbs in Old English formed their infinitives by the addition of the suffix -jan to a noun. Thus the word for 'to feed' was 'fodjan'. But due to the influence of 'j' in the 2nd syllable, the vowel 'o' changed to e, so that the verb became *fédan* (feed).

- Old English Dialects (Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, Kentish)
- Old English Grammar
- Pronunciation and Spelling

- Vocabulary (Indo European, Celtic, Latin, Scandinavian) Latin Loan Words during Old English
- The Scandinavian/ Norse/ Danish (Vikings) element in English
- Anglo Saxon Element

Middle English Period (1100-1500 AD)

- Middle English Dialects (Northern, East Midland, West Midland and Southern)
- Middle English Grammar
- Pronunciation and Spelling
- Vocabulary

French Loan Words in Middle English

The influence of French on English was so great that there is nothing comparable to it in the previous history of the language. The number of French words that poured into English was unbelievably great. The Normans considered themselves to be politically, socially and culturally superior to the English men. Most of the loan words reflect the political, social and cultural dominance of the French over the English. The French loan words can be grouped into different categories.

Titles of Rank came mostly from French. These include words like sovereign, prince, duke, duchess, baron, baroness, marquis, count, countess, peer, squire etc.

Many words connected with Administration and Government were also borrowed from French. Government, govern, administer, crown, state, parliament, assembly, minister, mayor, council, chancellor, majesty, empire, nation, people, country etc.

The law courts in early Middle English period were conducted in French and as a result of this many legal terms were introduced into English from French. Judge, judgment, justice, jury, advocate, attorney, plaintiff, defendant, petition, complaint, bill, summons, inquest, bail, proof, evidence, verdict, sentence, punishment, prison etc.

Many words related to church and religion were also borrowed from French since many of the ecclesiastical posts were given to French men. Examples are religion, service, savior, virgin, saint, cathedral, chapel, parish, convent, friar, clergy, pray, prayer, sermon, baptism, communion etc.

The Normans were good fighters and many of the military terms have come from French. Examples are army, navy, war, peace, soldier, enemy, lieutenant, captain, general, battle, armour, siege, garrison, guard, spy, sergeant, corporal etc.

A variety of new words borrowed from French suggest the innovations made by the French in the domestic and social life of the English people. Words like chair, couch, cushion, curtain, blanket, quilt, towel, basin, screen, lamp, and chandelier indicate articles of comfort in domestic life.

Many words related to meals and cooking were also borrowed from French. Examples are dinner, supper, feast, mutton, beef, pork, sausage, gruel, soup, toast, biscuit, cream, salad, pastry, tart, jelly, confection and verbs like fry, roast, boil, parboil, stew, grate, mince etc.

In the case of occupations which are fundamental English words were used like ploughman, fisherman, weaver, smith etc. But the names of occupations connected with life of the more refined and better off classes were French. Examples: Tailor painter, mason, carpenter, jeweler, draper etc.

Words related to art, learning and medicine: The cultured and intellectual impress of the ruling classes are reflected in words related to art, learning and medicine which were borrowed from French. The words related to art are art, painting, colour, design, sculpture, figure, image, music, tone etc. The words related to learning are literature, prose, poet, story, chronicle, tragedy, prologue, preface, title, volume, chapter, paper, pen, study, grammar, logic, geometry etc. Words related to Medicine are medicine, physician, surgeon, anatomy, malady, debility, pain, plague etc.

There are French words existing side by side with English words. They are generally synonyms. But the French words are more formal whereas the English words are more homely.

English	French
Child	infant
Ask	demand
Begin	commence etc

Modern English Period (From 1500

- The Renaissance
- The Reformation
- Caxton and Printing Press

No other word except Shakespeare's had so much influence on the phraseology of the English language as the Authorized Version of the Bible and the earlier Bible translations, particularly those of Tyndale and Coverdale. The fact that the Bible had been the most widely read and most frequently quoted to all English books has made its phraseology enter into the speech of the multitudes of English speakers with ease and rapidity. The translations like those of Wycliffe and Purvey were made before the invention of printing and so they were restricted in circulation. Hence the novelties of expression contained in them did not influence the language, as did the expression in the later translation.

To Coverdale, the English language is indebted for such beautiful expressions as 'loving kindness', 'tender mercV', 'the valley of the shadow of death', 'the avenger of blood' etc. Tyndale (1484-1568) who had an eye for the telling word and apt phrase has coined words and phrases like 'felted calf', 'long suffering', 'peace maker', 'stumbling block', 'day spring' etc. besides giving wide currency to the now familiar word 'beautiful' by using it in his translation of Bible. The word 'scapegoat' is Tyndale's mistranslation of the Hebrew word. But it has become a very useful and suggestive word in the vocabulary of English today. As Tyndale had a great genius for telling phrases and idiomatic rendering, a vast deal of his phraseology was taken over, without change, by the compilers of the Authorized Version. Now familiar phrases 'eat, drink and be merry', 'the burden and heat of the day', 'the powers that be', occurring in the Authorized Version were of Tyndale's coinage.

Most people expect the language of sacred truths to be a little archaic, a little removed from the familiar, everyday usage. The Authorized Version has also preserved some of the archaic words, which would otherwise have become obsolete by now. Among them are words like raiment, apparel, firmament, damsel etc.

While it is true that phrases, used with conscious allusion to scriptural incidents occur in all European Languages. They are far more frequent in English than in the language of any other Roman Catholic country, where the Bible is directly familiar only to the learned. In English there are many expressions which refer to incidents in the Bible, which are easily understood by the speakers of English. Eg: 'Noah's arc', 'a painted jezebel', 'the Benjamin of the familV', 'a perfect babbler', 'a leviathan ship' etc.

Many of the biblical phrases which are actually literal renderings of Hebrew or Greek expressions have now come to assume the character of native English idioms and are often used without any consciousness of their origin. Among these may be mentioned expressions like, 'a howling wilderness', 'to cast pearls before the swine', 'a labour of love', 'the eleventh hour' and 'to hope against hope'

Thus the various translations of the Bible have greatly enhanced the English Vocabulary. The translations by Wycliffe, Tyndale, Coverdale and the Authorized Version of the Bible have made the language richer than it was before.

The Great Vowel Shift

Among the sound changes that occurred in early Modern English period, the most important is the Great Vowel Shift. The Great Vowel Shift relates to the series of changes that Middle English Vowel sounds underwent in Modern English. The changes in Modern English began to take place in the 14th century and were probably spread over the next few centuries. It is possible to detect two general tendencies in the development of the vowels.

The long vowels gradually came to be pronounced with a greater elevation of the tongue

Those which could not be raised became diphthongs.

The following changes occurred as a result of the Great Vowel Shift.

bite /i:/ /aɪ/

meet /e:/ /i:/

meat /ɛ:/

mate /a:/ /eɪ/

out /u:/ /aʊ/

boot /o:/ /u:/

boat /ɔ:/ /oʊ/

There were relatively little changes in the short vowels. However in the 17th century a change took place in short 'u'. In some words, 'u' changed into 'A' as in cut, nut, but etc. In certain words the 'u' sound was retained due to the influence of the neighbouring consonants. Eg: pull bull, push, put etc.

The linguistic importance of the Great Vowel Shift is that it accounts for the great disparity between spelling and pronunciation in English, since the series of vowel changes were not accompanied by simultaneous changes in spelling.

UNIT-2

FRENCH ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH

The impact of French on English is great because it entered thrice into England during the Norman French, Parisian-French, and Modern Times. The first two phases pertain to the Middle English period. The linguistic domination of Anglo-Saxon started waning due to the conquest of Duke William of Normandy over England. The Normans became the administrative machinery in England. Norman habits, customs, fashion and culture started during the English folk.

French is nothing but a localized Latin. So many Latin words underwent many transformations before becoming French. Thus the Latin words lost their original character.

Norman-French Words

The entry of Normans resulted in the assimilation of Norman-French words with some consonantal changes.

The Anglo-Saxon retained the 's' which the Norman had abandoned (i.e) beast, bite, feast.

The Norman 'g' was changed to 'j' as gaol-jail; the English 'ch' was 'sh' in Norman French. But the English retained the 'ch; in Norman words, (chamber, charity etc.)

The English 'i' is retained in the place of French 'ch'. (e.g) caitiff, canker, carrion.

French Entry Period

The French influence pertains to the middle English period under Norman-French and central Parisian French. The Modern English Period deriving benefit from Modern French. The first period is from 1066 until 1204. The next period is from 1204 until 1500.

The third period is from 1500.

Norman Period

The influence of Norman-French have begun the Norman conquest. The entry of Norman French words started soon after 110A.D.

The following English words of French origin are found in the Middle English Chronicle and still in use.

Castle, countess, court, empress, justice, miracle, peace, prison, privilege, procession, rent, standard, tower, treason, treasure, war.

On the Norman occupation England, the Norman became the upper class and the government and bureaucracy came to their control. So Norman-French words entered into English vocabulary they are

Coroune (crow), estat (state), people (people), contree (country), parlement (parliament), concile (council), etc

With the French, Feudalism came to England and words relating to that set-up came to existence. They are,

Princeps (prince), per (peer), due (duke), visconte (viscount) etc.

Adjectives – Court Life

The following adjectives were formed out of terms relating to court life. They are, honor (honour), glorie (glory), nobilis (noble), finis (fine) etc.

Military words

The Normans gradually amalgamated with the Anglo-Saxons. Still they continued to dominate the military, legal and religious set-up. Hence words connected with these entered into Middle English and passed into Modern English. They are,

a) Military Terms

Armata (army), werra (war), bataille (battle), armure (armour), lancea (lance) etc. **b) Legal Terms** jugier (judge), scquita (suit), aatonne (attorney) etc.

c) Religious Terms

Srvitum (service), trinite (trinity),virgine(virgin), clerc (clergy),preiere (prayer), etc. **d) Words of Morallity** merci (mercy), castus (chaste), charite (charity), gratia (grace).

e) Words pf Social Ranks

Sire (sir), Madame (madam),maistre (marster),ordre (order), riche (rich), poure (poor), etc

Norman Surnames

The surname culture is a Romancustom. But it was introduced in England by the

Danes. The Norman gave colourings to the surname culture. Usually the place of birth was fitted after the names of persons (e.g) Martin of Stamford. Artisans and trades people were signified by French terms, butcher, barber, carpenter, draper, mason, tailor.

Words related to Food Terms

The following words related to fooditems were from the Norman-French words.

Beuf (beef), moton (mutton), piz (pork), veneison (vension). Besides these words, the following words. ‘banquet, supper, dinner’ were adopted.

Words of Family Relationship

The following words related to family relationship were used, ‘uncle, aunt, nephew, niece, cousin, grand father, father-in-law, mother-in-law’.

The Parisian/literary French words entered English toward the fag end of the thirteenth and the beginning of the fourteenth century. Chaucer employed Norman-French, Parisian French and East Middle words in his works. During the fifteenth century much of French words were translated into English. It led to Frenchification of Middle English. The Middle English language started acquiring Parisian French words which replaced Norman French words, but the meanings differed.

‘rage’(Norman French wor), ‘mirage’ (Parisian French word).

Feast (NF)

Wine (NF)

Beauty (NF)

Grandeur (NF)

Coy (NF)

Suit (NF)

Fete (PF) ravine (PF), beau (PF), Connoisseur (PF), reservoir (PF), suite (PF)

Dress

Dress, apparel, costume, garment

Art and Architecture

Colour, image, design, ornament, arch, vault, column, chapel, cloister, villa, cottage, emporium, palace, mansion.

Literary Words

Commence, concea, nourish, prevent, search, outer, interior, exterior.

Words relating to Merchandise

Brigade, cache, indigo, machine, moustache, partisan, pilot, vase, volley etc.

