Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth
Faculty of Distance Education

The Structure of Modern English
(E 111)
MA ENGLISH PART - I

E111 The Structure of Modern English

Section A - Aspects of Linguistic Organization

OBJECTIVES:

1. To familiarize students with the ideology of Communication, and English language as a means of communication.
2. To familiarize students with the phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic systems of the English language.
3. To acquaint them with the main geographical, registral and social varieties of English.
4. To focus on situational, contextual, social and cultural appropriateness besides grammatical correctness.
5. To acquaint students with the basic concepts in pragmatic theory and stylistics and give them practice in the application of these concepts.

SYLLABUS:

Unit - I

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Communication

1.1 What is Communication?
1.2 Barriers to Communication
1.3 Principles of Effective Communication
1.4 Non-Verbal Communication
1.5 Categories of Non-verbal Communication
1.6 Characteristics of Language
1.7 Functions of Language
1.8 Displacement

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Reference Books

1. Quirk, R.S. Greenbaum (1973), A University Grammar of English, London: Longman
3. Thorat Ashok, (2008), Discourse Analysis, CUP.
9. Palmer, Frank – Semantics (CUP)

Section B - English Language Today

OBJECTIVES:

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SYLLABUS:

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iv) Universe of Discourse

v) Use of Distal Deixis in Fiction

Reference Books


2. Thorat Ashok, (2008), Discourse Analysis, CUP.


5. Palmer, Frank – Semantics (CUP)


Faculty of Distance Education

The Structure of Modern English

(E 111)
Introduction

Dear Students,

We are happy about the fact that we have reached important milestone while handing it over to you the study material based on the revised syllabus of M.A. English Part 1.

Truly speaking, it is a challenge to prepare the study material for post graduation course, especially that which is based on language and literature. We are thankful to the faculty members who have prepared it with single minded devotion.

Following objectives were considered while revising the syllabi of M.A. English:

1. To acquaint students with major trends in English literature through a detailed study of specific literary texts.
2. To improve the linguistic competence along with the literary competence of students.
3. To enable students to read and appreciate the literary texts.
4. To cultivate among students a sense of understanding in order to make them better human beings by the exposure to literature.
5. To enable the students to understand and appreciate the various forms (i.e. drama, fiction, poetry etc.) of English literature.
6. To focus on contribution of India and United States of America to English literature.
7. To create awareness regarding the structure of modern English and literary theory.
8. To introduce the various aspects of literary criticism for proper understanding and appreciation of literature.
9. To acquaint the students with different theoretical and practical aspects and components of language and literature teaching.
10. To introduce the students to the concept of research and with the terminology associated with research activity.

Dear students, marks are important, no doubt; but achieving the above mentioned objectives is more important.

In the first part of your syllabus, you would be able to study the structure of modern English from the linguistic point of view. Papers like, Drama and fiction would be enjoyable to you as you would be able to appreciate the works of important authors. Indian literature paper would introduce you to the important landmarks of the Indian philosophy and culture.

We take this opportunity to express our gratitude towards Hon. Vice Chancellor Dr. Deepak Tilak, Hon. Dean – Faculty of Distance Education Dr. M.C. Dixit and Hon. Registrar Dr. Umesh Keskar for their continued guidance and support in this regard.

We are thankful to Prof. Sayali Godbole for the development of this study material.

We wish you all the Best

Sunita Dighe

Head

Dept. of Distance Education
Use the study material in this way

- The outline given at the beginning of the chapter highlights the main points. Hence, you will know what the chapter is about.

- For concentration, read every subpart carefully.

- Read everything carefully. If necessary, take the help of the glossary given at the end.

- The margin provided on each page is for you to note down your points. Make proper use of that.

- After you have read one part of a chapter, take a break and solve the objective type or short type questions given in “check your progress”. Check your answers with those given at the end of the chapter and correct the wrong answers if any.

- Study all the chapters in this way.

- The field work given at the end of some chapters is to enhance your study, your experience and your understanding of language as well as literature as a whole.

- Before starting the next chapter, do a quick revision of what you have studied earlier. For this, read the summary of the previous chapters.

- For a total comprehension of the subject, reading of the whole book and its study is essential.

- Question bank is given at the end of the book. Try to solve it as many times as possible for practice.

- Reading the prescribed text as well as reference material is essential for the proper understanding of the subject.
About the Subject

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. This paper aims at making students familiar with various levels of linguistic analysis, namely phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics and stylistics. It acquaints students with all the basic concepts in different levels of linguistic organization. It is essential to study this paper not just at the theoretical level, but at the practical level as well.

This paper also acquaints students with the ideology of communication. We hope that this study material would help all the students to develop their linguistic as well as communicative competence. We wish you all the best in this endeavor.

There are differences between native and non-native varieties of English. British English and American English are considered to be institutionalized and systematic varieties of English. However, in the last few decades, it has been observed that some of the non-native varieties of English have also gained recognition and generally they are considered to be worthy of study in their own right. This paper takes a survey of the general nature of British, American and Indian English as Varieties of English. Last chapter introduces us to the recent branch of linguistic study i.e. Stylistics.

We hope that this study material would help all the students to develop their linguistic as well as communicative competence. We wish you all the best in this endeavor.
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CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION

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Check Your Progress – Answers

Field Work

1.0 Objectives
Dear Students, studying this chapter in detail would enable you to

Explain the concept of Communication

Describe the characteristics of Communication

Describe the barriers to Communication
Explain the concept of Non-verbal Communication
Elaborate essential Categories of Non-verbal Communication
Describe the principles of Effective Communication

1.1 Introduction

Man is a social animal and he loves to interact and share his ideas with the people in the society. According to Humboldt ‘Man is man through language alone’. The word communication is derived from the Latin word ‘communis’ which means to share, to transmit or to impart. Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) define the term communication as ‘The exchange of ideas, information etc between two or more persons’.

Peter Little in his book ‘Oral and Written communication’ defines it as ‘Communication is the process by which information is transmitted between individuals and /or organizations so that an understanding response results’. According to Wales (1989), ‘Communication is broadly the process of exchanging information or messages, and human language, in speech and writing is the most significant and most complex communication system’ (p. 79).

Kaul (2000) comments,

‘Communication is a two way process in which there is an exchange and progression of ideas towards a mutually accepted direction or goal’ (p. 2).

Basically communication is the process of transferring meanings. Today a lot of significance is given to the enrichment of communication skills as good communication skills has become a key to success today. Good communication skills help us in a variety of ways as they play a very significant role in career, building self confidence and developing social contacts.

1.1 Check your Progress

Answer in ½ sentences

1. From which language is the word “Communication” derived?
2. What is communication?

1.2 What is Communication?

The term Communication comes from the Latin word “Communis” which means common. Communication refers to the commonness or sharing of information, ideas, facts, opinions, attitudes and understanding. Communication essentially means transmission of commonly meaningful information.

Keith Davis defines communication as “the transfer of information and understanding from one person to another person. It is a way of reaching others with facts, ideas, thoughts and values. It is a bridge of meaning among people so that they can share what they feel and
know. By using this bridge a person can cross safely the river of misunderstanding that sometimes separates people.”

Thus, it is clear that communication involves two parties the sender and the receiver. The sender transmits message to the receiver with the aim of establishing common knowledge and understanding over the meaning. It is only through transmitting meaning from one person to another that information and ideas can be conveyed. Therefore, communication must include both the transference and the understanding of meaning.

1.2.1 Barriers to Communication-

There are several factors which affect or hinder effective communication. Barriers to communication are blocks which interrupt or hinder effective communication and prevent mutual understanding. Kaul (2000) defines the term ‘Barriers to Communication’ as ‘Anything that blocks communication at any phase of the communication process’.

There can be barriers at different levels, at the level of the transmitter, the receiver or the channel. The barriers to communication are as follows,

1) **Lack of Motivation**
   If the sender or receiver of the information is not interested in the process of communication, or in other words if he or she lacks motivation, then it hampers successful communication. For example, if the teacher does not possess the desire to teach, this will hamper effective communication. Also if the receiver of the information lacks motivation, successful communication does not take place. For example, if the students are not interested in the lecture and they are not motivated, this proves to be an obstacle for effective communication.

2) **Physical Exhaustion**
   If the sender or the receiver of the information is physically exhausted, effective communication does not take place. For example, if a person who wishes to appear for an interview is physically exhausted, this would affect his performance in the interview.

3) **Emotional Disturbance**
   If the person is emotionally disturbed; it proves to be an obstacle for effective communication. For example, if the student who is attending the lecture is worried about something, it is difficult for him to concentrate and this hampers effective communication. If a person who has to face an interview is not feeling well and he is emotionally disturbed, his performance in the interview gets affected.

4) **Distractions**
   If there are distractions, the speaker is not able to concentrate. Due to distractions, for example, because of some kind of noise, he may not be in a position to organize the information that he has to put forth. If a student draws a picture while the teacher is delivering the lecture, his partner gets distracted.

5) **Attitudes and Opinions**

Personal attitudes and opinions often act as barriers to effective communication. If the information lies in the framework of our opinions and attitudes, we tend to receive it favorably, but if the information is contrary to our views and opinions, we do not react in a favorable way. It is believed that even if the speaker and the listener are powerful, cent percent communication can never take place because of the barriers to communication. Though we cannot get rid of all the barriers to communication, an attempt must be made to overcome barriers to the best possible level.

1.2.2 Principles of Effective Communication

The Principles of Effective Communication are as follows-

1) **Clarity**

Absolute clarity of ideas adds a lot to the meaning of the message. As far as possible, simple language and easy sentence constructions should be used while communicating, so that it is not difficult for the receiver to grasp whatever is said.

2) **Correctness**

At the time of encoding, the sender should ensure that his knowledge of the receiver is comprehensive. The level of knowledge, educational background and status of the decoder help the encoder in formulating his message.

3) **Conciseness**

It is said ‘Brevity is the soul of the wit’, and the same can be said about communication. The message to be communicated should be as brief and concise as possible, Weighty language definitely sounds impressive, but it may be difficult for the listeners to understand. So one must provide as much information as is required, neither more, nor less.

4) **Proper Message**

The communicator should construct the message in an effective way. Encoding should be done with proper care and thinking.

5) **Sincerity**

Both the sender and the receiver should be genuinely interested in the process of communication. The sender must give his listener the opportunity of turn taking, and must not speak continuously.

1.2 Check Your Progress

Answer the following in 2/3 Sentences.

1. Define Communication.

2. How the lack of motivation affects communication?
3. State the Principles of Effective Communication.

1.3 Non-verbal communication

It is often termed as non-linguistic communication. It is communication by means of elements that are not coded into words.

Communication that takes place with the help of gestures, facial expressions, signs and symbols is termed as non-verbal communication. It is possible to classify non-verbal communication into vocal and non-vocal communication. Vocal non-verbal communication is made with the use of vocal cords. For example, when someone says ‘hmm’ it involves the use of vocal cords. On the other hand, those means of communication that do involve the use of organs of speech in any way is termed as non-vocal non-verbal communication.

Both these types of communication are important and play a crucial role in our life and so must make an attempt to develop both the types of communication. In the study of drama both verbal and non-verbal communication are important and students of literature must study both these forms of communication to make the study of drama an enriching experience for them.

1.3.1 Categories of Nonverbal Communication

There are three major categories of non-verbal communication –

i) Kinesics/ Body language
ii) Proxemics / use of the environment or space
iii) Paralanguage

1) Kinesics/ Body language -

It is probably the best known type of non-verbal communication. It is also known as Kinesics. Through body language people communicate meaning to others in their interactions with them. A glance, a stare, a frown, a smile, a foot tapping and so on can convey meanings without uttering a single word. Body language or Kinesics essentially signifies body movement and typically includes gestures, movement of head, hands, feet or limbs. It also encompasses “touch” – the basic form of human communication. Touch plays a major role in the form of such actions as stroking, hitting, holding, patting, and hand-shaking – so important in human interaction.

Face can communicate emotionally charged messages. Facial expressions are rich and reliable source of information. They can show the range of emotions such as fear, happiness, surprise, anger etc. The following figure would be of great help-

2) Proxemics
Proxemics is the term Hall has coined “for interrelated observations and theories of man’s use of space as a specialized elaboration of culture” Proxemics involves how one arranges one’s personal space and what one arranges in it.

A) Intimate Zone – Up to 1.5 feet. Only special people are allowed to enter this space. Others, on special occasions, may enter (pat on the back, hand shake etc.) but briefly.
B) Personal Zone – 1.5 feet to 4 ft. Friendly conversations, spontaneous unprogrammed communications occur here.
C) Social Zone – 4 feet to 12 ft. Impersonal business or casual conversation, more formal.
D) Public Zone – Beyond 12 feet

3) **Paralanguage**

“Para” means like. Paralanguage deals with “how” people say something. Certain voice qualities have impact on the tone of message. E.g. pitch, rhythm, tempo and volume are important in conveying meaning. High pitch voice indicates anger. Soft pitch indicates affection. Vocal Characteristics include such vocalizations as clearing the throat, coughing, yawning, laughing, grunting and crying. Paralanguage also includes vocal segregates like “ah’s”, um’s etc. Pauses, silences between utterances are important in Paralanguage.

1.3 **Check your Progress**

**Fill in the gaps by choosing correct option.**

1. Non Verbal Communication is often termed as --------- Communication. (Non-Linguistic, linguistic, Para- Linguistic)

2. Proxemics means --------- (use of environment or space, use of space only, use of environment only)

3. Personal Zone is between ----------- and---------------- feet. (1.5 to 4 feet, 4.5 to 5 feet, 2.5 to 5 feet)

4. Paralanguage deals with --------- people say something. (what, where, when, how)

1.4 **Characteristics and Functions of Language**-

1.4.1 **Characteristics** -

As said before, language plays a very significant role in our life and it is very difficult to imagine human life without communication. It is language that distinguishes man from other animals. According to Dr. Johnson ‘Language is the Dress of Thought’. Noam Chomsky (1957) defines language as

‘a set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed of a finite set of elements’.
Sapir (1921) comments,

‘Language is purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols’.

When we say that we use a particular language, we imply that we know the sounds of that language, the meaning of words, appropriate grammatical structure and also we possess the appropriate knowledge of the context in which it can be used. There have been a number of attempts to determine the characteristic features of human language and different writers have discussed several characteristic features of language. The features given below are uniquely a part of human language and they are unlikely to be found in the communication system of other creatures.

The characteristics of language are as follows

1) **Language is Arbitrary**

According to Saussure, who is the Father of Modern Linguistics, language is a system of arbitrary signs. The relationship between the word and the object that it stands for is wholly arbitrary as there is no logical relationship between the word and the object. The relationship is totally based on conventions followed unconsciously by the native speakers of the language. The following examples exemplify this point. There is no logical reason as to why the object ‘chair’ is called a ‘chair’. There is absolutely no connection between the word ‘dog’ and the four legged animal that it stands for. However, once the native speakers label something with the use of some words, usually it remains stable for a sufficiently long span of time.

In case of onomatopoeic words like ding-dong and tick-tock, there is some natural relationship between word and its meaning. However, even such words are partly arbitrary as different languages have different words to represent the same sounds. In animal communication, on the other hand, there is frequently a connection between the signals and the messages sent. For example, an animal that has a desire to warn an opponent may simulate an attacking attitude. Thus, since there is no natural link between a linguistic form and its meanings, it can be said that the symbols used in human communication are arbitrary.

2) **Language is a Rule Governed Behavior**

Native speakers of the language have the ability to understand and produce sentences that he has not come across before. In other words, the total numbers of messages that can be conveyed in any language are infinite. The Grammar of a language consists of a limited set of rules and with these limited set of rules; it is possible to make infinite sentences. Different users of the language share the same set of rules and therefore communication is possible.

3) **Language is Creative**

Language is a unique phenomenon on this earth as other planets do not seem to have any language. Language has creativity and productivity. One of the specialties of language is that a child listens to some utterances from his mother tongue, and he is able to produce new
utterances that he has not heard or listened to before. According to some scholars animals can communicate, however, their messages as well as symbols are limited in quantity and dimension. For example, bees can communicate only about the nectar. It has been observed that Dolphins, in spite of their intelligence, use a large number of clicks, whistles and squawks to communicate merely about the same thing over and over again. Human languages, on the other hand, are much more interestingly unlimited. Human communication is structurally complex while the animal communication is not. Animal communication does not display the feature of creativity, whereas human communication is creative. A lot of new vocabulary items are created in language. For example, Milton has made use of the word ‘pandemonium’ in ‘Paradise Lost’. Creativity may consist in syntactic or semantic deviation. Literary language very often manifests a high degree of creativity. For example, Dylan Thomas in one of his poems uses the phrase ‘A grief ago’.

4) Language is a system of sub-systems

Language as a system consists of many sub-systems within it. The three basic sub-systems of language are

i) Phonology- It deals with the sound system of a particular language.
ii) Syntax- It deals with the principles of sentence structure.
iii) Semantics- It deals with the study of meaning.

All these sub-systems should coordinate well with each other for using language in an effective manner.

5) Languages are dynamic

Animal communication is basically static. On the other hand, human language is dynamic. The changes in human life, culture and civilization invite appropriate new words in language. Change in lexicon and syntax is an important quality of a human language. For example, there is a difference in the way English is used today and it was used during Shakespeare’s times. Thus, the human language changes along the dimensions of time and space. However, it must be remembered that language change is a very gradual process. Languages do not change so much that we cannot recognize them at all.

6) Languages are species specific and species uniform

It is a special property of human beings. Even a very intelligent ape cannot master the language in the sense in which human beings can master it. Language is species specific in the sense that only human beings can acquire language, and animals cannot acquire the language in the sense in which human beings can. Language is species uniform because all normal human beings are able to acquire language. We do not have such a case where the normal baby is not able to communicate.

7) Duality of Structure

The number of messages that animals can send are restricted as animals have a stock of only few sounds. On the contrary, human language is not a haphazard list of individual
sounds. The sounds that human beings utter become meaningful when they are combined with other sounds. This organization of language into two layers that is a layer of sounds which combines into a layer of larger units such as words and sentences is termed as duality of structure.

8) **Culture preserving and culture transmitting features**

Man owes his overdeveloping culture and civilization to language. Language helps man to preserve culture and also transfer the concepts of culture from one civilization to another. There is a very close relationship between language and culture. Culture is highly reflected in the language and culture has a noticeable impact on the language. Language is handed down by one generation to another and this can be described as ‘cultural transmission’. It has been observed by linguists that a child who is brought up in isolation fails to acquire language. This is due to the fact that the child does not get any exposure to the language.

Thus, the above discussion reveals that language is one of the most precious possessions of man and it is certainly a very important part of our human existence.

### 1.4.2 Functions of Language

Language is a means of communication and performs different functions. Some of the main functions of language are

1) **Informative**
2) **Expressive**
3) **Directive**
4) **Phatic**
5) **Aesthetic**

One of the functions of language is to provide information to the listener or the reader. For example, the news items in the newspapers inform the readers about the current state of affairs. Peter Little in the book ‘Communication in business’ defines communication as ‘a process by which information is transmitted between individuals and/or organization so that an understanding response results’. The definition reveals that one of the functions of language is to transmit information. In fact, one of the main purposes of communication is to inform.

Language is also used as a medium to express the speaker’s ideas, feelings, emotions and thoughts. For example, poets use language as a means of expressing their feelings.

Language can also be used to ask someone to do something, and in this sense it performs the directive function. For example, ‘Please close the window’.

The term ‘Phatic communion’ was used by Malinowski to refer to a communication between people which is not intended to seek or convey information but has the social
function of establishing or maintaining social contact. For example, expressions like ‘How are you?’ or ‘Hello’ are used to start the conversation.

The aesthetic function of language suggests that language is often used as a creative way of expression.

Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) discuss the functions of language pointed out by the British linguist Halliday. According to him the three main functions of the language are

A) The Ideational function of language
B) The Interpersonal function of language
C) The Textual function of language

The ideational function is to organize the speaker’s or writer’s experience of the real or imaginary world, i.e. language refers to real or imagined persons, things, actions, events, states, etc.

The interpersonal function is to indicate, establish, or maintain social relationships between people. It includes forms of address, speech function, modality, etc.

The textual function is to create written or spoken texts which cohere within themselves and which fit the particular situation in which they are used.

1.4 Check your Progress

1. Choose the correct alternative from the following.

1. Language is
   a. Rule Governed behavior
   b. Role Governed behavior
   c. State Governed behavior
   d. Road Governed behavior

2. Language is a
   a. System of systems
   b. System of sub Systems
   c. System of System
   d. Systems of Systems

3. Language is
   a. Artery
   b. Artillery
   c. Arbitrary
   d. Amatory

2. Fill in the gaps by choosing correct option.

1. Language is called as purely human and -------- method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols. (Non-instinctive, non-human)
2. Language is ............ Specific. (spices, species)
3. Language is handed down by one generation to another and this can be described as -

--------------------------
(Cultural heritage, cultural transmission)

1.5 Displacement

The language of animals is instinctive. In a particular situation, they create a particular sound. If there is an entirely new situation, they cannot create a new sound that is appropriate to the new situation. Animals cannot communicate in imaginative situations. They cannot talk about something that took place in the past time, nor can they talk about something that will take place in the future. For example, an animal cannot pass on a message like ‘I will see you tomorrow morning’. Thus, most animals are able to communicate about things in the immediate environment only. For example, an animal may utter its cry of danger only when the danger is actually present. But an animal fails to give information about a danger which is removed in time and place. On the other hand, it is possible for human beings to talk about the past experiences and at the same time talk about the future. The speech of human beings is not directly controlled by stimulus and in that sense it is ‘context free’. On the other hand, animal communication is ‘context bound’ as in case of animals their needs like hunger and thirst form a stimulus and they motivate the animals to produce a signal. The context free communication ability of human beings is termed as displacement. Human beings alone are capable to convey precise information to their listeners through speech or language. Thus, to sum up, it can be said that animal communication is tied down to ‘here and now'; whereas human language enables us to go beyond.

1.5 Check Your Progress

Choose the correct alternative from the following.

1. The language of animals is
   a. intrinsic
   b. instinctive
   c. intimate
   d. intentional

2. Animals cannot communicate in- 
   a. imaginative situations 
   b. imaginary situations 
   c. imagist situations
d. immediate situations

3. Animal Communication is –
   a. Context free
   b. Context bound
   c. Context specific
   d. Contextual

4. Context free Communication ability of human beings is –
   a. disclosure
   b. displeasure
   c. displacement
   d. none of the above

1.6 Conclusion

Thus, Communication plays a key role in human relations. Language acts as an effective tool to communicate. Hence, it is important to learn to use language proficiently. In order to use language proficiently, the knowledge of human physiology, speech organs and their mechanism is essential. For that, the knowledge of “Phonology” is important. The next chapter would be of great help to you to be able to explain the concept of phonology.

Summary

Dear students, in this chapter we learnt the following concepts-
Communication

Verbal non verbal

Characteristics of Language Functions of Language Barriers Principles Categories

Rule Governed Ideational Lack of Motivation Clarity Kinesics
Behavior Interpersonal Physical Exhaustion Correctness Proxemics
System of sub systems Textual Emotional Disturbance Conciseness Paralang.
Species Specific Informative Distractions Proper Message
Dynamic Expressive Attitudes and Opinions Sincerity
Arbitrary Aesthetic Phatic Removal of Barriers
Species Uniform Directive

Check Your Progress – Answers

1.1
1. The word ‘Communication’ is derived from the latin language.
2. Basically communication is the process of transferring meanings.

1.2
1. The term Communication comes from the Latin word “Communis” which means common. Communication refers to the commonness or sharing of information, ideas, facts, opinions, attitudes and understanding.

2. If the sender or receiver of the information lacks motivation, then it hampers successful communication. For example, if the teacher does not possess the desire to teach, this will hamper effective communication. Also if the receiver of the information in this case, the student, lacks motivation, successful communication does not take place.

3. Clarity, Conciseness, Correctness, proper message, sincerity and removal of barriers are the essential principles of communication.

1.3

1. Non-Linguistic

2. Use of environment or space,

3. 1.5 to 4 feet

4. how

1.4

1. Non- instinctive

2. Species

3. Cultural transmission

1.5

1. b. instinctive

2. a. imaginative situations
3. b. Context bound
4. c. displacement

Field Work

Visit a nearby public library and read more information about “Communication” from the book available over there.
CHAPTER 2

PHONOLOGY

2.0 Objectives
2.1 Introduction

2.2 Phonemes/Sounds of English

2.3 Place and Manner of Articulation

2.3.1 Description of Vowels and Consonants

2.3.2 Phonemes of British R.P. and Phonemes of G.I.E.

2.4 Syllable

2.5 Word Stress

2.5.1 Weak Forms

2.5.2 Sentence Stress – Division and Groups

2.6 Intonation

2.7 Conclusion

2.8 Summary

Check Your Progress – Answers

Field Work

2.0 Objectives
Dear Students, after studying this chapter in detail, you would be able to
Explain the concept of “Phonology”.