17th Century French Words

Corpus (corpo, policie (police), cantine (canteen), brocher(brochure)

19th century French Words

During 19th century words relating to textiles, literature, politics, vehicles, dress, furniture, and military were accommodated into English. As far as English is concerned this century is considered to be the French-rich century.

Textiles

Crepe, suede, reticule

Dress

Blouse, rosette, negligee, beret

Literature, Art and Letters

Cliché, resume, renaissance, matinee, motif etc.

Food and Cooking

Café, menu., restaurant, chef etc.

Social Life

Fiancé, elite, chauffeur, chic etc.

Military and Politics

Barrage, chassis, communiqué, attaché, debacle etc

The two world wars facilitated a flood of French words and phraseologies into English. The French words maintain their pronunciation and stress in English. These words are within the speech among the intellectual elites. But when these words pass into the hands of the commoner then occurs the English pronunciation. (e.g) garage, popularization of French words takes place through magazines and newspapers. (Eg) Revue, vers libre, limousine and camouflage etc and

Cliches and Doublets

Certain English expressions like ivory tower, third world, flea, market etc., are reminders of French expressions. There are many English doublets of provincial French. Loyal/legal, poison/potion, frail/fragile, custom/costume and so on.

LATIN ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH

First the Romans had come to Britain before the birth of Jesus Christ. Then for the second time they had come under the Roman General Septimus Severus after the time of Jesus. There were three great avenues for the Latin impact on the British soil.

- a. When the language influenced the Germanic tribes while they were still in the continent
- b. When the Romans came to Britain and mixed with its original inhabitants, the Brythonic Celts.
- c. When the Germanic tribes Angles, Saxons and Jutes had settled down in Britain.

At the end of 6 A.D, the Romans came with the prime purpose of Christianizing the people. The result was Romanization of England and Latinization of English.

Continental Influence of Latin

In the history of the world, the Roman made a sweep of most of the European countries and the Germans made their way to the Scandinavian region and Britain. Before these exploits the Germans and Romans had relationship with each other. Thus many Latin words entered into the various Germanic dialects. So Latin words relating to agriculture, trade of different articles and products entered into their vocabulary.

Words connected with war

Camp, battle, wall, pit, sheet, mile.

Words connected with Building materials

Chalk, copper, pitch, tile

Words of Mercandise

Chapman, commerce, monger, mint, wine, kettle, table, pillow, kitchen, cup, linen, line, gem, poppy, cherry, butter, onion.

Miscellaneous Words

Emperor, oil, daughter, dragon.

The Germanic tribes came to Britain with these Latin words in Germanic form. These Germanic forms constituted the Anglo-Saxon forms of these Latin words. The Anglo-Saxon words underwent process of changing and finally the words become modern in the form in which they exist today.

2. Assimilation of Latin Words from Celtic

Assimilation of Latin words from Celtic into Anglo-Saxon took place at the far end of the 5th century A.D. the Romans had ruled Britain when the Brython Celts were the sole occupants of the land. Naturally Latin would have swept the linguistic scene, but it was otherwise. Therefore there was no possibility of direct influence of Latin on Anglo-Saxon or Old English. It had taken place through Celtic transmissions. The Latin words had found their way into Celtic and must have been assimilated during the period of Co-existence of the Celts and Anglo-Saxons in England.

The Latin word 'castra' is 'caeter' in Celtic. It means 'camp or town'. It is found in the names of the following English towns. Manchester, Winchester, Lancaster, Gloucester, Worcester etc.

The other words found in English apart from the word are, 'port, mountain, tower, village, street, wine, wall, must'. Latin influence During the period of Christianization. When St. Augustine landed in England in 597 A.D, the old English was limping due to arbitrary grammar, insufficient vocabulary and absence of literature and phonology. He came to England with forty monks and literary scholars to spread Christianity. They began to translate the 'Bible' into Old English. During the process of translation many Latin words entered the Old English language.

Abbot, alms, altar, angel, ark, candle, canon, cleric, deacon, disciple, bishop, manna, minister, mass, church, giant, noon, nun, offer, palm, pope, priest, psalm, shrine, relic, temple.

Christianization of England was a continuous process. A Greek bishop Theodore and Hadrian Aldhelm showed extraordinary interest in spreading Christianity. Learning was encouraged by King Alfred the Great. There were theological writings through classical native scholars Latin words entered in Anglo-Saxon writings.

They are, apostle, prophet, Sabbath, accent, brief, term, title, cucumber, ginger, cedar, express, fig, laurel, cancer, paralysis, plaster, camel, scorpion, tiger, cap, chest, cook, dish, fan, fever, -fiddle, imp, inch, kitchen, linen, nut, mill, mortar, pan, pin, pit, pole, sack, sickle, silk, strap, etc.

The following words were assimilated in their original stage. They are corporals, cathedral, basilica, prologue etc.

Pseudo-Classic Words

New words have been coined with Latin roots (Latin) complacency, basis, exemplary, mechanisation.

Quasi-Classic Words

The inquisitive nature of English writers made them love everything unusual or fanciful with regard to Latin or Greek.

Their coinage of new words were odd. So nobody dared to use them in their regular tongue.

Inquisituriens (Milton), logodaedaly (Coleridge), vocular (Dickens), and nometer (Tennyson), circumbendibus (Goldsmith), hybrids

New thoughts and ideas of Renaissance were conveyed by Latin prefixes and suffixes.

-action - starvation

-ist - feminist

-ite - ruskinite

-ism - funnyism, witticism

-ocracy - shorpocracy, barristerocracy

-ize - womanize, Londonize

-ative - talkative

-aceous - gossipaceous

-iacal - dandiacal

Impact of Latin Grammar on English a) Prepositions

Formation of new words with the help of -ex, -anti, ante, -de with verbs ending with -ize, -inter, -pre, -pro, and -re.

Ex-king, and slavery, intermix, ante nuptial, pre-telegraphic, proforeign. **b) Native Nouns and Latin Adjectives** in English there exist a number of words for which the adjectival forms are Latin.

Mouth -oral, nose -nasal, eye -ocular, house -domestic, moon -lunar, school scholastic

c) Native Adjectives with Latin Adjectives

Use of Latin adjectives remain a word of linguistic snobbery.

Fatherly -paternal, motherly -maternal, sisterly -sororal, brotherly -fraternal, waterly -aquatic, heavenly -celestial, earthly -terrestrial, timely -temporal

d) Use of Compound Nouns Eye ball - ocular globe

Chin nerve -mental nerve Taste nerve -gustatory nerve **e) Plurals**

In English plural is formed by the addition of -s to a singular word. But Latin had altered this methodology,

Phenomenon (sing) - phenomena (Plural)

Nucleus (Sing) - nuclei (Plural)

Greek Influence on English

The revival of Greek learning in Western Europe at the beginning of 16th century opened up a new vista (i.e. Greek) from which the English vocabulary was greatly enriched. But the pre-Renaissance period was not altogether blank of Greek borrowings. Further in the hands of able writers and thinkers like Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Homer, Aeschylus, Euripides, Sophocles, the potentialities of this language for expressing accurate distinction have been cultivated to the highest point.

Long before the Renaissance English contained a certain number of Greek words, such as 'geography', 'theology', 'logic', 'academy', 'Bible', 'harmony', 'ecstasy', 'diphthong', 'nymph' 'poetry', 'theatre', 'tragedy', 'tyrant' etc.

The contributions of Greek to the English vocabulary mainly consist and in the supply of technical and scientific terms. Names of almost all sciences have come from Greek, such as biology, anthropology, zoology, botany, chemistry, physics, mathematics, astrology, astronomy etc. Medical science has taken a large number of words from Greek such as 'psychology' (mind), 'neurology' (nerve), 'hepatic' (liver), 'cardiology' (heart), 'phlebotomy' (vein), 'nephrology' (kidney), 'diagnosis', 'tuberculosis', 'symbiosis', 'clinic', 'larynx' etc. Many technical terms have been made by putting together two Greek words e.g. 'telegram', 'telephone', 'phonograph', 'photography', 'lithography', 'ophthalmoscope', 'microscope', 'telescope' etc.

According to Margaret Schlauch "*Classical Greek made a special contribution to English in connection with the study of grammar and rhetoric.*" The words 'grammar' and 'rhetoric' derive from Greek language. Other significant words in this class are 'parenthesis', 'anaphora', 'irony', 'climax', 'bathos', 'elegy', 'antithesis', 'oxymoron', 'protagonist' etc.

Sometimes hybrids have been made by adding Greek suffixes and prefixes to English words. Thus the Greek prefixes 'anti-' (antisocial), 'hyper-' (hyper-sensitivity) 'infra-' (infrared), 'a-' (amoral) have been joined to many English words. The Greek suffix '-ology' has been added to words of Latin English origin as in 'sociology'.

Now we may note some of the Greek words adopted since the 16th century: 'alphabet' 'drama', 'dilemma', 'chorus' 'hubris', 'basis', 'theory' etc: 17th century; 'orchestra', 'pandemonium', 'museum', 'hyphen', 'dogma' etc.: 18th century; 'bathos' and 'philander'. The 19th century saw the coming of words like 'phase', 'acrobat', 'agnostic', 'pylon' etc.

The Viking Age lasted roughly from the middle of the eighth century to the beginning of the eleventh. The Vikings were the Germanic tribes of the Scandinavian Peninsula and Denmark. The reasons for their sudden attacks and voyages are unknown; it is possible that they were of economic or political nature. In their adventures the Swedes established a kingdom in Russia; Norwegians colonized parts of the

British Isles, the Faroes, and Iceland, and from there pushed on to Greenland and the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland; the Danes founded the dukedom of Normandy and finally conquered England (Baugh 92). Vikings conquered large areas of England but were stopped by King Alfred of Wessex. He signed the Treaty of Wedmore (878) with Gunthrum, the Viking leader. The treaty defined the boundary line, running roughly from Chester to London, to the east of which the Vikings were to remain (Berndt 1989: 22). This area was where Danish law and customs were followed and would later be known as the Danelaw. In the beginning of the eleventh century, the Vikings reached the pinnacle of their achievement – Cnut, king of Denmark, conquered Norway, England and obtained the throne of England (Berndt 23).

Viking invasions led to an immigration wave from Scandinavia. Although most of the new inhabitants were Danes, there were also Norwegians and Swedes. The two peoples, the English and the Scandinavian, amalgamated. As is described in Baugh and Cable (98), the Scandinavians intermarried with the English, adopted many of their customs and accepted Christianity. Not much is known about the relation of the two languages. In some places the Scandinavian gave up their language early and in some places Norse was spoken as late as the seventeenth century. It is also highly possible that some of the new inhabitants were bilingual. Old Norse and Old English were similar languages so it is highly probable that the two may even have been “mutually intelligible to a limited extent” (Baugh and Cable 96) which made the process of borrowing and adoption easier.

2.2. Scandinavian place-names

Many places in today England bear Scandinavian names (more than 1,400). These names are notable evidence that the Vikings once settled in England. These places are mostly situated in the district of the Danelaw but are not uniformly distributed (Berndt 22, 64). According to Baugh and Cable (98-99), there are more than 600 places with names ending in -by (such as Whitby, Grimsby). The Scandinavian word by means ‘farm’ or ‘town’; the word can also be seen in by-law (town law). Some 300 place-names end in the Scandinavian word thorp that means ‘village’ (like Althorp, Bishopsthorpe, Linthorpe). There are almost as much place-names that contain the word thwaite, ‘an isolated piece of land’ (e.g. Applethwaite, Langthwaite). Around a hundred end in toft, ‘a piece of ground, a messuage’ (Brimtoft, Nortoft).

Even personal names bear witness to the Scandinavian influence. Names with the suffix -son like Stevenson or Johnson are the Scandinavian equivalent of OE patronymic -ing (as in Browning).

2.3. The tests of borrowed words

As previously stated, Old English and Old Norse were similar languages; some common words of the two languages were even identical. Therefore, in some cases, it is difficult to determine whether a word in Modern English is native or a borrowed word. However, there are some reliable criteria that help to determine the origin of the word. Baugh and Cable (96-97) enumerate and exemplify three criteria. One of the simplest is (1) the development of the sound sk. In OE, this sound was palatalized to sh (written sc), except in the combination scr while in ON it retained its hard sk sound. So, for example, native words like

ship and fish have sh in Modern English, whereas words borrowed from Scandinavian are still pronounced with sk: sky, skin, skill, scrape, whisk. An interesting example is that of the OE word *scyrte* that became skirt in Modern English, whereas the corresponding ON form *skyrtá* became skirt. The retention of the hard pronunciation of k and g in words such as kid, get, give, and egg indicates Scandinavian origin. Occasionally, (2) the vowel of a word helps to determine the origin. For example, the Germanic diphthong ai became Ä in OE (Å in Modern English) and in ON it became ei or Ä. Some examples of borrowed words are aye, nay, hale, reindeer and swain. These kinds of tests, based on sound-developments in the two languages, are the most reliable means of distinguishing Scandinavian from native words. Sometimes (3) meaning can help to determine the origin of the word. The Modern English word bloom (flower) could have come from OE *blāma* or Scandinavian *blóm*. The OE word meant an 'ingot of iron', whereas the Scandinavian word meant 'flower, bloom'. The ON meaning is the one in ordinary use while the OE word has survived as a term in metallurgy. Another example where meaning helps us to determine the origin of the word is the word gift. In OE this word meant the 'price of a wife', and thus 'marriage' in the plural, whereas the ON word had a more general sense with the meaning of 'gift, present'.

Scandinavian loanwords

Although the Scandinavian loan words began to enter the English language probably at the same time when the Vikings settled down (the period of Old English), the evidence in writing can be found mostly in Middle English texts. The loanwords were recorded long after they came in use because it took some time before they entered the standard English. Baugh and Cable divided the early loanwords (in OE) into two groups. The first group constitute words "associated with sea-roving and predatory people" (99). The second group is made out of "words relating to the law or characteristic of the social and administrative system of Danelaw" (99). After the Norman Conquest, most of the words from the second group were replaced by the French terms and thus can no longer be found in Modern English.

It was only after the Danes had begun to settle down that Scandinavian words started to enter in greater numbers into language. We cannot divide these words into different domains of thought or experience because Scandinavian loanwords are varied and simple (as opposed to the French or Latin loanwords). They include common, familiar, everyday words. The following list serves only illustrative purposes and is not in any way exhaustive, as there are around 900 Scandinavian words in Modern English.

As already mentioned, these words are very common and of everyday use. There probably existed words for the same concepts in OE, so the new words could have supplied no real need in the English vocabulary. However, these words made their way into the English as the result of the mixture of two peoples. Scandinavian loanwords are very interesting because they refer to ordinary things and because they retained in the language. As Ruiz Moneva (184) points out, the most important source languages at OE and ME period were Celtic, Latin, French and Scandinavian. But, "contrarily to what had happened with the

Celts, the Scandinavian influence upon the English language is characterized by its intensity, the great and important areas of the language which were affected” (Ruiz Moneva 184).

- cog
- cozy
- flense
- flounder
- gleen
- hug
- lug (haul v.; handle n.)
- maelstrom
- midden
- mink
- nudge
- ombudsman
- rig (*rigg*, as in a ship's "riggings")
- skua
- snug
- spry
- wicker

As previously stated, at one time, both languages were used side by side. This situation could have resulted in six different scenarios (Baugh and Cable 99-102; Ruiz Moneva 187-88). (1) If words in the two languages coincided more or less in form and meaning, the modern word stands at the same time for both its English and its Scandinavian ancestors. Some examples are burn, cole, drag, fast, hang, murk(y), scrape, thick. (2) If there were differences in form, the English word often survived. Some examples are bench, goat, heathen, yarn, few, grey, loath, leap, flay. Corresponding Scandinavian forms can often be found in ME literature and in some cases they still exist in dialectal use (e.g. screde, skelle, skere with the hard pronunciation of the initial consonant group; the standard English forms are shred, shell, sheer). (3) In some cases, the Scandinavian word replaced the native word, often after two had long remained in use concurrently. For example, the word awe is of Scandinavian origin and its cognate eye (aye) was an OE word. In the earlier part of the ME period the English word was more common, but later on (by 1300) the Scandinavian form appeared more often and finally replaced the Old English word. The same happened with the words for egg – ey (English) and egg (Scandinavian); words for sister – OE sweostor, ON systir; the ON verb take replaced the OE niman. (4) Sometimes, both the English and Scandinavian words survived with a difference of meaning or use (the English word is given first): no-nay, whole-hale, rear-raise, from-fro, craft-skill, hide-skin, sick-ill. (5) Some native words that were not in common use were reinforced or

reintroduced from the Scandinavian. Examples are till, dale, rim, blend, run and the Scottish bairn. (6) Finally, the English word might have been modified by taking on some characteristics of the corresponding Scandinavian word. Examples include give and get with their hard g and Thursday instead of the OE Thunresdæg.

Form (grammatical) words

Scandinavian words that made their way into English were not only open class words (nouns, adjectives and verbs). The Scandinavian influence extended to grammatical words – pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, and even a part of the verb to be. This is not a common case when it comes to borrowing. The pronouns they, their, them are Scandinavian (OE were hær, hira, him). Both and same, although they are not pronouns, have pronominal uses and are of Scandinavian origin. Some other examples include the conjunction though, adverbs aloft, athwart, aye (ever) and seemly. One of the most important Scandinavian words in English is the present plural of the verb ‘to be’ – are. The Scandinavian form took place of bēoth or sind.

Syntax and grammar

Scholars do not agree on the Scandinavian influence on the English syntax. Baugh and Cable (103-105) claim that “the Scandinavian influence not only affected the vocabulary but also extended to [...] syntax”. They admit that “it is less capable of exact demonstration”, but then conclude that “it is hardly to be doubted” (103). Kirch (503), on the other hand, argues that all of the previous claims made about the influence of Scandinavian on English syntax are “the subject of much controversy”. It was considered that these syntactic features originated from Scandinavian: “(1) relative clauses without pronouns, (2) the omission of the conjunction ‘that,’ (3) the use of ‘shall’ and ‘will’ in Middle English, (4) the genitive before nouns” (Kirch 503). But Kirch (503-510) refutes the quoted features and concludes that the “investigation turns up no positive proof of Scandinavian influence on English syntax” (510). Berndt does not even mention syntax, so it is possible that he considers that Scandinavian did influence it.

STANDARD ENGLISH

Introduction

English is a language now spoken by millions of men and women spread over the entire world, belonging to different social classes and following different occupations. It is as much the speech of the Cockney bus conductor and of the butcher’s boy as it is the speech of the masters at Winchester or of the precise Oxford don. In other words it includes the speech, which is neglected and degenerate, in sounds or in words or both, as well as the finely modulated and eloquent periods of the cultivated and the scholarly. All these different speakers of English neither use identical sounds nor employ the same vocabulary. But because all of them are sharers of English speech they influence it to a certain extent. Besides these different classes of people using the English language, the writers, the poets, the scholars, the

journalists and the speakers on the radio also influence it to some extent. As we move from one social class to another or from one part of the country to another, we cannot help becoming conscious of the separate currents in the broad river of English speech. Of the three main currents, which are discernible, the first is that of the local dialects, which are well defined in character and confined to restricted areas. The second is that of a form of English speech spoken by some people in all parts of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The third represents a majority of people in each region, more or less closely related to the second current, but lacking its uniformity and bearing traces of affinity to one or another of the dialects. The last two forms of English speech are commonly known as Standard English. Professor H.C. Wyld distinguishes the second from the third by the term 'Received Standard', while he uses the term 'Modified Standard' for the third.

Of these three forms of English speech, only the last two, which constitute Standard English, are of importance now. Though Englishmen of all ranks spoke their respective regional dialects till the 15th century, written English began acquiring a single standard form after the introduction of printing and the fixation of spelling by the printers. The dialects have gradually lost their importance and have become more and more overridden by Standard English, so that there are now mixture of standard and dialects forms. Standard English rose into prominence as the speech of the metropolitan population and gradually spread over the whole country. Between the end of the Middle Ages and the close of the 16th century the language had become standardized in the form it still retains, except for minor modifications in spelling and pronunciation. Though this Standard English has first been affected to some extent by local varieties of speech, any change, which has come over it during the last three centuries; had been due to the influence of various forms of Modified Standard. What Prof. Wyld designates as Received Standard is the speech of the more socially fortunate and the best educated people. As it is the speech of the products of the English public school education, it is often referred to as public school English. It is also the speech of the by-products of the public School system. It is more uniform in pronunciation than the Modified Standards.

Modified Standard, which is spoken by the majority of people in England is the most important variety of English now in use. It may be defined as the speech of that large number of people who have been brought up in a regional or occupational taught in schools and colleges. However, they have not succeeded in achieving anything more than a compromise between their original speech and the standard English aimed at. It is seen that this Modified Standard has innumerable shades and varieties and its speakers far outnumber those who use the Received Standard. It is also seen that every form of Modified Standard is closely related to its counterparts in other regions as well as to Received Standard. The compass of Modified Standard in each region is a wide one, ranging from a speech hardly distinguishable from Received Standard to the inferior speech of slumdweller in the city and of the villagers whose immediate ancestors spoke the regional dialect.

UNIT-3

Definition, Nature and Scope of Linguistics

Introduction

Linguistics is a growing and interesting area of study, having a direct bearing on fields as diverse as education, anthropology, sociology, language teaching, cognitive psychology and philosophy. What is linguistics? Fundamentally, it is concerned with the nature of language and communication.

Definitions of Linguistics

According to G. Duffy: <i>“Linguistics observes language in action as a means for determining how language has developed, how it functions today, and how it is currently evolving.”</i>
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According to S. Pit Corder: <i>“Linguistics is concerned with the nature of human language, how it is learned and what part it plays in the life of the individual and the community.”</i>
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According to Jean Aitchison: <i>“Linguistics tries to answer two basic questions: What is language and How does language work.”</i>

According to Victoria A. Fromkin: <i>“The scientific study of human language is called linguistics”.</i>
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According to Robins (1985): <i>“Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and of the human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential to human life as we know it, and one of the most far-reaching of human capabilities in relation to the whole span of mankind's achievements.”</i>
--

WHAT IS LINGUISTICS?

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. It is the systematic study of the elements of language and the principles governing their combination and organization.

Linguistics provides for a rigorous experimentation with the elements or aspects of language that are actually in use by the speech community. It is based on observation and the data collected thereby from the users of the language, a scientific analysis is made by the investigator and at the end of it he comes out with a satisfactory explanation relating to his field of study. This sort of systematic study of language has rendered the traditional method language study outmoded or unfit for any theorization.

Linguistics as a Science

Linguistics can be understood as a science in both general and specific terms. Generally, we use the term '**science**' for any **knowledge that is based on clear, systematic and rational understanding**. Thus we often speak of the 'science of politics' or statecraft, or 'the science of cooking'. However, we also use the term 'science' for the **systematic study of phenomena enabling us to state some principles or theories regarding the phenomena**; this **study proceeds by examination of publicly verifiable data obtained through observation of phenomena**, and

experimentation; in other words, it is **empirical and objective**. Science must also provide **explanation after adequate observation of data, which should be consistent**, i.e. there should be **no contradictions** between different parts of the explanation or statement; and economical, i.e. a precise and non-redundant manner of statement is to be preferred.