Describe phonemes and Sounds of English.

Explain the place and manner of articulation.

Describe the Vowels and Consonants in English.

Distinguish between phonemes and allophones.

2.1 Introduction
Dear Students, Language is a human system of communication through speech. Language is primarily speech. Written language represents the spoken language through visual symbols. The general study of speech sounds is called phonetics. Every language has a set of sounds, with various combinations of which words of the language are formed. Speech is transmitted through sound waves, which are received by the hearer. Then the message of those sound waves is sent through nerves to the hearer’s brain. In order to decode the message, it is necessary for the hearer to have learnt the linguistic code, i.e. the language, in which the speaker has sent the message. The three parts of this process are studied in the three branches of phonetics. In articulatory phonetics, we study how speech sounds are made. Acoustic phonetics studies the physical properties of speech as sound waves and Auditory phonetics studies the perception of speech sounds via ears. We are going to study only articulatory phonetics.

**The Organs of speech**

Speech sounds are made with the help of air-stream coming out of the lungs. The air that is inhaled goes to lungs. When one speaks, the air is released in a certain way. There are some organs of the human body that are used as organs of speech. At the top of the trachea or the wind-pipe is the larynx. The larynx contains vocal cords. The vocal cords can be brought together or held apart. If they are held close together, they vibrate when the air coming from the lungs passes through them. This gives rise to a voiced sound. If they are spread apart, the sound is voiceless. Therefore, speech sounds can either be voiced or voiceless. The opening between the vocal cords is called glottis. After passing through the larynx, the air comes further up and it comes out through the mouth and/or the nose. The roof of the mouth is divided into three parts. The alveolar ridge (also called the teeth ridge) is just behind the upper teeth. The other two parts are the hard palate and the soft palate. The end of the soft palate is called the uvula.
(1) Bilabial (2) Labiodental (3) Dental and interdental (4) Alveolar

(5) Postalveolar (a) retroflex (b) palato-alveolar


When the soft palate is lowered, the air can be released through the nose and when it is raised, the air cannot go into the nasal cavity. So, the air has to come out through the mouth. The lips can be spread or be kept in neutral, open or rounded positions. The tongue has the following sections – tip, blade, front and back. Various parts of the tongue can either make a contact with the roof of the mouth somewhere or can be brought close to it when a consonant is articulated. When a vowel is articulated, the front, the centre or the back part of the tongue is raised towards the roof of the mouth.

2.1 Check Your Progress
Answer in ½ sentences.
1. Define Phonetics.
2. What do we study in articulatory Phonetics?
3. What is studied by acoustic Phonetics?
4. What is studied by auditory Phonetics?

2.2 Phoneme/Sounds of English

A phoneme is a smallest, significant sound-unit of a language. It is smallest in the sense that it cannot be divided further. A sentence can be divided into words and a word can be divided into syllables. For instance, the word 'reader' has two syllables. A syllable can be divided into phonemes. 'Reader' contains the phoneme /r/. But it cannot be divided further. A phoneme is a significant sound-unit of a language in the sense that replacing one phoneme of a language by another one of the same language can change the meaning of the word in which the phoneme appears. For example, if we replace the phoneme /r/ by the phoneme /l/ in the word 'reader', the meaning changes, as we get a different word ('leader'). The study of the phonemes of a language is called phonology. The phonemes of a language can be found with the help of minimal pairs like 'reader' and 'leader'. A minimal pair is a pair of words that has all phonemes in common except one, such as /r/ and /l/ in this pair.

Allophone

An allophone is a variant of a phoneme. For instance, the phoneme /l/ of standard British English (generally referred to as British R.P. – i.e. Received Pronunciation) has two variants, one as in the word 'light' and the other as in the word 'cattle'. They are just variations in the articulation of the same phoneme. They are not significant as far as the meaning of a word is
concerned. For instance, Indian speakers of English generally pronounce the word 'cattle' with the same allophone of /l/ as in 'light', but this does not change the meaning of the word. Different allophones of the phoneme may be used when the phoneme occurs in different positions or contexts.

2.2 Check Your Progress
Fill in the blanks with suitable option.
1. A ........ is a smallest, significant sound-unit of a language. (phoneme, morpheme)
2. A ........ is a pair of words that has all phonemes in common except one, such as /r/ and /r/ in this pair. (maximum pair, minimal pair)
3. An ........ is a variant of a phoneme. (allomorph, allophone)

2.3 Place and Manner of Articulation

Places of Articulation –

The Places of Articulation are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Label</th>
<th>Active Articulator</th>
<th>Passive Articulator</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
<td>Lower lip</td>
<td>Upper lip</td>
<td>/p/, /m/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Labio dental</td>
<td>Lower lip</td>
<td>Upper teeth</td>
<td>/f/, /v/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dental/ inter dental</td>
<td>Tip of the tongue</td>
<td>Upper teeth</td>
<td>/th/, /de/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Alveolar</td>
<td>Tip and blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge</td>
<td>/s/, /t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Post alveolar</td>
<td>Tip and blade of the tongue</td>
<td>Back part of the alveolar ridge</td>
<td>/r/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Palatal</td>
<td>Front of the tongue</td>
<td>Hard palate</td>
<td>/j/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Palate-alveolar</td>
<td>Tip, blade and front of the tongue</td>
<td>Alveolar ridge and Hard palate</td>
<td>/ts/, /sh/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Velar</td>
<td>Back of the tongue</td>
<td>Soft Palate</td>
<td>/k/, /g/, /j/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Glottal</td>
<td>Vocal cords</td>
<td>Vocal cords</td>
<td>/h/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Manners of Articulation:

1. Plosives
   In case of /p/, /t/, /g/, there is complete closure of the air passage and sudden release of air pressure. Soft palate is raised so the nasal passage is closed, there is oral closure. Air pressure is built up behind the obstruction. Air is released with an explosion.

   Such sounds are known as “Plosives”. In English, there are 6 plosives - /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/. /p/ /b/ are called as bilabial. /t/, /d/ are called as alveolar and /k/ /g/ are called as velar. First consonant in each group is voiceless sound and second one is voiced. Hence, /p/, /t/, /k/ are voiceless and /b/, /d/, /g/ are voiced.

2. Fricatives
   In case of fricatives, there is a narrowing of the air passage so as to cause audible friction. E.g. /s/, /sh/, /h/. These are characterized by the close approximation of the articulators and the gap between them is very narrow. There are 9 fricatives in English. /f/ /v/, /th/ /de/, /s/ /z/, /sh/ and /h/.

   /f/ /v/ are known as labiodentals, /th/ /de/ are known as dentals, /s/ /z/ are called as alveolar and /sh/ /h/ are called palato alveolar. /h/ is known as glottal sounds.

3. Affricates
   In case of affricates, there is a complete closure of an air passage. Lot of air pressure is built up behind the obstruction. The tongue is lowered a little, narrowing of the air passage causing audible friction. They are characterized by complete closure and slow release of the air pressure. /d…/, /t…/ are known as affricates.

4. Nasals
   In case of nasals, soft palate is lowered so that the nasal passage is open. There is a closure somewhere in the mouth. Hence, air can’t come out through the mouth. There is an oral closure. /m/, /n/, /…/ are nasals.

5. Lateral
   Sides of the tongue are lowered. Hence, air can escape freely along the sides of the tongue. This is characterized by closure in the central part of the mouth. /l/ is a lateral sound.

6. Semi vowels
In case of semivowels, when front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, it is known as palatal, when back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate, it is known as labiovelar /j/ is voiced palatal semivowel and /w/ is voiced labiovelar semivowel.

2.3.1 Description of Vowels and consonants:

Phonemes of a language can be divided into two main types – vowels and consonants. It is wrong to assume that 'a, e, i, o, u' are the only vowels in English. They are vowel letters. But there are twenty vowel sounds in British R.P. A vowel is a sound in the articulation of which the air coming from the lungs comes out freely, without being obstructed anywhere in its way. But that is not the case with a consonant, in the articulation of which the air-stream is obstructed somewhere or the other, making use of various organs of speech in the obstruction. A vowel sound can be pronounced independently, where as it may not be possible to articulate a consonant sound independently. A consonant can be pronounced with the help of a vowel accompanying it.

**Oral and nasal sounds:**

There are no nasalized sounds in English. All the twenty vowel sounds in English are oral sounds, as the air is released through the mouth in their articulation. Of the twenty-four consonants, twenty-one are oral sounds. There are only three nasal sounds in English. They are the following consonants - /m/ as in 'must', /n/ as in 'nice' and /ŋ/ as in 'song'. In these three sounds, the air comes out through the nose.

**Voiceless and voiced sounds:**

All the vowels in English are voiced, as the vocal cords vibrate in their articulation. Some of the consonants of English are voiceless and some are voiced. The following consonants are voiceless - /p/, /t/, /k/, /tʃ/, /θ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /h/. The following consonants are voiced - /b/, /d/, /g/, /dʒ/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /w/.

**The vowels of British R.P.:**

The following are the vowels of British R.P. They are further classified as pure vowels and diphthongs. If the quality of a vowel remains the same, it is a pure vowel. If there is a glide from one quality to another, it is called a diphthong or a vowel glide.

**Pure vowels**

/i:/ as in tree /tri:/

week /wiːk/

heal /hiːl/

/l/ as in sit /sɪt/

hill /hɪl/
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Word 1</th>
<th>Word 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>kick</td>
<td>/klk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>cap</td>
<td>/kæp/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/Æ/</td>
<td>cup</td>
<td>/kÆp/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/a:/</td>
<td>far</td>
<td>/fa:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>hot</td>
<td>/hɒt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɔ:/</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>/ɔ:l/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u:/</td>
<td>true</td>
<td>/tru:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u:/</td>
<td>smooth</td>
<td>/smuːθ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u:/</td>
<td>cool</td>
<td>/kuːl/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
/ə:/ as in
earth /ɜːθ/
learn /lɜːn/
word /wɜːd/

/ə/ as in
about /əˈbaʊt/
away /əˈweɪ/
attend /əˈten/d/

Diphthongs
/el/ as in
late /leɪt/
say /sɛɪ/
name /neɪm/

/al/ as in
right /raɪt/
life /laɪf/
high /hai/ 

/əl/ as in
oil /ɔɪl/
noise /nɔɪz/
moist /mɔɪst/

/əU/ as in
go /ɡəʊ/
rose /rəʊz/

/aU/ as in
now /nəʊ/
crowd /kraʊd/

/lə/ as in
here /hɪə/
appear /əˈpɪə/
ear /ɪə/
/ɛə/ as in care /kɛə/
air /ɛə/ 
bear /bɛə/
/Uə/ as in poor /pUə/
tour /tUə/
sure /ʃUə/

The consonants of British R.P
/p/ as in pay /peI/
spin /spin/
top /tɒp/
/b/ as in bite /bait/
above /ə'bʌv/
grab /græb/
/t/ as in time /taɪm/
stand /stænd/
sweet /swi:t/
/d/ as in dust /dʌst/
sudden /'sʌdn/
speed /spi:d/
/k/ as in kit /kɪt/
scale /skeɪl/
luck /lʌk/
/g/ as in game /ɡeɪm/
begin /bl'ɡɪn/
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bag</td>
<td>/bæɡ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>child</td>
<td>/tʃəld/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher</td>
<td>/ˈtiːʃə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rich</td>
<td>/rɪtʃ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gel</td>
<td>/dʒel/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjust</td>
<td>/əˈdʒæst/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>badge</td>
<td>/bædʒ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>/faːst/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>/ˈɑːftə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rough</td>
<td>/rʌf/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very</td>
<td>/ˈvɛrɪ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>revise</td>
<td>/rɪˈvɪzl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>/ɡɪv/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>/θɪŋk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>author</td>
<td>/ˈɔːθə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>path</td>
<td>/pæθ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this</td>
<td>/ðɪs/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>/ˈʌðə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>breathe</td>
<td>/briːð/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sing</td>
<td>/sɪŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>message</td>
<td>/ˈmesɪdʒ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pass</td>
<td>/paːs/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zoo</td>
<td>/zuː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buzzer</td>
<td>/ˈbaʊzə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wise</td>
<td>/waɪz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sound</td>
<td>word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/ as in</td>
<td>shake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cushion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/θ/ as in</td>
<td>pleasure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>leisure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/h/ as in</td>
<td>hat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>behave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/m/ as in</td>
<td>mud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hammer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bomb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/n/ as in</td>
<td>need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>banner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ŋ/ as in</td>
<td>sink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hanger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/l/ as in</td>
<td>look</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>believe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>settle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/j/ as in</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/w/ as in</td>
<td>well</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
when /wen/
aware /əˈweə/
/r/ as in wrong /rɒŋ/
arrest /əˈrest/
arrow /ˈærəU/

There are a few consonants that have variation in pronunciation in the form of allophones. /p/, /t/ and /k/ have two allophones each in British R.P. When they occur at the beginning of a stressed or accented syllable, they are aspirated. In other words, there is a strong puff of breath after they are articulated. When they occur in unstressed positions, they are not aspirated. In the phonemic transcription, which is given between two slanted lines as in the above examples, an allophone is not specified. An alaphonic transcription can show the specific allophone of the phoneme that is pronounced in that context. The following are some examples.

pen [pʰen]
point [pʰɔInt]
poor [pʰUə]

take [tʰɛlk]
until [ʌn'tʰIl]
turn [tʰɔ:n]

care [ˈkʰɛə]
account [əkʰəUnt]
cake [kʰɛlk]

The exception to this is a position in which these consonants are preceded by /s/. Therefore, in words like 'special', 'spin', 'spot'; 'steel', 'standard', 'stop'; 'skill', 'school', 'skate' they are not aspirated.
The consonant /l/ also has two variants (i.e. allophones) in British R.P. The one that is found in a word like 'life' is called 'clear /l/ and the one that is used in a word like 'shuttle' is called 'dark /l/'.

2.3.2 Phonemes of British R.P. and Phonemes of G.I.E

In India, English is used in administration, law, education, business, media etc. Much Indian literature has also been written in English, like the novels of Mulk Raj Anand, R.K. Narayan, Rama Mehta and Amitav Ghosh. But, because of the interference of the Indian languages and the specific communication needs of the Indian speakers of English, Indian English is different from British English or any other native variety of English in many ways. Now, the English language as used by educated speakers of English is recognized as a variety of English. The standard educated Indian English pronunciation is sometimes termed as 'General Indian English'. There are some common features of General Indian English pronunciation that distinguish it from standard British English. The following are a few of the differences between IE (Indian English) and BRE at the level of phonology.

1) Indian speakers do not use the vowels /ə: / as in 'learn' and /ʌ/ as in 'cup'. In British R.P., these two words are pronounced as /lə:n/ and /klʌp/ respectively. These vowels are replaced by /ɒ/. Therefore, most Indian speakers of English would pronounce these words as /lɒrn/ and /kɒp/ respectively.

2) In Indian English, very often no distinction is made between short and long vowels, such as /l/ as in 'sit' and /i:/ as in 'seat', /U/ as in 'pull' and /u:/ as in 'pool' etc.

3) Indian speakers replace the long vowel /ɔ:/ of British English by the short vowel /ɒ/. Therefore, there is no difference between the pronunciation of the words 'cot' and 'caught'.

4) Indian speakers replace the British English diphthongs /eɪl/ and /əUL/ by single vowels /e:/ and /o:/ respectively. The words 'take' and 'road' are pronounced as /teIk/ and /ro:ld/ respectively in British English. They are pronounced as /te:k/ and /ro:d/ respectively in Indian English.

5) In British English, the consonant /r/ is silent when it occurs in the final position (e.g. in the words 'star', 'fur', 'stir', 'war', 'car' and 'occur') and between a vowel and a consonant (e.g. in the words 'farm', 'world', 'earth', 'turn', 'search', 'work', 'fort', 'sort' and 'argue'). In Indian English, /r/ is never silent. It is pronounced in every position in which it occurs. For example, 'farm' is pronounced as /fa:m/ in British English. However, in Indian English, /r/ is not silent in this word. As a result, the length of the vowel /a:/ is also slightly reduced in this word.

6) As mentioned above, in British R.P., the consonants /p/, /t/ and /k/ have two allophones each – one used in a stressed position [pʰ, tʰ and kʰ] and the other in an unstressed position [p, t and k]. In Indian English, they do not have any variants, but they are pronounced in the same way in every position.
7) Most Indian speakers of English replace the consonants /θ/ and /ð/ by different kinds of consonants – [tʰ] and [d] respectively.

8) Many Indian speakers of English use the consonants [pʰ] and [v] in the place of the British English consonants /f/ and /v/ respectively.

9) English is a stress-timed language. It means that the rhythm of an English sentence depends on the stressed syllables in it. But Indian languages are all syllable-timed. It means that the rhythm of a sentence in an Indian language like Marathi or Hindi depends on the length of syllables. Stress is not absent in Indian languages, but it is not a prominent feature deciding the rhythm of a sentence. Because of the influence of the mother tongue, Indian English also does not have the features of stress and stress-timed rhythm. Indian speakers of English pronounce an English word without making any syllable more prominent than the other syllables by stressing it. An English sentence spoken by an Indian speaker of English, in which the feature of stress or accent is not prominent, sounds different from one spoken by a native speaker of English, such a British or an American speaker. Indian speakers also do not use any weak forms of English words.

10) There are also some differences between British English and Indian English, as far as intonation patterns are concerned. In British English, the falling tone is used at the end of a wh-question. However, Indian speakers of English use the rising tone at the end of a wh-question as well in a yes-no question.

2.3 Check Your Progress

Choose the correct alternative from the following.

1. Speaker of English use the rising tone at the end of the wh-question as well as in a yes-no question.
   a. American
   b. Australian
   c. Indian
   d. African

2. English is _______ language
   a. stressed
   b. stress-timed
   c. stress
   d. Distressing

3. Phonemes of a language can be divided into two main types – _______ and ____________.
a. morphemes and allophones  
b. vowels and sounds  
c. consonants and allomorphs  
d. vowels and consonants  

4. a, e, i, o, u are vowel --------.  
   a. Vowel Letters  
   b. Vowel labels  
   c. Vowel leaflets  
   d. none of the above.  

5. All the twenty vowel sounds in English are ....... Sounds, as the air is released through the mouth in their articulation.  
   a. velar  
   b. alveolar  
   c. oral  
   d. palatal  

6. All Indian languages are ---------, 
   a. syllable- timed  
   b. stress-timed  
   c. syllabic  
   d. stressed  

7. All the vowels in English are ..........  
   a. voiceless  
   b. voiced  
   c. vocal
d. none of the above

8. The standard educated Indian English pronunciation is sometimes termed as ____________.

a. General Indian English
b. American English
c. British English
d. Australian English

9. Vowels are classified into two kinds. They are ____________ and ____________.

a. Vowels and Consonants
b. Vowels and Components
c. Vowels and Syllables
d. Vowels and Components

2.4 Syllable

As mentioned above, a word may consist of one or more syllables. A syllable can be articulated separately, but a phoneme may not be. A syllable contains a sound that is more prominent than the others. Usually, it is a vowel sound. The exceptions to this are the consonants /l/ and /n/ in the words 'cattle' and 'button' respectively. Vowels generally hold the central position in a syllable and consonants hold marginal positions.

2.5 Word stress (accent):

English is a stress-timed language. As mentioned above, a word consists of one or more syllables. In English, not all the syllables are equally prominent. In a word containing more than one syllable, there is a particular syllable that is made more prominent than others. The prominence is given to a syllable by employing greater breath force in its articulation as compared to the other syllables. The syllable that is thus made more prominent than others can be said to receive stress or accent, and it can be called a stressed syllable. For example, in the word 'English', there are two syllables. But they are not equally prominent. The first is made more prominent than the second by putting stress on it – /'InljI/. The primary stress or accent is shown in the phonemic transcription by putting a small vertical bar on top of the stressed syllable at the beginning.

A peculiar feature of word stress in English is that the position of word stress is not fixed in the sense that one cannot be sure that the first syllable in every word is stressed or the second one in every word is stressed etc. In some words, such as 'actor' (/ˈæktər/) and 'simple' (/ˈsɪmpl/).
'simpl/ ), 'matter' ( /'mætə/ ), 'building' ( /'bɪldɪŋ/ ) and 'drama' ( /'draːmə/ ), the stress is on the first syllable. In some words, such as 'appear' ( /'ɑːpɪə/ ), 'revenge' ( /rɪ'vendʒ/ , 'about' ( /ə'baʊt/ ), 'away' ( /ə'veɪ/ ) and 'receive' ( /rɪ'si:v/ ), the stress is on the second syllable. There are a few words in which the stress is on the third syllable. Examples of this are 'understand' ( /ʌndər'stænd/ ), 'intermission' ( /ɪntər'mɪʃn/ ), and 'disappoint' ( /dɪsə'pɒɪnt/ ).

However, in another sense, word accent or stress is fixed, too. If any particular English word is taken up, the position of stress in it is fixed. It is not for a speaker to decide whether the first syllable in the word 'appear' is to be stressed or the second one. A speaker has just to follow the rule about the position of stress in that particular word.

There are certain suffixes, after the addition of which the position of stress in the word is shifted to another syllable. For instance, in the word 'economy' ( /ɪ'kɒnəmi/ ), the stress is on the second syllable. After the addition of the suffix '-ic', the position of stress is shifted to the following syllable in the word 'economic' ( /ɪkə'nomIk/ ).

2.5.1 Weak forms

As stated above, because of the stress-timed rhythm of the English language, weak forms of unstressed words are used. A strong vowel attracts stress in the word. In order not to stress the word, the strong vowel is replaced by a weak vowel. Generally, articles, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs are kept unstressed. Therefore, their weak forms are to be used. The following are some examples of weak forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Strong form</th>
<th>Weak form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'a'</td>
<td>/eI/</td>
<td>/ə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'an'</td>
<td>/æn/</td>
<td>/ən/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'the'</td>
<td>/ði:/</td>
<td>/ði/ (before a vowel sound)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>/ðə/ (before a consonant sound)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'am'</td>
<td>/æm/</td>
<td>/əm, m/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'are'</td>
<td>/a:/</td>
<td>/ə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'has'</td>
<td>/hæz/</td>
<td>/hæz, əz, z, s/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'have'</td>
<td>/hæv/</td>
<td>/hæv, əv, v/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'had'</td>
<td>/hæd/</td>
<td>/hæd, əd, ə/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indian speakers of English usually do not use weak forms of English words, as sentence stress is not prominently used in Indian English. All words in a sentence are kept equally prominent.

2.5.2 Sentence Stress - Division and Groups

Just as not all syllables in a word are equally prominent and only one of them gets the primary stress, not all the words in a sentence are equally prominent. Some of them are made more prominent than the others by putting stress on the appropriate syllable in each of them. Generally, the words that are made prominent in a sentence are nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs and demonstrative and interrogative pronouns, as demonstrated in the following sentence. (The prominent words are also underlined for convenience.) "The 'books you 'gave me were 'found on the 'table." However, if the context requires, any other word can also be made prominent.

The notion of sentence stress has some implications, as far as speaking in English is concerned. One of them is the rhythm of an English sentence and another is the use of weak forms.

2.4 and 2.5  Check Your Progress
Answer in one or two Sentences.

1. What is Syllable?
2. What is word stress?
3. What are the implications of sentence stress in Spoken English?
4. Which parts of Speech are usually kept unstressed?

2.6 Intonation

A sentence is not spoken in the same level of pitch. There are some variations in the level of pitch in every person's speech. The patterns in the change in the level of pitch in a sentence are called intonation patterns. If the level of pitch does not change on a stressed (accented) syllable, it is called static tone. When the level of pitch changes on a stressed syllable, it has kinetic tone.

The kinetic tone is of various types. The two most prominent and important types of kinetic tone are the falling tone and the rising tone. The choice of tone or intonation pattern that a speaker uses depends partly on the type of sentence. In the falling tone, there is a downward movement in the level of pitch on the last stressed syllable, as shown with a downward moving bar in the following example. "We'll 'go to the `office." The last stressed syllable in the sentence is the first syllable of the word 'office'. The pitch starts moving downward on that syllable. The syllable on which the level of pitch starts changing is called a tonic syllable or a nuclear syllable. In the following example, the pitch starts moving upward on the last stressed syllable. "Shall we 'go to the ,shop?" The last stressed syllable in the sentence is 'shop'. It is the tonic or nuclear syllable of the sentence.