Branches of Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics is the branch of linguistics that is most concerned with developing models of linguistic knowledge. The fields that are generally considered the core of theoretical linguistics are syntax, phonology, morphology, and semantics. Although phonetics often informs phonology, it is often excluded from the purview of theoretical linguistics, along with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. Theoretical linguistics also involves the search for an explanation of linguistic universals, that is, properties all languages have in common.

Applied Linguistics the study of language-related issues applied in everyday life, notably language policies, planning, and education. It is the application of linguistics theories to evaluate the language problems arisen from other professions like sociology, psychology, ethnology, geography, neurology, biology, and history etc.

LINGUISTICS

Scientific study of Language

Theoretical Linguistics

Concerned with developing models of linguistic knowledge

Phonetics

Study of the physical properties of speech (or signed) production and perception.

Phonology

Study of sounds (or signs) as discrete, abstract elements in the speaker's mind that distinguish meaning.

Morphology

Study of internal structures of words and how they can be modified.

Syntax

Study of how words combine to form grammatical sentences.

Semantics

Study of the meaning of words and fixed word combinations and how these combine to form the meanings of sentences.

Pragmatics

Study of how utterances are used in communicative acts, and the role played by context and nonlinguistic knowledge in the transmission of meaning.

Discourse analysis

Analysis of language use in texts (spoken, written, or signed).

Applied Linguistics

Concerned with the application of linguistics theories to evaluate the language problems arisen from other professions

Sociolinguistics

Study of variation in language and its relationship with social factors.

Psycholinguistics

Study of the cognitive processes and representations underlying language use

Ethnolinguistics

Studies the relationship between language and culture, and the way different ethnic groups perceive the world.

Geolinguistics

Study of the geographical distribution of languages and linguistic features.

Neurolinguistics

Study of the structures in the human brain that underlie grammar and communication

Biolinguistics

Study of natural as well as human-taught communication systems in animals, compared to human language.

Historical linguistics

(diachronic linguistics) Study of language change over time.

MODERN LINGUISTICS

Linguistics is the systematic study of the elements of language and the principles governing their combination and organization. Philology was the older term used to refer to the study of language. Philology was rather comparative and historical. A comparative study of language focuses on the similarities and differences within a family of related languages. A historical study analyses the evolution of a family of languages or the changes that occur within a particular language, over a long course of time. This type of study of the changes in language over a span of time is called **diachronic study**. On the other hand, an analysis of the systematic interrelation of the elements of a single language at a particular time is called **synchronic study**.

A new approach to the study of language began with the experiments and observation made by Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist. He is regarded as the father of modern linguistics. He considered language as a self-sufficient system. His lectures on language were published from student's notes in 1916, three years after his death. These lectures have been translated as Course in General Linguistics.

Important contributions to linguistics were also made by American descriptive and structural linguists. Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloom Field were notable among them. A basic text in American linguistics is Bloomfield's 'Language' (1913).

Saussure introduced new concepts and procedures in analyzing language. The following are some of the major terms and concepts introduced by him.

SYNCHRONIC AND DIACHRONIC APPROACH

Saussure introduced time concept in the study of language. Language can be studied over a span of time as well as at a point of time. The former, he called diachronic, and the latter, synchronic. Diachronic approach to the language study focuses on the changes in language over language over a span of time. Language is evolutionary and is not static. If we compare a passage from the fourteenth century English poet Geoffrey Chaucer with modern English, it will be clear that language has changed considerably. Diachronic study implies the study of the changes in language over a span of time.

Synchronic approach to the study of language focuses on the systematic interconnections and rules of a long course of time. It is rather comparative and historical. It is comparative in the sense that it analyses the similarities and differences within a family of related languages. It is historical, because it focuses on the evolution of a family of languages or on the changes that occur within a particular combinations and organization of the constituent elements of a single language at a particular time.

Saussure emphasizes the importance of seeing language as a living phenomenon. He laid the stress on studying speech habits of the community speaking a given language. He analyzes the underlying system of a language in order to demonstrate the integrated

structure. He placed language in social context. As against the total historical study of language, Saussure stressed the importance of seeing language existing as a state at particular point of time. Synchronic linguistics sees language as a living whole.

LANGUE AND PAROLE

Saussure introduced an important distinction between **langue** and **parole**. A parole is any particular meaningful utterance. It may be spoken or written. It refers to the actual concrete act of speaking on the part of the individual. It is personal, dynamic and social activity. It exists at a particular time and place and in a particular context. It is the only object available for direct observation by linguists. It is similar to **Chomsky's** idea of **performance**.

Langue, on the other hand implies the underlying rules governing the combination and organization of the elements of language. It is the implicit system of elements, of distinctions and oppositions. It is the langue which makes it possible for a speaker to make an utterance and the listener to understand the same. In short, langue = grammar + vocabulary + pronunciation system of a linguistic community.

Competence and performance

Noam Chomsky has substituted Saussure's concept of language and parole with competence and performance. Competence is the tacit knowledge on the part of native speakers who have mastered or internalized the implicit conventions and rules of a language system. It is the competence which enables the speaker to make meaningful utterances and the listener to understand well-formed and meaningful utterances. Performance on the other hand is the actual utterance of particular sentences.

Semiotics and semiology

The terms semiotics and semiology are alternative names used to refer to the systematic study of signs. The only difference is that the term semiotics was introduced by the American philosopher, Charles Sanders Peirce and the term semiology was used by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. Saussure held the view that language is a semiotic system. (i.e. language is a system signs). Each linguistic sign is composed of a 'signifier' and the 'signified'

'Signifier' + signified -> sign. Signifier is the phonic or the graphic part of the sign. The signified is the referent or the concept or idea behind the signifier. The relationship between the signifier and the signified is purely arbitrary. This means that there is no positive relationship between the signifier and the signified.

Linguistics is descriptive

The modern linguists value all varieties of language. The distinction between spoken or written, formal or informal, regional or social and domestic or professional varieties of language has become blurred in modern linguistics. Language is never static

but dynamic. A particular variety of language cannot be considered to be superior to the other varieties. The concept of homogeneity of language has no place in modern linguistics. It is not possible that all members of a given speech community speak exactly the same language. There exist differences in accent, vocabulary, and style even among people who speak the same language. This gives rise to the notion of idiolect or the speech of a given person and dialect or the speech habits of the people inhabiting a given geographical area. Countless varieties are possible in human speech. Register, jargon, slang and cant are examples of such varieties. If a language variety has certain features which are typical of certain disciplines/topics/occupation and social roles placed by the speaker, it is referred to as register. E.g. the journalistic register and the legal register, scientific register. Jargon is a term used to refer to set of words or expressions used by a specific group among themselves. Every trade has its own jargon. Slang is an extreme form of informality in the use of language. Cant is a term used to mean the secret language used by a class or sect.

The task of linguists is to describe the way people actually speak or write their language. Their task is not to prescribe the rules governing the use of language. This is what Saussure meant when he says that Linguistics is descriptive, not prescriptive.

The traditional grammarians were prescriptive. The prescriptive grammarians tell the speakers what forms they should use and what they should not. They blindly follow the conventions accepted by their predecessors. But modern linguists describe how language functions. Both the prescriptive and descriptive linguists use rules. But the prescriptive rules are rigid whereas the rule of descriptive grammar is flexible. The descriptive linguists agree to the idea that linguistic change is natural. The prescriptive grammarians have the false notion of the purity of language. They conceived language as static. They considered the spoken form of language inferior to the written form.

UNIT-4

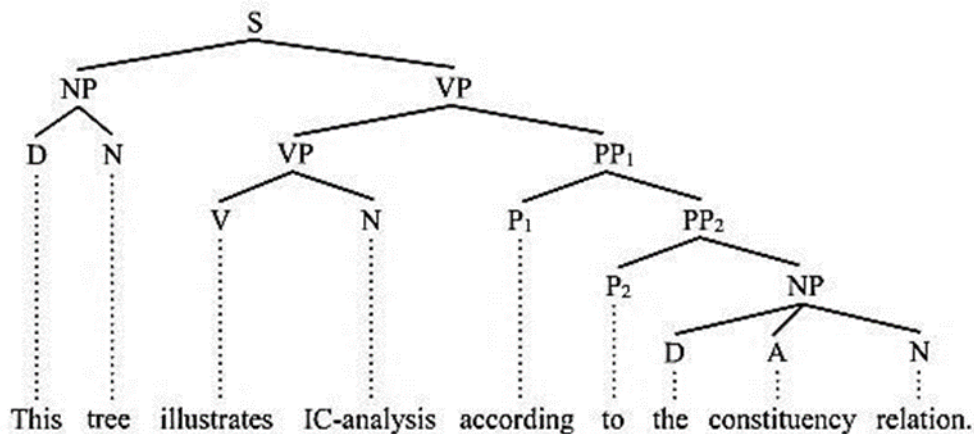
Systems of Syntactic Analysis

Immediate Constituent 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 process reached a full blown strategy for analyzing sentence structure in the early works of Noam Chomsky. The practice is now widespread. Most tree structures employed to represent the syntactic structure of sentences are products of some form of IC-analysis. The process and result of IC-analysis can, however, vary greatly based upon whether one chooses the constituency relation of phrase structure grammars (= constituency grammars) or the dependency relation of dependency grammars as the underlying principle that organizes constituents into hierarchical structures.

IC-analysis in phrase structure grammars

Given a phrase structure grammar (= constituency grammar), IC-analysis divides up a sentence into major parts or immediate constituents, and these constituents are in turn divided into further immediate constituents. The process continues until irreducible constituents are reached, i.e., until each constituent consists of only a word or a meaningful part of a word. The end result of IC-analysis is often presented in a visual diagrammatic form that reveals the hierarchical immediate constituent structure of the sentence at hand. These diagrams are usually trees. For example:

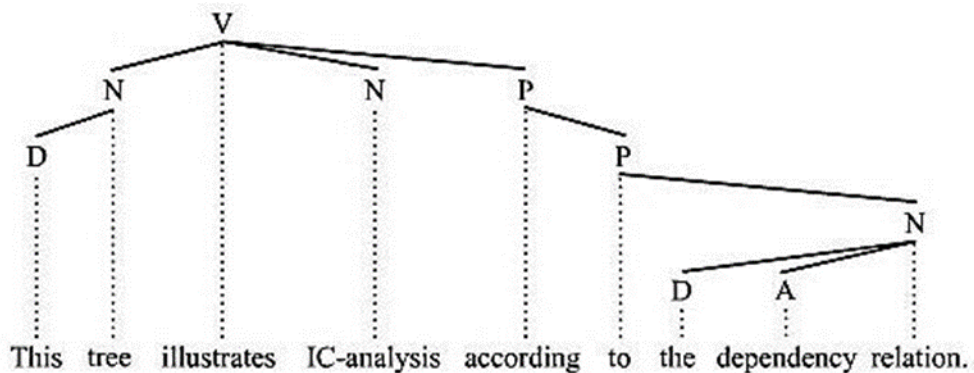


This tree illustrates the manner in which the entire sentence is divided first into the two immediate constituents this tree and illustrates IC-analysis according to the constituency relation; these two constituents are further divided into the immediate constituents this and tree, and illustrates IC-analysis and according to the constituency relation; and so on.

An important aspect of IC-analysis in phrase structure grammars is that each individual word is a constituent by definition. The process of IC-analysis always ends when the smallest constituents are reached, which are often words (although the analysis can also be extended into the words to acknowledge the manner in which words are structured). The process is, however, much different in dependency grammars, since many individual words do not end up as constituents in dependency grammars.