When it is not possible to speak the whole sentence in one breath, the speaker has to take a pause. When one pause is taken, the sentence has two tone units (tone groups). Every tone unit has its own intonation and its own nuclear syllable.

The uses of the falling tone

1) The falling tone is used at the end of a statement. If the sentence has more than one tone unit, the falling tone used at the end gives the sentence a sense of completion. The full-stop used in writing indicates the end of the sentence. But speech does not have this advantage. Therefore, the falling tone that occurs at the end of the sentence lets the listener know that it marks the end of the sentence.

2) The falling tone is used at the end of a wh-question in British English. (Indian speakers of English tend to use the rising tone in all questions.) The following is an example. "What's the `time?"

3) The falling tone is used in an imperative sentence, which can be understood as a command or an informal request. The following is an example. "Open the `door."
The uses of the rising tone

1) The rising tone is used when the speaker has taken a pause but the sentence is not over. For example, in the following sentence, there are two tone units. In the first one, the speaker takes a pause. To indicate that the sentence is not over yet, the speaker uses the rising tone. At the second tone unit, the speaker uses the falling tone to indicate the end of the sentence. "If you have a problem, you can `contact me."

2) The rising tone is used at the end of a yes/no question and a tag question. "Can you do it?" "You can `do it, can’t, you?"

3) The rising tone is used in an imperative sentence meant as a request. "Give me a pen."

In general, intonation is an important feature of speech because there is something that is communicated through intonation alone. The words may be the same, but a different kind of intonation can change the meaning of the sentence.

2.6 Check Your Progress

1. Fill in the gaps by choosing suitable options.

1. The patterns in the change in the level of pitch in a sentence are called .......... patterns. (intonation, intimation).

2. If the level of pitch does not change on a stressed (accented) syllable, it is called ------- tone. (static, kinetic)

3. When the level of pitch changes on a stressed syllable, it has ....... tone. (kinetic, static)

4. The two most prominent and important types of kinetic tone are the .......... tone and the ------- tone. (falling/rising, rising/falling)

5. The syllable on which the level of pitch starts changing is called a ----------- syllable or a nuclear syllable. (tonic, tectonic).

2. Answer in one or two sentences.

1. State the one use of rising tone.

2. State the one use of falling tone.

Check your Progress – Answers

2.1

1. The general study of speech sounds is called phonetics.

2. In articulatory phonetics, we study how speech sounds are made.
3. Acoustic phonetics studies the physical properties of speech as sound waves.

4. Auditory phonetics studies the perception of speech sounds via ears.

2.2
1. phoneme
2. minimal pair
3. allophone

2.3
1. c Indian
2. b. stress-timed
3. d. vowels and consonants
4. a. Vowel Letters
5. c. oral
6. a. syllables- timed
7. b. voiced
8. c. General Indian English
9. a. Vowels and Consonants
2.4 and 2.5

1. A syllable can be articulated separately. A syllable contains a sound that is more prominent than the others. Usually, it is a vowel sound.

2. In a word containing more than one syllable, there is a particular syllable that is made more prominent than others. The prominence is given to a syllable by employing greater breath force in its articulation as compared to the other syllables. The syllable that is thus made more prominent than others can be said to receive stress or accent.

3. The notion of sentence stress has some implications, as far as speaking in English is concerned. One of them is the rhythm of an English sentence and another is the use of weak forms.

4. Generally, articles, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs are kept unstressed.

2.6

1. Intonation
   1. Static
   2. Kinetic
   4. Falling, Rising
   5. Tonic

2. Intonation
   1. The falling tone is used in an imperative sentence, which can be understood as a command or an informal request. The following is an example. “Open the `door.”
   2. The rising tone is used at the end of a yes/no question and a tag question. For instance, "Can you `do it?" "You can `do it, can't ,you?"

Field Work

Watch a Performance of “Pygmalion” written by Bernard Shaw to know more about “Phonology’’
3.0 Objectives

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Concept of Morpheme / Allomorph

3.2.1 Types of morphemes

3.2.2 Processes of Word Formation

3.2.3 Problems with Morphological Analysis

3.3 Conclusion

3.4 Summary

Check Your Progress – Answers

3.0 Objectives

Dear Students, after studying this chapter in detail, you would be able to

- Explain the concept of “Morphology”.
- Explain the concepts of “morphemes” and “Allomorphs”
- Describe the types of morphemes in English
- Describe the processes of word formation

3.1 Introduction

Dear students, as we have studied in the previous chapter, “Phonology” studies the sounds of English in detail, Morphology studies the patterns of formation of words by the combination of sounds into minimal distinctive units of meaning called morphemes. Just as the phoneme is the smallest unit in the sound system of language, a morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit in the grammatical system of a language. By calling it the smallest meaningful unit in the language we indicate that the morpheme cannot be broken up into smaller parts without injuring or destroying its meaning. Thus, ‘house’ contains one morpheme, ‘unhappy’ contains two
morphemes (un + happy), while ‘unacceptable’ contains three morphemes (un + accept + able). Morphemes cannot be divided into smaller morphemes though they can be phonologically split into syllables and phonemes.

3.2 Concept of Morpheme / Allomorph

Different variants of the same morpheme are known as allomorphs. In phonology, ‘allophones’ are ‘phones’, i.e., sounds present in speech which belong to a single phoneme, an abstract entity. Similarly, in morphology, ‘allomorphs’ are ‘morphs’, i.e., minimal sequences present in speech which belong to a single morpheme, an abstract entity. Allomorphs are to morphemes what allophones are to phonemes. Christophersen and Sandved conclude that an alternate definition of the term ‘morpheme’ would be “a group of allomorphs that are semantically similar and in complementary distribution.” They give the example of /d/, /t/ and /id/ as expressions of ‘past tense’, and of /s/, /z/, and /iz/ as expressions of ‘more than one’. These are examples of allomorphs of one and the same morpheme. Greenbaum claims that the choice of allomorphs depends on three types of conditioning, viz., phonological, morphological and grammatical.

Phonological conditioning may involve either progressive assimilation (determined by the following sound), or regressive assimilation (determined by the preceding sound). The allomorphs of the negative prefix ‘in-’ are conditioned by the sound that follows the prefix: ‘il-’ before /l/, ‘im-’ before /m/ or /p/, ‘ir-’ before /r/, and ‘in-’ before any other sound. For example, illegal, impolite, irregular, independence and invalid. The allomorphs of the plurals /s/, /z/, and /iz/ are conditioned by the preceding sound, i.e. /s/ in cats, /z/ in dogs, and /iz/ in horses.

Morphological conditioning is when the choice of the allomorph depends on the particular word involved. A well-known example is that of the peculiarity of the word ‘ox’ which takes the plural ‘-en’. Similarly, plural allomorphs of other irregular nouns, some of them borrowed from foreign languages, cannot be predicted by rules but refer to the particular word. For example, larva/larvae, curriculum/curricula, thesis/theses.

Grammatical conditioning is recognizable in the shift of stress in some verbs of two syllables that are converted into nouns. The stress shifts to the first syllable of the noun. The unstressed first syllable of the verb generally has the reduced vowel where as the stressed first syllable of the noun has a full vowel. Some examples of noun-verb pairs include ‘object’, ‘present’ and ‘record’.

When a morpheme can be both a morpheme and a word, it is called a free morpheme. But morphemes which occur only as a proper sub-part of a word (and not as a word) are called bound morphemes (e.g. ‘-ment’ and ‘dis-’). Hence ‘-ly’ is a bound morpheme in words like ‘properly’, ‘suddenly’, and ‘correctly’. It cannot exist alone as it is not a proper word of English. Therefore, we cannot say ‘It was done –ly’, although we can say ‘It was done correctly.’ In a morphologically complex word, or a polymorphic word (a word with a number of morphemes), there is always a free morpheme (like ‘agree’ in ‘disagreement’, ‘pure’ in ‘impure’) which
contributes to the basic meaning of the entire word. This morpheme is known as the root. The other morphemes (like ‘dis-’ and ‘-ment’ in ‘disagreement’, ‘im-’ in ‘impure’) which modify the basic meaning are known as affixes. Those affixes which occur to the left of the root are called prefixes while those which occur to the right of the root are called suffixes. Affixes - both prefix and suffix – are bound morphemes because they occur only as the proper sub-part of a word.

Any form to which an affix (either prefix or suffix) is added is called a stem. In many cases the stem may also be the root. In a word like hospitalized, the root is hospital. It is also a stem because to this stem we add the suffix –ize to form hospitalize. Again the unit hospitalize is also a stem because the suffix –ed is added to it. Hence any unit to which an affix is added becomes a stem:

- Hospital
  - Root (because no affixation is taking place)
  - Hospital + ize
  - Stem + suffix (because affixation is taking place)
  - Hospitalize + ed
  - Stem + suffix

Or

- Agree
  - Root
  - Dis + agree
  - Prefix + stem
  - Disagree + ment
  - Stem + suffix
  - Disagreement + s
  - Stem + suffix

A stem thus becomes longer and longer until the last affix is added to it.
Affixes or bound morphemes are used in two distinctive ways: they can be used to create new words, i.e. derivation; or to change the form of words, i.e. inflection. Inflectional affixes modify a word’s form without changing the meaning, and change the grammatical subclass of the word.

**Derivational affixes**

Derivational affixes change the category or the meaning of the form to which they apply and are therefore set to create a new word. Words can be created by using prefixes, suffixes or both:

unreal, redraft (prefixes)

sadly, boyish (suffixes)

unacceptable, subconsciously (affixes)

Although it is always important to look closely at words in context, it is still possible to make some generalizations about the words created by prefixation, suffixation and affixation.

**Prefixes**

Prefixes alter the meaning of a word, but they do not always change the word class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Word class of free morpheme</th>
<th>Word class of created word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hyper-</td>
<td>tension (N)</td>
<td>hypertension (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be-</td>
<td>devil (N)</td>
<td>bedevil (V)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>style (V)</td>
<td>restyle (V)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Suffixes**

Suffixes usually, but not always, change the class of the free morpheme to which they are attached:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word class of free morpheme</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word class of created word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>exploit (V)</td>
<td>-ation</td>
<td>exploitation (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>joy (N)</td>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>joyful (Adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friend (N)</td>
<td>-ship</td>
<td>friendship (N)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Suffixes associated with nouns**

Words ending with bound morphemes –acy, -ation, -er/-or, -ess, -ity, -ment, -ness and –ship are usually nouns. For example, diplomacy, similarity, jubilation, compartment, writer, sadness and friendship.

**Suffixes associated with adjectives**

Words with suffixes like –able, -ful, -ical, -less, -like, -ous, -y are usually adjectives. For example, courageous, gloomy, etc.

**Suffixes associated with verbs**

Words with suffixes –ise or –ize are usually verbs. For example, dramatize, democratize, etc.

**Suffixes associated with adverbs**

Words with suffixes –ly are usually adverbs. For example, slowly, eagerly, etc.

**Words formed from two free morphemes**

Words can also be formed by the compounding (adding together) of two free morphemes. For example, duty + free = duty-free, sign + post = signpost, etc.

**Inflectional affixes**

Inflectional affixes modify a word’s form (without changing the meaning) and change the grammatical subclass of the word. For example, in the case of English nouns, inflection marks the plural subclass by adding the affix ‘-s’. In the case of verbs, the suffix ‘-ed’ is added to indicate the past tense.

**Morphological Analysis**
Phonology is concerned with the relation between phonemes and their allophones while morphology is concerned with the relation between morphemes and their allomorphs. For example, the plural morpheme ‘-s’ or ‘-es’ has three allomorphs: ‘-s’, ‘-z’ and ‘-iz’. Like allophones, allomorphs also occur in mutually exclusive environments. The three allomorphs of the plural morpheme in English occur in three different environments.

i. ‘-s’ is always preceded by a voiceless sound other than /s/, /ʃ/, and /tʃ/ (as in [kæt-s]).

ii. ‘-z’ is always preceded by a voiced sound other than /z/, /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ (as in [dɔg-z]).

iii. ‘-iz’ is always preceded by /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/ or /dʒ/ (as in [hɔːs-iz]).

iv. Morphemes are generally represented within curly brackets while allomorphs are represented with slant lines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morpheme</th>
<th>Allomorphs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{Plural}</td>
<td>/-s/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/-z/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/-iz/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, we have the past tense morpheme of English which has three allomorphs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morpheme</th>
<th>Allomorphs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{Past}</td>
<td>/-t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/-d/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/-iz/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.1 Processes of Word Formation

Many of the words frequently used in our language are simple. This means that they cannot be divided into smaller meaningful segments. For example, ‘and’, ‘if’, ‘the’, ‘on’, etc. But there are myriad ways in which words are formed. For example, the word ‘happiness’ is formed by adding the suffix ‘-ness’ to the base word ‘happy’, or the word ‘unhappy’ is formed by adding the prefix ‘un-’ to the base word ‘happy’.

There are four main processes that result in the formation of new words:
2. Suffixation: the addition of a suffix at the end of a base, eg. ‘friendship’.
3. Compounding: the combination of two or more bases, e.g. ‘homesick’.
4. Conversion: the change of a base from one word class to another without any change in form, e.g. ‘light’ is used both as a noun and as a verb.

1). **Prefixation**

Prefixation can be done in the following ways:

   a. **Negative prefixes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Base Word</th>
<th>New Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Im-</td>
<td>Mortal</td>
<td>Immortal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-</td>
<td>Evitable</td>
<td>Inevitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sensitive</td>
<td>Insensitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un-</td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>Unstable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-</td>
<td>Theist</td>
<td>Atheist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moral</td>
<td>Amoral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-</td>
<td>Entity</td>
<td>Non-entity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Violence</td>
<td>Non-violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dis-</td>
<td>Passionate</td>
<td>Dispassionate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service</td>
<td>Disservice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Il-</td>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Illogical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ir-</td>
<td>Rational</td>
<td>Irrational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relevant</td>
<td>Irrelevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frost</td>
<td>Defrost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## b. Prefixes of number

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mono-</th>
<th>Syllabic</th>
<th>Monosyllabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logue</td>
<td>Monologue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uni-</td>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>Unilateral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cellular</td>
<td>Unicellular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bi-</td>
<td>Lingual</td>
<td>Bilingual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>Bilateral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di-</td>
<td>Ode (electrode)</td>
<td>Diode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urnal</td>
<td>Diurnal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tri-</td>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>Triweekly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Angle</td>
<td>Triangle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetra-</td>
<td>Cyclic</td>
<td>Tetracyclic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi/Poly-</td>
<td>Syllabic</td>
<td>Polysyllabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Racial</td>
<td>Multiracial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pronged</td>
<td>Multipronged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lingual</td>
<td>Multilingual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## c. Prefixes of time and order

| Re-         | Evaluate       | Re-evaluate          |
Examine          Re-examine
Ante-            Antechamber
Fore-            Fore-knowledge
Tell             Foretell
Pre-             Prenatal
Mature           Premature
Post             Post-war
Dated            Post-dated
Ex-              Ex-principal
Super            Superstructure
Fine             Superfine

**d. Prefixes of location**

Sub-             Way              Subway
Terranean        Subterranean
Marine           Submarine
Inter-/Intra-    National        International
Class            Interclass
Group            Intragroup
Departmental     Intra-departmental
Trans-           Plant           Transplant
Migration        Transmigration

**e. Prefixes of degree or size**

Super-           Man             Superman
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Natural Word</th>
<th>Supernatural Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Out-</td>
<td>Run</td>
<td>Outrun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Live</td>
<td>Outlive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under-</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Understate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooked</td>
<td>Undercooked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyper-</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Hyperactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ultra-</td>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>Ultramodern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>Ultrasimple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mini- (midi-/maxi-)</td>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>Minibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skirt</td>
<td>Miniskirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over-</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Overactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Smart</td>
<td>Oversmart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-</td>
<td>Human</td>
<td>Subhuman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>Subzero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>Substandard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arch-</td>
<td>Bishop</td>
<td>Archbishop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Angel</td>
<td>Archangel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### f. Prefixes of attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Antonym</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pro-</td>
<td>Congress</td>
<td>Pro-congress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td>Pro-democracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Anti-social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operate</td>
<td>Co-operate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Co-

Sponsor  Cosponsor
Counter-
Act  Counteract
Proposal  Counterproposal

g. Other Prefixes

Auto  Biography  Autobiography
Start  Autostart
Neo-
Rich  Neorich
Classical  Neoclassical
Semi-
Circle  Semicircle
Pan-
Indian  Pan-Indian

h. Class-changing Prefixes

Here are examples of some prefixes that change the class to which a word belongs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>New Word</th>
<th>Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be-</td>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Behead</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Befriend</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En-</td>
<td>Able</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Enable</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Entrust</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-</td>
<td>Float</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Afloat</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Ahead</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Deform</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Suffixation**
The suffixes may be broadly divided into two categories: class maintaining and class-changing. Here are a few examples:

i. **Class-maintaining suffixes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>New Word</th>
<th>Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ship</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Friendship</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-hood</td>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Boyhood</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ite</td>
<td>Hindu</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Hinduite</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Londoner</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ess</td>
<td>Tiger</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Tigress</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dom</td>
<td>King</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Kingdom</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ery</td>
<td>Machine</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Machinery</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ii. **Class-changing suffixes**

**Noun to Adjective**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>New Word</th>
<th>Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ian</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ese</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>Beauty</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Beautiful</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-less</td>
<td>Harm</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Harmless</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ly</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-like</td>
<td>Child</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Childlike</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ish</td>
<td>Child</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Childish</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>Accident</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Accidental</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ous</td>
<td>Virtue</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Virtuous</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Adjective to Noun**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
<th>Formed Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ity</td>
<td>Able</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>Happy</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ry</td>
<td>Brave</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Bravery</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Noun to Verb**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
<th>Formed Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ify</td>
<td>Fort</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Fortify</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>Length</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Lengthen</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-le</td>
<td>Top</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Topple</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Verb to Noun**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
<th>Formed Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>Drive</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Driver</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>Govern</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-age</td>
<td>Drain</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Drainage</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ant</td>
<td>Pollute</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Pollutant</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ee</td>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Payee</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ation</td>
<td>Condemn</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Condemnation</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>Withdraw</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-or</td>
<td>Act</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Verb to Adverb**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
<th>Formed Word</th>
<th>Part of Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ily</td>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Sleepily</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adjective to Adverb

-ly  Nice  Adjective  Nicely  Adverb
-wards  Back  Adjective  Backwards  Adverb

3. **Compound formation**

Compounds are formed by joining two or more bases. These bases are, in some cases, separated by a hyphen, while in other cases, the hyphen appears to have disappeared with the passage of time. There is no rule governing the presence or absence of hyphen. Here are some examples of compound words:

1. **Noun + Noun**

   - Motor cycle
   - Teargas
   - Girl-friend
   - Bread-piece
   - Fire-engine
   - Paper-back
   - Hair breadth
   - Goldfish
   - Television fan
   - Block-head
   - Pot-belly

2. **Noun + Adjective**

   - Trustworthy
   - Home sick
   - Beauty conscious
   - Brick red
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective + Noun</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pale face</td>
<td>Yellow press</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathead</td>
<td>Red light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greenhorn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compounds with Verbs / Adverbials / Verbal Nouns</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sight-seeing</td>
<td>Man-eating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth-control</td>
<td>Heart-breaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record-player</td>
<td>Easy-going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brain-washing</td>
<td>Baby-sitting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking-stick</td>
<td>Lip-read</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Reduplication**

Some words are formed out of two such elements as are almost alike. These elements may either be identical or slightly different.

**Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criss-cross</th>
<th>Pooh-pooh</th>
<th>Hush-hush</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doodle-doo</td>
<td>Kit-kat</td>
<td>See-saw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wishy-washy</td>
<td>Tip-top</td>
<td>Hurry-worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trin-trin</td>
<td>Hanky-panky</td>
<td>Sing-song</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. **Clippings**
Some words are used in shortened form by subtracting one or more syllables from a word. This shortening sometimes occurs at the beginning of a word, at the end of a word or at both ends of a word.

**Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shortened Word</th>
<th>Full Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>Photograph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plane</td>
<td>Aero plane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pram</td>
<td>Perambulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>Omnibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flu</td>
<td>Influenza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone</td>
<td>Telephone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanky</td>
<td>Handkerchief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lab</td>
<td>Laboratory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. **Acronyms**
Acronyms are words formed by joining together the initial letters (or sometimes a little larger parts) of words.

**Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronyms</th>
<th>Full form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immuno Deficiency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. Conversion

(a). Some words can be used as nouns, verbs, adverbs or adjectives without any change in the form of the word, without the addition of an affix or prefix. This process of derivation is called conversion. Here are some examples:

Light: Switch on the light (noun).
      Light the lamp (verb).
      The luggage is light (adjective).
      Travel light if you must (adverb).

Round: The earth is round like a ball (adjective).
      The principal went on a round (noun).
      You must round all the sharp corners (verb).

(b). Other types of conversion:
   (i). Please give me two coffees. (An uncountable noun used as a countable noun)
   (ii). I do not believe in any –ism bothering the society today. (A suffix being used as a noun)

(c). In some words of two syllables, change of accent from the first to the second syllable changes a noun or adjective to a verb:
Noun / Adjective                  Verb
'conduct                     con'duct
'subject                      sub'ject
'object                      ob'ject
'present                      pre'sent
'contrast                     con'trast

8. **Blends**
Two words are sometimes clipped and the clippings are joined to form a new word.

Examples

brunch                       from                       breakfast and lunch
smog                         from                       smoke and fog
telecast                     from                       television and broadcast
motel                        from                       motorists and hotel

9. **Borrowings**
English (or any other language) generally borrows words from other languages with which it comes into contact. English continues to enrich its store of words by such borrowings.

Examples

Guru                           (from Hindi)
bazaar                        (from Persian)
Sheikh                           (Arabic)
tycoon                        (from Japanese)
10. Inventions

New words have to be given to new inventions. Such words (as other words of the language) are arbitrary but in course of time, they come to stay as a part of the language.

Examples

X-rays, laser, sputnik, astronaut, etc.

11. Echoism

Some words are formed by the sounds that suggest their meaning.

Examples

Clang, whisper, thunder, click, tick, lisp, murmur, etc.

3.2.2 Problems with Morphological Analysis

In the study of morphology, process allomorphs are problems as we do not know how to account for them. For example, ‘man’ and ‘men’.

Allophones are phonetically similar, but allomorphs are not.

Morphemes are not constant in meaning and so it is difficult to explain the relationship of morphemes with words. For example, if we take the word ‘undertaker’, it consists of two morphemes, {undertake} and {er}. Logically, it should mean ‘a person who undertakes something’. However, the meaning of this word is ‘a person who arranges for the funeral’. It is very difficult to explain how this meaning is arrived at. The suffix -able has the meaning of ease or facility. For example, the word ‘readable’ suggests ‘something that is easy to read’. However, in a word like ‘charitable’, this meaning does not remain constant.

If we go back in the history of language, a number of morphemes are hidden into words, for example, ‘pre’ is a prefix in words like ‘preview’, ‘predetermined’ and ‘predefined’ and analyzing these words is not a problem. But in some words it is not possible to separate the prefix ‘pre’, for example, in the word ‘prepare’.
3.2 Check your Progress

1. Fill in the gaps by choosing correct option

1. Different variants of the same morpheme are known as ............ (Allomorphs, allophones)

2. The suffixes may be broadly divided into two categories: class maintaining and class- ............... (class blending, class changing.)

3. ............... are words formed by joining together the initial letters (or sometimes a little larger parts) of words. (acronyms, homonyms).

4. Derivational ........... change the category or the meaning of the form to which they apply and are therefore set to create a new word. (suffixes, affixes)

5. ............... are formed by joining two or more bases. (Compounds, components).

6. .................. are phonetically similar. (Allophones, allomorphs).

7. ............... affixes modify a word’s form (without changing the meaning) and change the grammatical subclass of the word. (Inflectional, inflational).

8. ............... conditioning is when the choice of the allomorph depends on the particular word involved. (Phonological, morphological).

9. Phonology is concerned with the relation between ............... and their allophones while morphology is concerned with the relation between ............... and their allomorphs. (phonemes/morphemes, phones/allophones).

2. Match the Pairs

1. Compound formation          a thunder
2. Echoism                      b Motor cycle
3. Inventions                   c bazaar
4. Borrowings                   d X-rays

3.3 Conclusion

Thus, the study of the morphology helps us to understand the structure of words and how it is related to their meanings. The next chapter would acquaint us with the study of ‘Syntax’ which would enable you to understand the structure of ‘sentence’ well.