IC-Analysis in Dependency Grammars

IC-analysis is much different in dependency grammars. Since dependency grammars view the finite verb as the root of all sentence structure, they cannot and do not acknowledge the initial binary subject-predicate division of the clause associated with phrase structure grammars. What this means for the general understanding of constituent structure is that dependency grammars do not acknowledge a finite verb phrase (VP) constituent and many individual words also do not qualify as constituents, which means in turn that they will not show up as constituents in the IC-analysis. Thus in the example sentence “This tree illustrates IC-analysis according to the dependency relation”, many of the phrase structure grammar constituents do not qualify as dependency grammar constituents: This IC-analysis does not view the finite verb phrase illustrates IC-analysis according to the dependency relation nor the individual words tree, illustrates, according, to, and relation as constituents.



While the structures that IC-analysis identifies for dependency and constituency grammars differ in significant ways, as the two trees just produced illustrate, both views of sentence structure are acknowledging constituents. The constituent is defined in a theory-neutral manner: A given word/node plus all the words/nodes that that word/node dominates. This definition is neutral with respect to the dependency vs. constituency distinction. It allows one to compare the IC-analyses across the two types of structure. A constituent is always a complete tree or a complete sub-tree of a tree, regardless of whether the tree at hand is a constituency or a dependency tree.

Phrase Structure Grammar

There are three distinctive periods of development in the theory of constituent structure. Bloomfield only introduced notion and explained it by means of example. His followers notably Eugene, Nida, Rulon Wells, Zells Harris, formulated the principles of constituent analysis in greater detail and replaced Bloomfield's somewhat vague reference to 'taking account of the meanings, with explicitly distributional criteria'. Finally, in the last few years, the theory of constituent structure has been formalized and subjected to rigor by Chomsky and other linguists and has been called 'Phrase Structure Grammar'.

Once we start to use labels, we have clearly departed from simple analysis and are undertaking analysis somewhat similar to traditional phrasing, the division of sentences into already established grammatical elements. This kind of analysis is today usually called 'phrase structure grammar'. It shows some of the weaknesses of the simple IC analysis. There are sophisticated versions of phrase structure grammars. The three best known are

'Scale and Category grammar' associated with the name of Michael Halliday in London University, 'Tagmemics' associated with the name of Kenneth Pike of Michigan, and 'Stratificational grammar' associated with Sidney Lamb of Yale.

Thus, phrase structure grammar is an alternative way of expressing the information found in a tree diagram by means of 're-write' rules. In this model the linguist formalizes the grammar by means of generative rules which explicitly assign the correct constituent structure to sentences. Such systems are called simple 'phrase structure grammars'. This model of grammar shows not only the terminal elements or constituents of a linear structure but also specifies the subunits and the level at which these units form natural groups. So the linguist is here interested in

1. The pattern underlying the sentence and the constituents; and in
2. The syntactic devices used to link the constituents together, and the ways in which various parts relate to one another.

Without the axiom, there are bound to be an unlimited number of rules. This implies that we can neither formulate nor write down such rules in one lifetime which rules out the possibility of someone using this grammar to master a language. The fact that we learn a language by the time we are three or four years old refutes such an implication and compels us to believe that the rules of a grammar have got to be finite and not infinite.

Phrase structure rules of the generative grammar are an amalgamation of the subject-predicate and parsing systems of the traditional grammars and the IC analysis of the structural grammar. They are framed to derive a 'kernel' sentence (in the Syntactic Structures, Chomsky 1957), or 'underlying (deep) strings

(in the Aspects, Chomsky 1965). These rules define basic grammatical relations that function in the deep structure. They also make explicit the domination of constituent over the other. In short, they make explicit the universal conditions that define 'human language'.

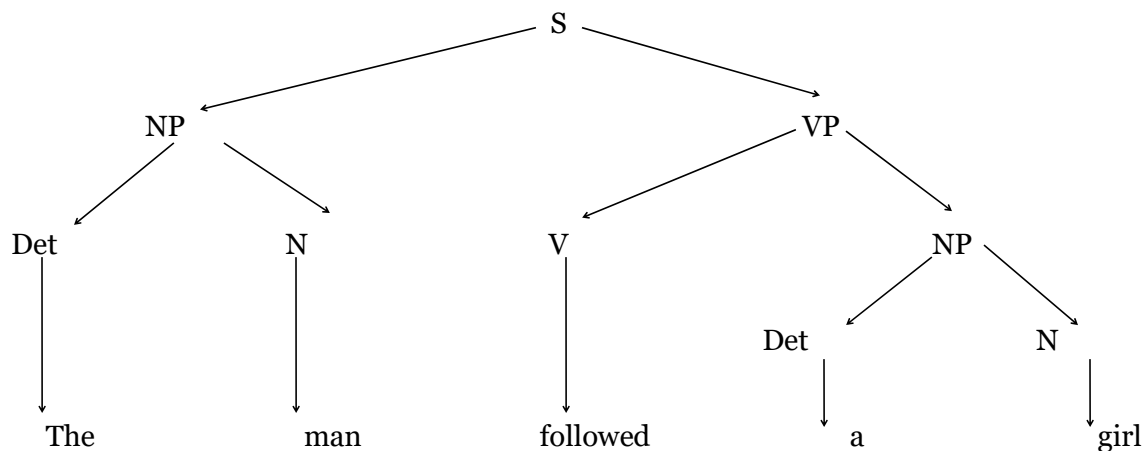
The phrase structure of a sentence is generally represented by a tree diagram. This representation of the phrase structure of a sentence is known as its 'phrase marker' or 'P marker' for short. The points that are joined by the lines or branches are called 'Nodes'. Each of the nodes, except those on the bottom line (which are the terminal nodes) is given a label that represents a grammatically definable constituent - N, V, NP, VP, etc. where one node is higher than another and joined to it by branches, it is said to 'Dominate' it, if it is placed immediately above it and joined by a single line, it 'Immediately' dominates it.

'Dominance' then shows how a larger constituent may consist of one or more constituents of a smaller kind. It is also important to note that the tree structure preserves the linear order of the constituents, just as plain IC analysis does. The first noun phrase precedes the verb phrase, the verb precedes the second noun phrase. The determiner precedes the noun.

'Precedence' thus like 'Dominance' is clearly shown in the tree diagram.

The sentence "the man followed a girl" will be represented by a tree diagram as

The sentence "***the man followed a girl***" will be represented by a tree diagram as



Labeled bracketing and phrase structure trees provide much more information than IC analysis, but they still do not state, except by implication, how new sentences can be generated. This can be done with the use of 'phrase structure rules' (PS rules).

The tree structure of the sentence given in the example can be generated by six rules.

1. S-----NP VP
2. VP----V NP
3. NP----DET N
4. V ----- Followed
5. DET ---the, a
6. N man, girl

These rules will not generate only the one sentence handled in the tree diagram - 'The man followed a girl'. Since both 'the' and 'a' are shown as determiners and both 'man' and 'girl' as nouns, the rules permit us to permute the determiners in each determiner position and the two nouns in each noun position and in fact, to generate no less than sixteen different sentences including, for instance:

A girl followed the man. The girl followed a man. A girl followed a man.

The phrase structure rule can generate longer sentences also.

Limitations of Phrase Structure Grammar

A phrase structure grammar is essentially a grammar of segmentation and categorization; it is a taxonomic model - a grammar of lists, an inventory of elements, and of class of sequences of elements. Although it is very strong in giving structural description of the language, yet it is deficient in generative capacity. It is incapable of accounting for all the intentions of native speakers. It fails to disambiguate all the ambiguities and understand all the synonymies.

The processes that pose problems to PS grammar are:

1. Ambiguities
2. Synonymies
3. Permutations
4. Discontinuous constituents (e.g. particles)
5. Remote relationship (e.g. those of cases)

6. Concord phenomena
7. Co-ordination.

Despite its rules of inference, binarity and irreflexibility, etc. a PS grammar runs into difficulties in describing syntactic structures of questions, negatives, passives, relatives, etc. easily. It fails to capture the deep meaning. It cannot discover the crucial notions, nor can it prevent the assignment of false, ungrammatical structure.

PS rules are incapable of - except by having recourse to very arbitrary solutions - of accounting for the multiplicity of relations existing either between elements in the same sentence, or between different sentences. For example:

1. The police diverted the traffic.
2. The traffic was diverted by the police.
3. The traffic was diverted by a country road.

PS rules fail to show the relationship that connects 1 to 2. In sentence 2 'by the police' will be shown as a prepositional phrase consisting of a preposition, a determiner and a noun, and in sentence 3 'by a country road' too will be shown as a prepositional phrase (prep + NP). Thus, it would ignore semantic considerations and case relations.

PS grammar does not have the precision, simplicity, elegance, power, insight, and competence of the TG grammar. It would be very complex and cumbersome and clumsy with so many constraints.

Transformational Grammar

Transformational grammar is a form of language analysis that establishes a relationship with the different elements in the sentence of a language and makes use of rules or transformations to recognize these relationships.

Basic concepts of Transformational Grammar

Transformational grammar which is usually generative grammar describes a language with the help of transformational rules. It involves logical reasoning to understand fully the meaning of the selected words. As such transformational grammar goes a step ahead of structural grammar which focuses more on the sentence structures used for communication. Apart from the use of correct sentence structure, transformational grammar analyses the words with reference to its underlying thoughts. Transformational grammar employs most of the linguistic tools such as syntax and context to explore the possible meanings of words.

Architect of Transformational Grammar

Transformational Grammar also known as Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) refers to the theory of generative grammar of a natural language, developed by Chomsky. Transformational grammar is basically a theory to understand the processing of grammatical knowledge in the human brain. Noam Chomsky, the U.S. linguist, was the main propagator of transformational grammar in the 1960's. His theory opposed the earlier theories of structuralism by rejecting the idea that each language is different from the other. In fact transformational grammar analyses language on the basis of certain universal tenets in languages.

Deep Structure and Surface Structure of Transformational Grammar

According to Chomskyan theory, transformational grammar involves two levels to represent the structure of sentences known as the “deep structure” and the “surface structure”. The “deep structure” implies a more abstract form underlying the structure of a sentence. It is represented by a “phrase structure tree” in which the abstract relations between words and phrases of a sentence are depicted in a “hierarchical tree diagram”.

The “surface structure” refers to the actual form of the structure of a sentence used. Besides the two levels of sentence structure, transformational grammar consists of a body of formal rules to enable transforming deep structures to surface structures.

Phrase Structure Tree in Transformational Grammar

A phrase structure tree in transformational grammar is a diagrammatic representation of sentences distinguished by their syntactic characteristics. Thus we have verb phrases (VP), noun phrases (NP), prepositional phrases (PP) and so on. Most of the sentence structures in a language are governed by phrase structure rules. For example, sentences in English are governed by the rule that they should contain a Noun Phrase (NP) and a Verb Phrase (VP)

Transformational Grammar

Transformational grammar is used routinely to understand the grouping of words in a particular context. For example look at the sentences, “John wrote a poem on the spring season” and “A poem on the spring season was written by John”. According to Chomsky these sentences originate from a deeper and more abstract grammatical structure. Transformational grammar explains how actual sentences evolve by manipulating the common form of sentence structures. A number of different theories have since evolved but they are all based on the Chomsky’s original theory of transformational grammar.

UNIT-5

PHONETICS

THE SPEECH MECHANISM

Language is used for the purpose of communication. To a certain extent communication is possible without language. If communication takes place with the help of language, it is called linguistic communication. It can be spoken or written. If communication takes place without the help of language, it is called non-linguistic communication.