3.4 Summary

Dear students, in this chapter we learnt the following details of the morphology. We learnt the concepts of ‘morpheme’ and ‘allomorphs’. Different variants of the same morpheme are known as allomorphs where as morpheme
is the smallest meaningful unit in the grammatical system of language. The main types of morphemes are free morphemes and bound morpheme. We also came to know the main processes of word formation such as prefixation, suffixation, compounding and conversion. Lastly, we tried to understand the problems that occur in the morphological analysis.

3.2 Check your progress – Answers

1.
   1. Allomorphs,
   2. class changing
   3. acronyms,
   4. affixes
   5. Compounds
   6. allomorphs
   7 inflectional
   8 morphological.
   9. phonemes/morphemes,

2.
   1. Compound formation  b  Motor cycle
   2. Echoism              a thunder
   3. Inventions           d X-rays
   4. Borrowings           c bazaar

Fieldwork

Converse with a speaker of Indian English regarding words used by him or her in his/her daily routine.
CHAPTER 4

SYNTAX

4.0 Objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Elements of grammar

4.3 Nouns, Pronouns and the basic NP

4.4 Adjective and Adverb

4.5 Preposition and Prepositional Phrase

4.6 The Simple Sentence

4.7 Conclusion

4.8 Summary

Check Your Progress – Answers

Field Work

4.0 Objectives

The detailed study of this chapter would enable you to

Discuss the elements of grammar in detail.

Describe Nouns, Pronouns and the basic concept of NP

Describe Adjective and Adverb in detail.

Discuss Preposition and Prepositional Phrase in detail.

Discuss the concept of Simple Sentence in detail.

4.1 Introduction

We have just seen one of the major levels of linguistic analysis called Morphology. Now we will go briefly through another system of language called ‘Syntax.’ Syntax means word order.
Syntax is one of the major levels of linguistic analysis. It plays an important role in the study of a language. It is the study of the order in which words are arranged in a sentence. Syntax is the important part in the study of grammar of a language. Sentence is the important part of grammatical analysis. The study of sentence structure is called syntax.

Word order is at the heart of syntax, and most of English grammar is taken up with the rules governing the order in which words, and clusters of words, can appear. Crystal (1995: 214).

Sentences in English are constructed according to a system of rules. They are the largest constructions to which the rules of grammar apply. The meaning of sentence alters fundamentally once the order varies. There are also rules forbidding us to put words in a certain order.

4.2 Elements of Grammar

Let’s take a quick look at the components which form the basis for the study of syntax. The study of parts of speech, elements of a sentence, principles of sentence construction and types of sentences are some of the major components in the study of syntax. In the study of English language the following aspects form the basis of the linguistic analysis of its syntax.

i) Hierarchy in the sentence structure

Sentence= A group of words making complete sense
Clause = a group of words which can be divided into subject and predicate
Phrase = a meaningful group of words
Word = a meaningful group of letters

Word is the smallest element of a sentence. It can be defined as a meaningful group of letters. A meaningful group of words is called a phrase. A group of words which can be divided into subject and predicate but can’t give the full sense can be called as a ‘clause’.

A group of words making complete sense and which can be divided into subject and predicate is called a sentence.

ii) Parts of a sentence

A sentence can be divided into two main parts – subject and predicate. Subject is that part of the sentence which precedes the verb where as predicate is the part of the sentence which follows the verb and includes the verb.
iii) Close class items and open class items

Nouns, main verbs, adjectives and adverbs are the words which are huge in number and are included in the open class.

Prepositions and conjunctions are those words which are limited in number and can’t be increased. These are close class words. These words are also known as structure words as they fulfill the structural requirement in a sentence construction.

iv) There are eight parts of speech viz. nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections.

  a) Noun functions as the subject, object, or complement of a clause. Nouns are divided into six types. They are classified as proper noun and common noun. Common nouns can be divided into count nouns and non-count nouns. Both count and non-count nouns are further divided into concrete and abstract nouns. The study of nouns mainly consists of number, gender and case.
  
  b) In a sentence nouns can be replaced by the words called pronouns. Pronouns are of following types. Personal pronouns, reflexive pronouns, possessive pronouns are considered as central pronouns. Other types are reciprocal pronouns, interrogative pronouns, relative pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, indefinite pronouns.
  
  c) Words which modify nouns are called adjectives. These are of two types – an adjective which occurs before a noun is attributive while an adjective which occurs after the verb is predicative.
  
  d) The words which qualify verb, adjective or another adverb are adverbs.

Adjectives and adverbs are gradable as well as non-gradable. Gradable adjectives and adverbs have positive, comparative and superlative forms.

  e) Verbs are lexical and modal, main and auxiliary, transitive, intransitive. Verbs indicate time and tense. There is no future tense in English.

v) Phrases

in the study of sentence structure one has to analyze Noun Phrases, Verb Phrases, Adjective Phrases, and Adverb Phrases. A phrase is a unit consisting of one or more words.

vi) Clauses

Clauses form the basis of studying compound and complex sentences. Clauses are mainly of two types – main clause and subordinate clause. Subordinate clauses are further classified as clauses of reason, condition, purpose, etc.

vii) Elements of a sentence

Subject (S), verb (V), object (O), and complement (C) and adverbial (A) are the elements of a sentence.
Subject – It usually appears before the verb in statements and after the first verb in questions. Subjects can be noun phrases, pronouns or certain kinds of subordinate clause.

Verb – It is the main element in a sentence, without it a sentence can’t exist. Auxiliary verbs, modal auxiliaries and main verbs are elements of a verb phrase.

Object – It follows the subject and verb in a clause. There are two types of objects- direct object and indirect object. Objects can be noun phrases, pronouns or certain kinds of subordinate clause. The direct object has a non-personal reference, where as the indirect object has a personal reference. For example, John gave him a book. In this sentence ‘him’ is the indirect object, and ‘the book’ is the direct object.

Complement – Complements express a meaning which adds to that of another clause element- either the subject or the object. There are two types of complements – subject complement and object complement. The subject complement is co-referential with the subject of the sentence. For example, My father is a teacher. In this sentence ‘a teacher’ is the subject complement. When the complement is co-referential with the object of the sentence, it is termed as the object complement. For example, I met Mr. John, the Principal. In this sentence ‘the principal’ functions as the object complement. Complements can be noun phrases, adjective phrases, pronouns or certain kinds of subordinate clause.

Adverbials – An adverbial, an optional element, can occur anywhere in any position in a sentence i.e. initially, medially or end position. These can be adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, some nouns and noun phrases, or certain kinds of subordinate clause.

viii) There are seven types of clauses.

(1) SVA – Tom is in the library.
(2) SVC - John is my friend.
(3) SVO - Rakesh ate an apple.
(4) SVOA – Rohan kept the book in the cupboard.
(5) SVOC - They made him the captain.
(6) SVOO - Akshay gives me a book.
(7) SV – Birds fly.

The following are some of the essential principles of sentence construction.

1. A sentence should have two parts subject and predicate.
2. The subject should precede the verb in a sentence.
3. The object should occur in the predicative part of the sentence.
4. In an interrogative sentence the word order should be Wh-word + Aux + Sub + MV....?
5. In tag questions if the sentence is positive the tag is negative and if the sentence is negative the tag is positive. There are exceptions as well.
6. In a negative sentence the negative word should follow the auxiliary verb.
7. Passive transformation is possible only when ‘object’ is present in a sentence.
In active voice the doer of the action (agent) is emphasized where as in passive construction the action is focused. The word order in the former is Subject + Verb + Object and in the later it is Object + Verb + Subject (of the active sentence).

8. A simple sentence generally consists of a single finite clause.
9. The simple sentences are of four types, viz. declarative (statements), interrogative (questions) imperative (Commands) and exclamatory (exclamations).
10. A compound sentence consists of two or more main clauses which are connected by coordinating conjunctions like ‘and’, ‘but’ ‘or’, but when separated these clauses may exist as separate sentences.
11. A complex sentence is composed of one main clause and two or more subordinating clauses. These clauses are joined by subordinating conjunctions like while, therefore, if, because, etc.
12. The compound and complex sentences have reference items which just like pronouns avoid repetition.
13. The given information is generally in the first part of the sentence while the new information is placed in the final part of the sentence. The information in a sentence can be emphasized by use of cleft sentences, fronting, etc.

In the second half of twentieth century Chomsky’s Transformational Generative (TG) grammar has contributed a lot to the study of syntax.

4.2 Check Your Progress

Fill in the blanks

1. In the second half of ................. Century, Chomsky’s transformational generative (TG) grammar has contributed a lot to the study of syntax. (19th, 20th, 21st)
2. A ................. Sentence generally consists of a single finite clause. (simple, compound)
3. There are ............. types of clauses. (5,6,7)

4.3 Nouns, Pronouns and Basic NP

The basic noun phrase-

The noun phrase functions as subject, object, complement of sentences and as complement in prepositional phrases. Consider the different subjects in the following examples:

a) The girl
b) The beautiful girl is Cathy Smith
c) The beautiful girl in the corner
d) The beautiful girl who became happy
Noun Classes-

It is important both for grammatical and semantic reasons, to see nouns falling into different subclasses. This is easily demonstrated by taking into account the four nouns John, bottle, furniture and cake.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>*bottle</td>
<td>furniture</td>
<td>cake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*the John</td>
<td>The bottle</td>
<td>the furniture</td>
<td>the cake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*a John</td>
<td>a bottle</td>
<td>*a furniture</td>
<td>A cake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Some John</td>
<td>*some bottle</td>
<td>Some furniture</td>
<td>Some cake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Johns</td>
<td>bottles</td>
<td>*furnitures</td>
<td>Cakes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The difference between column 1 (with its four impossible usages) and column 4 (with none) indicates the degree of variation between classes. The nouns in columns 2, 3 and 4 are all Common Nouns, but there are important differences within this class. Nouns which behave like bottle in column 2 can be seen as individual countable entities and cannot be viewed as mass are called Count Nouns. Those conforming like ‘furniture’ to the pattern of column 3 can be seen as Non-Count Nouns.

Determiners- Determiners are words which specify the range of reference of a noun in various ways. E.g. by making it

a) Definite – e.g. the boy

b) Indefinite – e.g. a boy

c) Quantificative – e.g. many boys

Articles may have either specific reference or generic or unique reference.
Whenever there is reference to whole class then it is generic, when it is just to the one or two members of the class, it is specific. When it has a specific meaning it has a unique reference.

E.g. He is a Chinese – Specific reference

The Chinese are very industrious – Generic reference

Zero articles can be used for

a) Institutions – e.g. He is in Prison
   Let’s go to church

b) Means of Transport – e.g. by car, by train etc.

c) Times of Day and Night – e.g. at sunrise, at dawn, at night, at midnight etc.

d) Meals – e.g. Did you take your lunch today?

Unique Reference – It has a very specific meaning.

E.g. During Diwali I will visit you.

During Easter I will visit you.

Unique reference is used in case of –

a) Personal names
b) Calendar year
c) Geographical names
d) Buildings, Streets, Bridges
e) Names of newspaper
f) Universities, theatres

Another aspect of noun is number and gender.

Numbers
  singular (one)
  Plural (more than one)

English makes very little gender – distinctions.
There are 6 classes of determiners with respect to their co-occurrence with the noun classes singular count (such as bottle), plural count (such as bottles), and non-count nouns (such as furniture). The following information that follow indicate which noun classes will co-occur with members of the determiner class concerned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Non-Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td>bottle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Furniture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td>bottles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) The possessive- (my, our, etc.)
(b) zero article – (as in They need furniture)
(c) this, that
(d) Every, each, either, neither
(e) These, those
(f) Much
(g)
Noun Phrase (N.P) consists of

1) Noun - functions as Head and it may be Common noun, a proper noun, a collective noun, abstract noun, pronoun or even as adjective sometime. E.g. the color is red (functions as Head).

2) Pre modifiers and Post modifiers

   Det.   Pre.M Head

   A) Pre modifiers – e.g. a large classroom
      Art. Adj. N

   B) Post modifiers – e.g. all those four blue Usha fans in the corner.
      All- Pre.Det.
      Those- Det.
      Four- Post.Det. Cardinal
      Blue- Adjective
      Usha – Classifier
      Fans- Head, (Common N.)
      In the corner – Post Modifier

Determiners – a) Articles – a, an, the
     b) Demonstrators – this, that, these, those
     c) Subordinators- which, whom, what, whatever,
        whichever, whoever etc.
     d) Quantifiers – some, any, enough, no, none, much,
        every, each, either, neither
     e) Cardinal nos. – 1, 2, 3 etc.
     f) Ordinal nos. – 1st, 2nd, 3rd etc.