Linguistics is the scientific study of human language. It has got several branches. **Phonetics** is that branch of linguistics which deals with the study of speech sounds or phonemes in general. Phonemes are the smallest units of speech sound. They are not meaningful by themselves. But they can bring about change in meaning. Phonemes are combined into larger meaningful units called **morphemes**.

Phonology is concerned with the selection and organization of phonemes in a language.

The important branches of linguistics are:

- i. Phonology: The study of the elementary speech sounds.
- ii. Morphology: The study or ordering of speech sounds into the smallest meaningful groups such as morphemes and words.
- iii. Syntax: The study of the way that sequences of words are ordered into phrases, clauses, and sentences.
- iv. Semantics: The study of meaning.

PHONETICS:

Phonetics is a branch of phonology. It deals with the study of speech sounds in general. It is concerned with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech.

THE AIR STREAM MECHANISM AND THE ORGANS OF SPEECH.

Lung air is used for the articulation of most speech sounds of most of the languages. The air that flows out of our mouth is modified in the production of speech sounds by the action of speech organs.

The organs involved in the production of speech can be divided into three groups:

- i. The respiratory system. This comprises the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the wind pipe.
- ii. The phonatory system. This comprises the larynx.
- iii. The articulatory system. This comprises the nose, the teeth, the tongue, the roof of the mouth and the lips.

THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

The respiratory system consists of the lungs and the wind pipe (the trachea). As the walls of the lungs contract, the air is pushed out from the lungs. The air which goes out through the wind pipe is made use of in the production of speech sounds.

Respiration involves two processes:

- i. Respiration. It is the taking in of the air from outside into the lungs
- ii. Expiration. It is the throwing out of the air from the lungs into the outer atmosphere.

Since the expiratory lung air is the basis of the articulation of most speech sounds, the air stream is called pulmonic air stream mechanism.

There are three air stream mechanisms:

- i. Pulmonic air stream mechanism
- ii. Glotalic air stream mechanism
- iii. Velaric air stream mechanism.

Of these three, the pulmonic air stream mechanism is the most important. This is due to the fact that a very large percentage of speech sounds in all the languages is produced using this kind of air stream mechanism.

The air is drawn into the lungs or pushed out of them by the movement of the walls of the lungs. This movement is caused by the respiratory muscles.

When the air stream mechanism is used to draw air in, it is called **ingressive** and when it is used to push air out, it is called **egressive**.

All sounds in the English language and in most languages in India, are produced by the use of pulmonic air stream mechanism.

The closed glottis makes use of the air in the pharynx and acts as the initiator for **glotalic** air stream mechanism. This is also known as pharyngeal air stream mechanism. Some languages of the world make use of both egressive and ingressive glotalic air stream mechanism for the articulation of speech sounds. The sounds used by this system are called implosives.

The air in the mouth is set in motion by the **velaric** air stream mechanism. The back of the tongue is the initiator. It is also known as the oral air stream mechanism. Several African languages have sounds produced with a velaric ingressive air stream mechanism.

2. The Phonatory System

There is a box made up of a cartilage at the top of the wind pipe. It is called larynx. Adams Apple is its front. The larynx encloses a pair of folds made of static tissues call Vocal Chords. They are small lip-like folds which run from front to the back along the side walls of the larynx. The vocal chords can be held together or kept wide apart. Glottis is the small opening between the vocal chords. It can be closed or open by bringing the vocal chords together or keeping them apart.

In the production of certain speech sounds, the vocal chords are wide apart and the glottis is open so that air passes out through it freely without any friction. The speech sounds thus produced with the glottis wide open are called voiceless sounds or breathed sounds.

E.g. the first sound in the word 'pill' and 'king'

During the production of certain sounds, the vocal chords are closely held together and as the air from the lung is pushed out, they vibrate producing the sound called voiced sounds

Eg. The sounds like /z/ and /ʒ/

3. The articulatory system

This consists of the pharynx and the oral cavity and the nasal cavity. They are used in the articulation of various sounds. The nose, the teeth, the tongue, the roof of the mouth and the lips help us in the articulation of various sounds. Articulation is bringing together or near each other of two organs in the production of speech. Articulators can be classified into two categories:

- i. the passive articulators and
- ii. the active articulators.

Tongue and lower lips are active articulators. The upper lip, teeth and the entire roof of the mouth form the passive articulators. The various positions of the the active articulators in relation to the passive articulators result different types of sounds.

Speech sounds are classified according to the place of articulation (where the two articulators meet) and according to the manner of articulation(howthe air is pushed out)

Organs of speech

The air that we breathe comes out of the lungs and passes through various organs of the body like the larynx and the pharynx and from there it is passed out through the mouth or the nasal cavity. The various organs of the body that convert the air that comes out of the lungs to the atmosphere are called speech organs.

The following are the various organs that involve in the production of speech sounds:

1. Lungs
2. Larynx: - (the hollow box like part at the upper end of the throat's air passage). It is commonly called Adam's apple. The larynx encloses a pair of folds made of elastic tissue called **vocal chords**.
3. Pharynx: - immediately above the larynx, there is a space behind the tongue. It reaches upwards the nasal cavity. This space is called pharynx.
4. The roof of the mouth: - The palate forms the roof of the mouth. It separates the mouth cavity from the nasal cavity. The roof of the mouth is divided into three broad areas for the sake of descriptive convenience.

i. Alveolar ridge (alveolum):- This is the convex part right behind the upper teeth . It is hard. It is called the teeth ridge.

ii. Hard palate: - The hard concave area behind the teeth ridge is called the hard palate.

This is the convex part right behind the upper teeth. It is hard. It is called the teeth ridge.

iii Soft palate (velum):- It is the soft portion at the end of the hard palate.

At the extreme end of the soft palate is the fleshy finger like structure called the uvula

The soft palate can be lowered or raised. When the soft palate is raised, it touches the back wall of the pharynx. Then the nasal passage will be closed and the air can escape **only** through the mouth cavity. The sounds produced in this way with the air escaping through the mouth alone are called oral sounds.

/p/; /b/; /t/; /d/etc. are oral sounds. The soft palate is lowered that the nasal passage is opened and the oral passage is blocked at some point and the air escapes only through the nose. The sounds thus produced are called nasal sounds. /m/; /n/ and / ŋ / are nasal sounds in English.

5. The tongue:-

The tongue is the most important of the organs of speech. The tongue can be divided in the following parts:

i. The tip: - it is the extreme edge of the tongue.

ii. The blade: - it is the part immediately after the tip. It lies opposite to the teeth ridge, when it is in resting position.

iii. The front:-It is the part beyond the blade. It lies opposite to the hard palate.

iv. The back: - It is beyond the front. It lies opposite to the soft palate. v. The root: - It is even beyond the back of the tongue.

6. The teeth:-

The lower front teeth are not important in the production of speech. But if they are missing, the production of certain sounds like /z/ and /s/ will be difficult. The two upper front teeth are used to produce sounds like initialsounds in words ‘thick’ and ‘then’.

7. The lip:-

The position of lips affects the quality of vowels. They play an important part in the articulation of certain consonants also.

CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

Speech sounds may be classified into two groups.

- i. Vowels
- ii. Consonants

VOWELS

Vowels are voiced sounds during the production of which the air escapes through the freely and continuouslywithout any audible frictional voice.

All other articulated mouth sounds are consonants.

Vowels are thus articulated with a stricture of open approximation, i.e. the active articulator, the tongue raised towards the passive articulator, the roof of the mouth in such a way that there is sufficient space between them for the air to escape freely and continuously. **Vowel limit:**

The highest level to which the tongue can be raised an a sound produced without frictional voice is called vowel limit.

Classification of Vowels:

Vowels can be classified along the following dimensions:

- i. The position of the lips.
- ii. The part of the tongue that is raised.

- iii. The height to which the tongue is raised.

According to the position of lips vowels can be divided into two categories:

- i. Round Vowels.
- ii. unrounded Vowels

Rounded vowels are those vowels during the production of which the lips are rounded. E.g. /U:/ as in cool; and /ɔ:/ as in short. There are two main types of rounding called close lip rounding and open lip rounding.

Unrounded vowels are those during the production of which the lips are opened or neutral. E.g. Vowels like /i:/ as in 'sea' and /e/ as in 'get'

According to the part of the tongue that raises , Vowels can be classified into three categories:

- i. Front Vowels
- ii. Back Vowels
- iii. Centre Vowels

Front vowels are those vowels during the production of which the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. There will be sufficient space between the front of the tongue and the hard palate for the air to escape without any friction.

e.g. /i:/ as in 'beat'; /e/ as in 'bet'

Back Vowels are those vowels during the production of which the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate.

e.g. /ɑ:/ as in 'calm'. /u:/ as in 'cool'

Centre Vowels are those vowels during the production of which the Centre of the tongue is raised towards that part of the roof of the mouth where the hard palate and soft palate meet.

e.g. /ʌ/ as in 'but' and /ɜ:/ as in 'bird'

According to the height to which the tongue is raised, vowels can be classified into four categories:

i. High/close ii.

Low/ open

iii. Half high/Half close

iv. Half low/ half open.

i. High/close vowels:

These are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is raised close to the roof of the mouth.

e.g. /i:/ as in 'beat'; /u:/ as in 'fool'.

ii. Low/open vowels:

These are those vowels during the production of which the tongue is kept low in the oral cavity. E.g. /ɑ:/ as in 'calm'; /æ/ as in 'cat'.

iii. Half high/half close

For half high/ half close, the tongue occupies the position one third of the distance from close to open **iv. Half low/ half open**

For half open, the tongue occupies a position two third of the distance from close to open.

In the production of the vowel /i:/ there is greater tension of the tongue. There is less tension of the tongue in the production of the vowel /i/ as in 'sit'. On the basis of this criterion, vowels can be classified as follows:

i. Tense vowels ii.

Lax vowels

Tense vowels are those vowels which require considerable muscular tension on the part of the tongue. E.g., /i:/ as in 'leap'

Lax vowels are those vowels in which the tongue is held loosely. E.g. /i/ as 'lip'

The three term label i.e. rounded/unrounded vowel (on the basis of the position of the lips); front /back/central vowel (on the basis of the part of the tongue that is raised in the production of vowels) and close/open/half close/ half open (on the basis of the height to which

the tongue is raised) are not sufficient to describe the actual vowels in the language accurately. For this purpose, **cardinal** Vowel system has been developed.

CARDINAL VOWELS

The term cardinal vowel was introduced by A.M Bell but later on the concept of Cardinal vowels came to be associated with Daniel Jones. Cardinal vowels are specially selected vowels which can be used as points of reference from which other vowels can be measured. They are not vowels of any particular language. The system of eight cardinal vowels formulated by Daniel Jones has been accepted the world over. The vowels of particular languages can be compared to the point of cardinals. They serve as a yardstick. For example, if one knows the position of cardinal vowels no. 1 and no.2, he can easily identify another sound whose position falls somewhere between 1 and 2. For example, The English vowel /i/ as in 'sit' is very close to the cardinal vowel no. 1; but it is a little more open and slightly more towards the back.

The **following** are the eight cardinal vowels.

Cardinal vowel no. 1. /i/ front close unrounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 2. /e/ front half-close unrounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 3. /ɜ/ front half open unrounded vowel
Cardinal vowel no. 4. /a/ front open unrounded vowel.

Cardinal vowel no. 5. /ɑ / back open unrounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 6. /ɔ / back half open rounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 7. /o/ back half-close rounded vowel

Cardinal vowel no. 8. /u/ back close vowel rounded

The important thing is that the tongue may assume different position between any two of the positions described above during the articulation of a vowel that occurs in a language. So these positions are convenient points with reference to which any vowel in a given language can be described. Interestingly no English vowel is a pure cardinal vowel.

Vowels of English received pronunciation:

In English R.P (Received Pronunciation), there are twenty distinct vowel sounds. Of these twelve are monophthongs or pure vowels and the remaining eight are diphthongs.

The twelve pure vowels are given below with their three term labels:

1. /i:/ as in beat /bi:t/ - long unrounded, front, close.
2. /i/ as in bit /bit/ -short unrounded, front (slightly retracted), half close (slightly raised)
3. /e/ as in bet /bet/ -unrounded, front, open (closer to half open)
4. /æ/ as in bat /bæt/ -unrounded, front open (closer to half open)
5. /ʌ/ as in but /bʌt/ -unrounded, central, half open
6. /ɑ:/ as in bard /bɑ:d/-unrounded,back, open
7. /ɒ/as in God /gɒd/-rounded, back, open
8. /ɔ:/ as in caught /Kɔ:t/ - rounded, back half open
9. /u/ as in put /put/ - rounded back, slightly fronted, half close (slightly raised)
- 10./u:/ as in boot /bunt/ -rounded, back open
11. /ɜ:/as in bird /bɜ:d/ - unrounded central, between half-close and half open
- 12./ə/as in ago /əgəu / - unrounded central, between half close and half open

DIPHTHONGS

Diphthongs are sounds during the articulation of which the tongue starts in the position of a particular vowel and move in the direction of the position of Diphthongs in which the glide is from one vowel position to that of a close or high vowel may be called closing diphthongs.

The closing diphthongs of English R.P are:

1. /ei/ as in make /meik/
2. /ɔi/ as in boy /bɔi/
3. /ai/ as in high /hai/
4. /əu/ as in go /gəu/
5. /au/ as in how /hau/

The closing diphthongs may be classified as follows:

- i. Fronting diphthongs
- ii. Retracting diphthongs

FRONTING DIPHTHONGS:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the front vowel /i/ are called fronting diphthongs.

e.g. /ei/, /ɔi/, /ai/

RETRACTING DIPHTHONGS:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the back vowel /u/ are called retracting diphthongs.

e.g. /au/, /əu/

2. Centring Diphthongs:

The diphthongs which glide in the direction of the Central vowel /ə/ are called centring diphthongs. There are three centring diphthongs in English R.P. /i ə/ as in ear, They are: /e ə/ as in air, /u ə/ as in poor.

Diphthongs may also be classified as follows:

1. Falling Diphthongs.
2. Rising Diphthongs.

Falling Diphthongs

Diphthongs in which the first element has greater prominence than the second element are called falling diphthongs; the prominence of the sound undergoes a diminution as it passes on to the second sound. All the closing diphthongs and the centring diphthong /eə/ in English are falling diphthongs. In all these diphthongs, the second element is less prominent than the first.

Rising Diphthongs

The diphthongs with a stronger second element are called rising diphthongs. For example, in the second syllable of the word ‘period; /pi əri əd/, the first element of the diphthong may be the weaker of the two elements. The prominence increases as the articulation proceeds as in the case of the word ‘experience’. The first /i ə/ in /ɪkspɪəriəns/ is falling whereas the second one is rising.

Triphthongs

A triphthong is a monosyllabic vowel combination of a diphthong and the weak vowel /ə/.

A triphthong involves a quick but smooth movement of the articulator from one vowel quality to another that passes over a third one. E.g. trial /traɪəl/, tire /taɪə/.

Usually the closing diphthongs like /ai/, /ei/ and /u ə/ are followed by the weak vowel /ə/ within a syllable in a word. In words like ‘tire / taɪə/’ ‘hour’ /aʊə/, the closing diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ are followed by the weak vowel /ə/. Here the final vowel /ə/ forms an inseparable part of the word. But in words like ‘player’ /pleə/ and ‘prayer’

/preɪ ə/, the final /ə/ is a suffix. Where the diphthong +/ə/ is treated as a single unit, the combination is called a triphthong, whereas the diphthong +/ə/ is not treated as a single unit and the final /ə/ is a suffix, the words constitute two syllables each, the first syllable containing diphthong and the second one, the pure weak vowel /ə/. In such cases, the combination of a diphthong and the weak vowel /ə/ is not treated as a triphthong.

CONSONANTS

Consonants are sounds in the production of which there is an obstruction of the air passage narrowing the oral cavity. As a result, an audible frictional noise accompanies during

articulation. The obstruction can be of various kinds and at different points in the oral cavity causing different sounds to be produced. Consonants are classified on the basis of **the place of articulation and the manner of articulation**. Consonants are either voiced or voiceless sounds.

Classification of consonants on the basis of place of articulation:

According to the point of articulation or the point of stricture, consonants are classified as follows:

1. Bilabial:- The bilabial sounds are articulated by the two lips resulting in the consonants /p/, /b/, /m/, /w/. The lower lip is the active articulator and the upper lip is the passive articulator.
2. Labio-dental. They are articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth resulting in /f/ and /v/.
3. Dental:- They are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth as /θ/ in 'thin' and /ð/ in 'this'
4. Alveolar: - They are articulated by the tip of the tongue or the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge as in /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/, /z/
5. Post-Alveolar:- They are produced involving the tip of the tongue and the back part of the teeth ridge as /r/ in 'right'
6. Palato-Alveolar:- They are articulated by the tip and the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge with raising of the front of the tongue towards the palate i.e. along with the alveolar articulation, the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, e.g. /ʃ/ as in ship, /ʒ/ as in pleasure, /tʃ/ as in church and /dʒ/ as in judge.
7. Palatal:- They are articulated by raising the front of the tongue towards the hard palate. /j/ as in 'young' /jʌŋ/ is the only palatal sound in English.
8. Velar:- They are articulated by raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate (velum). /k/, /g/ and /ŋ/ are examples.

9. Glottal or Laryngeal: - They are articulated in the glottis. Both vocal cords are active articulators. E.g. /h/ as in the word 'he'. In the production of /h/, the glottis is completely closed and air is compressed by pressure from lungs. Then the glottis is opened by separating the vocal cords and the air escapes suddenly. It is neither breathed nor voiced.

MANNER OF ARTICULATION

On the basis of manner of articulation, consonants may be classified as follows:

1. Plosives or stop consonants : - Plosive sounds are produced by total closure of the air passage at some point with the articulators coming into firm contact with each other and the nasal cavity being blocked by the velum so that the air cannot escape through the nose. On the release of the closure, the air escapes with a rapid small explosive noise as in the utterance of sounds /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/.

There are three pairs of plosives in English:

- i. Bilabial plosive /p/,
/b/ ii. Alveolar plosive /t/,
/d/ iii. Velar plosive
/k/, /g/.

In each of the above pair, the first one is voiceless and the second one is voiced.

Plosives are again classified into:

- i. Incomplete plosion:- When a plosive consonant is followed by another plosive or an affricate sound in the same word, the first plosive is not fully pronounced as /k/ in 'act' and 'picture'. Such plosives are called incomplete plosives.
- ii. Nasal plosion: - In sequence consisting of a plosive immediately followed by a nasal sound, the plosive is not pronounced in the normal way. The explosion produced while pronouncing such sequences is not formed by the air escaping through the mouth but through the nose. This kind of plosion is called nasal plosion. E.g. /p/ in 'sharpness; and 'topmost'.

iii. Lateral plosion: - The lateral plosion occurs when /t/ and /d/ are followed by the lateral sound /l/ as in middle, little etc. In such cases, the plosion of /t/ and /d/ is lateral. i.e. the tip of the tongue raised towards the teeth ridge remaining and the air escaping through both sides of the tongue that is lowered. In other words, the plosion of /t/ and /d/ is lateral, when the tip of the tongue does not leave the teeth ridge at the Centre and the air escapes through the sides of the tongue.

iv. Glottal plosion:- The glottal plosive is produced by an interruption of the air passage by a closure of the vocal cords. The air pressure below is released by the sudden separation of the vocal cords. This is used as a syllabic boundary marker by the native speakers of English as in 'co-operates' and 'react'. This occurs when the initial sound in the second syllable is a vowel.

2. Affricates:- In the production of Affricates, there is a complete closure of air stream. But the oral closure is very slow and the release of closure is also slow and audible friction is heard as /tʃ/ in 'chair' and /dʒ/ in 'jam'. These are palato-alveolar fricatives.

During the articulation of these sounds, the air passage in the mouth is completely closed by the tip and the blade of the tongue coming into contact with the tongue with the alveolar ridge and the rims of the tongue with the upper set of teeth. The front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal cavity. When the tip and the blade of the tongue are released from the teeth ridge, the air escapes through the mouth slowly. /tʃ/ is voiceless and /dʒ/ is voiced.

3. Fricatives:- In the production of fricatives, the articulators are brought so close together and the air escapes through the narrow passage between them producing an audible friction or hissing sound e.g. /s/, /z/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, /v/, /h/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/.

Fricatives may be classified as:

- i. Labio-dental fricatives: /f/, /v/.
- ii. Dental Fricatives; /θ/, /ð/.
- iii. Alveolar Fricatives: /s/, /z/;
- iv. Palato-Alveolar

Fricatives: / ʃ /, / ʒ /, v.

Glottal Fricative: /h/.

4. Trill or Roll: - During the production of a trill or roll, the articulators come into contact with each other a number of times, producing a series of intermittent taps. E.g. /r/ -rrrrr. During the utterance of /r/ as in 'ring'. The tip of the tongue is tapping against the teeth ridge. The sound thus produced is called a trill. Instead of a series of taps, if a single tap is made by the articulators quickly coming into contact and getting separated instantly, we have a tap or a flap.

5. Lateral:- A lateral consonant is produced with the oral passage blocked at the Centre but open at the sides.. English has one lateral consonant /l/ as in 'lake'. For its production, the tip of the tongue is raised to the alveolar ridge, blocking the oral passage at the Centre, the sides of the tongue are lowered allowing the air to escape through the sides freely.

6. Nasal:- In the production of nasal sounds, the soft palate is kept lowered so that the nasal passage of air is open while the oral passage is completely blocked at some point. The lung air escapes through the nose. The nasals are articulated with a complete oral closure. English has three nasal consonants:/m/, /n/ and / ŋ / Nasals may be classified as follows:

i. Bi-labial Nasal; /m/

ii. Alveolar Nasal: /n/ iii.

Velar Nasal / ŋ /.

7. Frictionless Continuants: - During the articulation of the consonant /r/, which can be prolonged for a long time without any audible friction, the soft palate is raised closing the nasal passage and the tip of the tongue is brought near the rear part of the teeth ridge in such a way that there is sufficient gap between the two for the air to escape freely without audible friction. The /r/ in 'red' and 'right' is articulated as a frictionless continuant.

8. Semi Vowels:- Semi vowels are gliding sounds during the articulation of which, the speech organs glide from one vowel position to another. /w/as in 'west' and /j/ as in 'yard' are the semi vowels in English. In the production of /w/, the glide is from the tongue position of approximately /u:/ and for /j/, the glide is from the position of /i:/ to some other

position. They function like consonants in the structure of a syllable in spite of their vocalic quality. The frictionless continuants and semi vowels together may be called **approximants**. Such sounds are articulated with a stricture of open approximation. I.e. the gap between them is wide enough for the air to escape without any friction.

THE CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH RP

/p/ as in pin

/b/ as in big

/t/ as in tin

/d/ as in din

/k/ as in kit

/g/ as in give

/f/ as in fan

/v/ as in van

/θ/ as in thin

/ð/ as in that

/s/ as in sin

/z/ as in zip

/ʃ/ as in ship

/ʒ/ as in pleasure

/h/ as in hat

/tʃ/ as in chat

/dʒ/ as in jug

/m/ as in man

/n/ as in name

/ŋ/ as in ink

/j/ as in you

/w/ as in what

/r/ as in rat

/l/ as in lip

SUPRA SEGMENTALS (PROSODIC FEATURES)

The vowels, diphthongs and consonants are called primary phonemes. They are segmental phonemes. In addition to such phonemes, there are certain special features which affect speech sounds such as stress, pitch length or intonation and juncture. They may be called sound attributes or supra **segmental phonemes. They are also called secondary phonemes or prosodic features.**

STRESS

In words of more than one syllable, all the syllables are not articulated with the same force. Some are uttered with more prominence than others. Those that are uttered with greater force or breath effort & muscular energy are said to be the stressed or accented syllable. Stress is the degree of force with which a sound of syllable is uttered. Stress is the prominence or relative loudness given to a syllable. There are different degrees of prominence: extra loud, loud, medium & weak etc... The extra loud is used for the sake of emphasis. Generally two stresses are marked: loud or primary & medium or secondary syllables which receive the primary stress are marked with a vertical bar [] above and before the syllable that is stressed. Syllables which receive the secondary stress are marked with a vertical bar [] below & before the syllable that is stressed e.g.: examination /igzæmi'neiʃən/, resignation /resig'neiʃən/

If prominence is given to the syllables in isolated words it is called word stress, prominence given to syllables in sentences it is called sentence stress.

There are no rules for determining which syllable in a word is to be stressed. Native speakers of a language know intuitively which syllable receives primary stress & which syllable receive the secondary stress & which are not stressed at all. But it is difficult for a

non-native speaker to determine the accent on the correct syllable. This is due to the fact + that in English words, the accent is both free & fixed. **FREE ACCENT**

It is free in the sense that it is not associated with a particular syllable in many of the words of English. For e.g.: there are number of disyllable words in English with accent on the first syllable. There are also a number of disyllable words with accent on the second syllable.

EXAMPLES

Disyllabic words with stress on the first syllable

Lady /'leidi/

Enter /'entə /

Father /'fa:ðə/

Letter /'letə/

Pleasure /'pleʒə /

Disyllabic words with stress on the second syllable

Depend /di'pend/

About / ə'baut/

Forgive /fə'giv/

Escape /is'keip/

Beside /bi'said/

Trisyllabic words with stress on the first syllable

Customer /'kʌstəmə/

Anywhere /'eniweə/

Calculate /'kælkjəleɪt/

Educate /'edʒukeɪt/

Trisyllabic words with stress on the second syllable

Manner /'mænə/

Magnetic /'mægnətɪk/

Recorder /'rɪkɔːdə/

Polysyllabic words with different stress patterns

Examination /ɪgzæmi'neɪʃən/

Establishment /ɪ'stæblɪʃmənt/

Controversy /'kɒntrəvɜːsi/

Psychology /saɪ'kɒlədʒi/]

Psychological /saɪ'kɒlədʒɪkəl/

Politician /pəli'tɪʃən/

STRESS SHIFT IN DERIVATIVES

Another difficulty about English word accent is due to shift in the accent, common in derivatives. There are a number of words in which there is no stress shift in the derivation.

E.g.: Agree / ə'griː/

Agreement/ ə'gri:mənt/

But there are a number of derivatives in which there is a shift in accent causing slight changes in pronunciation.

1. Photograph /'fəʊtə'græf/ əʊtə'græf/

Photographic/'fəʊtə'græfɪk/

Photographer/fəʊ'təgræ:fə/

2. Politics/'pɒlɪtiks/ Political/pə'lɪtɪk əl/

Politician/pəli'tɪʃən/

3. Examine /ɪ'gzæmɪn/

Examination/ɪgzæmi'neɪʃən /,

STRESS IN COMPOUND WORDS

The words which are composed of two or more separate words are called compound words. In most compound words in English, the primary accent falls on one of the two elements, usually the first, others have double stress.

e.g. 1. PRIMARY SYLLABLE ON THE FIRST

Tea party /'ti:pa:ti/

Birthday /'bɜ:θdeɪ/

2. PRIMARY ACCENT ON THE SECOND SYLLABLE.

[Compound words with ever & self as second element]

Himself /hɪm'self/

Whatever /wɒt'evə/

3. Compound words in which both the elements are stressed but primary stress falls on the second element.

Absent minded /,æbsənt'maɪndɪd/

Bad tempered /,bæd'tempɜ:d/

Good looking /,gud'lʊkɪŋ/

Stress in words used as different parts of speech.

There are a number of disyllabic words in English in which word stress depends upon whether the words are used as nouns, adjectives or verbs. If the words are used as nouns or adjectives, their stress is on the first syllable & if these are used as verb, the stress is on the second syllable.

EXAMPLES

Word	Noun/Adjective	Verb
Export	/'ekspɔ:t/	/ɪks'pɔ:t/

Conduct	/ˈkɒnd ʌ t/	/k ən'd ʌ t/
Contact	/ˈkɒntækt/	/kɒn'tækt/
Import	/ˈɪmpɔ:t/	/ɪm'pɔ:t/
Absent	/ˈæbsənt/	/æb'sənt/
Perfect	/ˈpɜ:fɪkt/	/pə'fekt/
Object	/ˈɒbdʒɪkt/	/əb'dʒekt/

SENTENCE STRESS

Where the word stress is the accent on one syllable in a word, sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence. In English speech, not all words are uttered alike some words are stressed, where as others are not stressed. There is no set rule for determining which word in a sentence is stressed. However as a general rule, words in a sentence are stressed on the basis of whether they are lexical word, (content words) or structure words (grammatical words). Lexical words are the key words in a sentence. They are the important words that carry the meaning or sense. All nouns, demonstratives & interrogative pronouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc...belong to the class of words called lexical words.

Such words are stressed. Structure words or grammatical words on the other hand are semantically insignificant but they indicate grammatical relationship. Pronouns, Articles, demonstrations, prepositions, auxiliaries, relative pronouns, conjunctions etc belong to this category. Such words are not usually stressed.

ILLUSTRATION

'This is the 'house that 'Jack 'built

'What's the 'name of the 'girl on your 'left

Who's 'turned 'off the 'fan

'Mary 'bought a 'new 'pen 'Time

and 'tide 'waits for no 'man

There is 'nothing to be 'done

'Go and 'get me a 'glass of 'water 'quickly

In the above sentences, the content words are stressed and purely grammatical words are not stressed.

RHYTHM

One of the important characteristics of English language is that it is a language with a stress-timed rhythm. This means that in English stressed syllables tend to occur at a regular intervals of time.

E.g. This is the dress I like

The time intervals between the accented syllables, ‘this’, ‘dress’ and ‘like’ will be the same irrespective of the number of unaccented syllables, the time intervals between them will be roughly the same. It is this phenomenon that gives English its characteristic rhythm. Such a phenomenon is called isochrony. In order to achieve the regularity of time interval, accented syllables may have to be prolonged and unaccented ones are pronounced rapidly.

JUNCTURE

Juncture refers to the phenomenon of pauses in speech, the pause that we make between two words to make out the meaning. Juncture does not refer to transition from one sound to the next within a word but to a transition from one word to the next. Thus the sequence of sounds such as /pi:stɔ:ks/ may either mean “pea-stalks” or “peace talks”, depending on where the juncture or pause is

OTHER EXAMPLES

/aɪskri:m/-> I scream /aɪ / skri:m/ ; ice cream /aɪs/ /kri:m/

/ədres/ -> a dress /ə//dres/ ; address /ədres/

PITCH AND INTONATION

In connected speech, the pitch of the voice is continuously rising and falling. The pitch of the voice is determined by the rate at which the vocal cords vibrate the more rapidly the vocal cords vibrate, the higher will be the pitch. The voice -pitch keeps on varying in connected speech.

There are four pitch levels ranging from the lowest, marked [1], to the highest, marked [4] pitch [2] forms the base upon which most utterance begin. The voice normally rises to [3]. Just before the end of an utterance which is followed by a terminal contour (TC) that characteristics the end. The TC may be rising [] falling [] or level []

INTONATION

The term intonation is used to cover both the pattern of changes in pitch and the terminal contour. Intonation refers to significant changes of pitch and stress pertaining to sentences. Falling and rising are the two basic intonation patterns.

e.g. “sa-ri-ga-ma-padha-ni-sa

The pitch movement is from low to high [pitch rises]

“sa-ni dha-pa-ma-ga-risa”

The pitch moves from high to low [pitch falls]

The pitch movement from a low to a high pitch taking place within a single syllable is referred to as a rising intonation.

e.g. one, two, three

In listing the item the last one has fall.

“One, two and three”

Such a pitch move from a high to a low pitch is referred to as a falling intonation.

The rising & the falling intonation can be combined & the word uttered bringing the pitch down & letting it go up again. Such a pitch movement is called a fall-rise intonation.

The same sequence of words for instance. “The lady is beautiful” can be uttered with any of the three intonation pattern. If it is uttered with a falling intonation, the speaker makes a statement. If on the other hand, it is uttered with a rising intonation it becomes as good as questioning the attitude of another person. However, if the same sentence is uttered with a rising- falling intonation the implication is that there is something wrong about the lady though she is beautiful.

The falling force is marked with a downward arrow [ˋ] before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice falls, and the rising tone is marked with an upward arrow [ˊ] before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice rises.

FUNCTIONS OF INTONATION

1. The falling tone: the falling tone is used in the following contexts

Decorative sentences uttered as ordinary statements without any emotional implication and when the tone group is fixed as in

I went to theˋ party

I have a lot ofˋ friends

It is ˋraining

[if the tone group is non-final, that is when there is something to follow, we use a rising tone as in

“He won the prize //as hisperformance was good”

- a) W.H questions take a falling tone when uttered in the normal way i.e. expecting some information in the reply and sometimes in a cold unfriendly way:-

Why are youˋ late?

Where do youˋ live?

How did you doˋ it?

- b) Commands take a falling tone

e.g. ‘open yourˋ books

‘Do as I say

- c) Exclamations also take the falling tone ‘Whatalovelyˋ sight!

‘Whatafineˋ day!

d) In tag questions which imply that the speaker is certain about what he/she and just expects the listener to confirm what is said. e.g.

He is well // isn't he //

We don't want to go // do we? //

On the other hand, if we want the listener to answer the questions, then a rising tone will be used.

2. Rising tone

The rising tone is generally used in the following contexts

a) In complete utterance, often the first of the two clauses in a complex sentence, which indicates something more to follow, i.e. (when the tone group is non-final)

He is late // because he missed the bus //

b) In listing the items, we use, a rise for each expect the last one as in :One // two // three // four //

The fall on "four" indicate that the counting is complete

Similarly

"I bought, book, pencils, papers and a pen"

c) In declaration sentences used as questions

"We will go for a walk?"

You are ready for the test?

d) In "yes/no" questions as in

Are you dreaming?

Has your friend come? Have
you read the book?

e) In polite requests as in :-

Please pass the salt

Please open the

door Will you help
me?

- f) In W.H questions asked in a warm and friendly way indicating extra politeness and interest as in

Why are you late?
Where did you go?

- g) In tag questions where the speaker wants the listener to answer the question and give information.

She has done the work // hasn't she?

You are coming // aren't you?

3. Fall rise tone

The use of the fall rise tone indicates that the speaker implies things which are not explicitly expressed. A fall rise tone gives the impression that the listener should understand more than a literal interpretation of the words or more than what is said. For example the sentence "the girl is pretty" is uttered with a fall rise tone as in "the 'girl is pretty", it implies that she is pretty but she is stupid or there is something morally wrong about her.

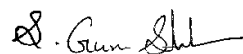
Other examples

The houses are nice (but not the people there)

I saw you at the cinema (you went out after getting Permission to go to temple)



Signature of the HOD



Signature of the Staff Assistant