Pre determiners- all, both, half, double, twice, three fourth etc.
4.3 Check your Progress

Choose the correct alternative from the following
1. ‘Enough’ is
   a) Quantifier
   b) Subordinator
   c) Determiner
   d) Post Modifier

2. Articles may have .......... references.
   a) generic
   b) Unique
   c) specific
   d) All the above three references.

3. Zero article can be used for
   a) Institutions
   b) Means of transport
   c) Times of day and night
   d) in all the above cases.

4.4 Adjectives and Adverbs

Characteristics of the adjective -

We cannot tell if a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation: the form doesn’t necessarily indicate its syntactic function. Some suffixes are indeed found only with adjectives, but many common adjectives have no identifying shape. E.g. good, hot, little, young, fat etc. Nor can we identify a word as an adjective merely by considering what inflections or affixes it would allow. It is observable that many adjectives inflect for the comparative and superlative, e.g. great, greater, greatest. But many do not allow inflected forms. E.g. Disastrous, *disastrouser, *disatrousest. It is true that many adjectives provide the base from which adverbs are derived by means of an –ly suffix, e.g. adjective happy, adverb happily. But some do not allow this derivational process; e.g. there is no adverb “Oldly” derived from the adjective “old”.

Functions of Adjectives –

There are two main functions of adjectives:
1. **Attributive function** – There is a noun after the adjective.
   E.g. medical college  
   Adj. N

2. **Predicative function** – There is no noun after the adjective.
   E.g. he made his wife happy.  
   Adj.

Depending on these functions, we have 3 types of adjectives:

1. Both attributive and predicative – e.g. tall, beautiful, interesting, short etc.
2. Only attributive – e.g. medical college. You cannot say “The college is medical”.
3. Only Predicative- e.g. alive, well, ill etc.
   E.g. The patient is well today.

**Characteristics of Adverbs**

The most common characteristic of the adverb is morphological: the majority of adverbs have the derivational suffix –ly. There are two types of syntactic function that characterize adverbs, but an adverb requires only one of these:

1) Adverbial  
2) Modifier of adjective and adverb.

In both cases, the adverb functions directly in an adverb phrase of which it is head or sole realization. Thus, in the adjective phrase ‘far more easily intelligible’, ‘intelligible’ is modified by the adverb phrase ‘far more’ and ‘more’ is modified by the adverb phrase ‘far’, in this last case, an adverb phrase with an adverb as sole realization.

1) Adverb as Adverbial- An adverb may function as adverbial, a constituent distinct from subject, verb, object and compliment.  
   E.g. They are waiting outside.
   He spoke to me about it briefly.

2) Adverb as a Modifier of adjective and adverb- An adverb may premodify an adjective.
   E.g. That was a very funny film.
   It is extremely good of you.

Most commonly, the modifying adverb is an intensifier. The most frequently used intensifier is ‘very’. Other intensifiers include so,
pretty, rather, unusually, quite, unbelievably etc. Many are restricted to a small set of lexical items, e.g. deeply (anxious), highly (intelligent), strikingly (handsome), sharply (critical) etc.

An adverb may premodify another adverb and function as intensifier.

E.g. They are smoking very heavily.

I have seen so very many letters like that one.

As with adjectives, the only postmodifier is ‘enough’, as in cleverly enough.

Other functions of adverb are as follows:

3) Modifier of prepositional phrase-
The few adverbs that premodify particles in phrasal verbs also premodify prepositions or (perhaps rather) prepositional phrase.

e.g. The nail went right through the wall.

4) Modifier of determiner, predeterminer, postdeterminer

Intensifying adverbs can premodify indefinite pronouns, predeterminers, and cardinal numerals.

e.g. Nearly everybody came to our function.

I paid more than twenty pounds for it.

5) Modifier of Noun Phrase –

A few intensifiers may premodify noun phrases: quite, rather etc. and the predeterminers like such and what.

e.g. He told such a funny story.

It was rather a mess.

He was quite some player.

Adverb as complement of Preposition -
Some place and time adverbs function as complement of a preposition. Of the place adverbs, here and there take the most prepositions: along, around, down, from, in, near, towards. Others are restricted to the preposition from: above, abroad, below, downstairs, indoors, inside, outdoors, outside, upstairs, within, without.

Comparison and Intensification –

It is common to adjectives and adverbs. We can compare adjectives and adverbs and we can intensify them.

1) Comparison- tall-taller-tallest

   Beautiful-more beautiful-most beautiful.

There are three degrees of comparison.

a) Positive- There is no comparison. Still, we call it positive degree of comparison.

b) Comparative – In this case, there is a comparison between two persons.

c) Superlative- In this case, there is a comparison between three or more persons.

Quirk and Greenbaum consider more and most as periphrastic equivalents of –er and –est. Same is applicable in case of adverbs. General rule is most monosyllabic words take –er, -est. Disyllabic words take –more and –most or sometimes –er, -est.

In addition to these 3 degrees, there are more degrees of comparison.

   i) Equative - this is marked by so---as or as----as.

   ii) Lesser degree – less itself is comparative. Little-less-least.

   iii) Least degree – least tall, shortest.

Intensification

It consists in intensifying the meaning of something. E.g. very beautiful, extremely beautiful etc.

Comparisons and intensifications are possible in case of only gradable adjectives. They are not allowed in case of non-gradable adjectives. Gradable adjective can be measured in numerical terms e.g. tall. We can measure “how tall”. Non gradable adjectives cannot be measured in numerical terms. E.g. perfect. In case of ‘perfect’, there are no gradations.

4.4 Check Your Progress

Answer in ½ sentences.

1. Explain the functions of adjectives in brief.
2. Mention the degrees of comparison.

3. Mention 3 types of adjectives.

4.5 Preposition and Prepositional Phrase

In the most general terms, a preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement. Of the various types of relational meaning, those of place and time are the most prominent and easy to identify.

**The prepositional phrase -**

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is characteristically a noun phrase or a wh clause or V-ing clause.

e.g. at the bus-stop

That – clauses and infinitive clauses, although they frequently have a nominal function in other respects, do not occur as prepositional complement.

e.g. He was surprised that she said this.

**Postposed prepositions -**

Normally a preposition must be followed by its complement; but there are some circumstances in which this does not happen, either because the complement has to take first position in the clause, or because it is absent:

WH – QUESTIONS: Which house did you leave it at?

At which house is he staying? (formal)

RELATIVE CLAUSES: The old house which I was telling you about is empty. (about which I was telling you) (formal).

WH- CLAUSES: What I’m convinced of is that the world’s population will grow to an unforeseen extent.

EXCLAMATIONS: What a mess he’s got into!

PASSIVES: She was sought after by all the leading personalities of the day.

INFINITIVE CLAUSES: He’s impossible to work with.
Simple and Complex Prepositions

Most of the commonly used prepositions like at, in, for are Simple i.e. they contain only one word. Other prepositions that consist of more than one word are called Complex prepositions.

Syntactic Functions of Prepositional Phrase

Prepositional Phrases may function as:

a) Adjunct – e.g. The people were singing on the bus.
b) Disjunct – e.g. To my surprise, the boss phoned.
c) Conjunct- e.g. On the other hand, she made no effort to help the poor or apprehend their exploiters.
d) Postmodifier in a noun phrase – e.g. The people on the bus were singing.
e) Complementation of a verb – e.g. We depend upon you.
f) Complementation of an adjective- e.g. I am sorry for his sister.

4.6 The Simple Sentence

Simple sentence is a sentence which consists of only one clause in it. In order to know it well, it is desirable to study 7 basic clause types. They are as under:

1. SVO – He ate a mango.
   \[ S \quad V \quad O \]

2. SV – Parag is weeping.
   \[ S \quad V \]

3. SVC – The rose is red.
   \[ S \quad V \quad C \]

4. SVCA – He is the chairman now.
   \[ S \quad V \quad C \quad A \]

5. SVOC – They made him a chairman.
   \[ S \quad V \quad O \quad OC \]

6. SVOO – She gave the child milk.
S V Oi Od

7. SVOA – She played her role beautifully.

Complementation –

The elements Od, C and A in the above patterns are obligatory elements of clause structure in the sense that they are required for the complementation of the verb. It means that given the use of a particular verb in a particular sense, the sentence is incomplete if one of these elements is omitted. * she played her role (type SVOA) and *he ate (type SVO) are unacceptable.

Clause elements syntactically defined -

a) Subject
   i) It is normally a noun phrase or a clause with nominal function.
   ii) It occurs before the verb phrase in declarative clauses and immediately after the operator in questions.
   iii) It has number and person concord, where applicable with verb phrase.

b) Object (direct or indirect)
   i) Like a subject, it is a noun phrase or clause with nominal function.
   ii) It normally follows the subject and the verb phrase.
   iii) By the passive transformation, it assumes the status of the subject.
   iv) An indirect object, where both objects are present, precedes the direct object and is semantically equivalent to a prepositional phrase.

c) Complement (Subject or Object)
   i) It is a noun phrase, an adjective clause or a clause with nominal function, having co-referential relation with the subject or object.
   ii) It follows the subject, verb phrase and (if one is present) object.
   iii) It doesn’t become subject through the passive transformation.

d) An Adverbial
   i) It is an adverb phrase, adverbial clause, noun phrase or prepositional phrase.
   ii) It is generally mobile that is it is capable of occurring in more than one position in the clause.
   iii) It is generally optional that is it may be added to or removed from a sentence without accepting its acceptability.
Concord-

1. Subject- verb concord - The most important type of concord in English is concord of number between subject and verb. Thus (3) and (4) are ungrammatical.
   (1) The window is open. (singular + singular)
   (2) The windows are open. (Plural + Plural)
   (3) *The window are open. (singular + Plural)
   (4) *The windows is open. (Plural + Singular)

2. Notional Concord and Proximity – “Notional Concord” is agreement of verb with subject according to the idea of number rather than the actual presence of the grammatical marker for that idea. Thus, the government is treated as plural in ‘ The government have broken all their premises (BRE) as is shown not only by the plural verb ‘have’, but also by the pronoun ‘their’.
   The principle of proximity denotes agreement of the verb with whatever noun or pronoun closely precedes it, sometimes in preference to agreement with the headword of the subject:
   E.g. No one except his own supporters agree with him.

3. Concord of Person- As well as concord of number, there is concord of person between subject and verb:
   I am your friend (1st Person Singular Concord)
   He is ready (3rd Person Singular Concord)
   They are intelligent (3rd Person plural Concord)

4. Subject- Complement Concord- Subject- Complement concord of number (but not of person) exists between S and C in clause type SVC.
   e.g. The child was an angel
   but not *The child was angels.

5. Subject-Object Concord- Subject-Object concord of number, person and gender is necessary as well as subject-complement concord, where the second element is a reflexive pronoun.
   e.g. She injured herself in the leg.
   The same concord relation holds when the reflexive pronoun occurs in other functions e.g. as a prepositional complement.
E.g. She is making a sweater for herself.

6. Pronoun Concord- Personal pronouns in the 3rd person agree with their antecedents both in number and (with the singular pronouns he, she and it) in gender:
E.g. Jimmy hurt his foot.

The climbers hurt their feet.

English has no sex-neutral 3rd person singular pronoun and so the plural pronoun ‘they’ is often used informally, in defiance of number concord, as a substitute for the indefinite pronouns everyone, everybody, someone, somebody, nobody etc.

E.g. Everyone thinks they have the answer.

The Vocative

A vocative is a nominal element added to a sentence or clause optionally denoting the one or more people to whom it is addressed and signaling the fact that it is addressed to them:

E.g. You, my friend, will have to work hard. (S voc V A)

Peter, I want you (voc SV Od)

It’s a lovely Day, Mrs. Brown (SV Cs voc)

These three sentences show how a vocative may take an initial, medial or final position in the sentence; in its optionality and freedom of position, it is more like an adverbial than any other element of clause structure.

In form, a vocative may be,

i) A single name with or without title : John, Dr. Smith etc.

ii) The personal pronoun you (markedly impolite) e.g. Behave yourself.

iii) Standard appellatives, usually nouns without pre or post modification.

e.g. a) Family Relationships: mother, father, uncle (more familiar forms like mom, dad etc.)

b) Endearments: dear, darling etc.

c) Titles of respect: Sir, Madam, My lord, Your Excellency etc.

d) Markers of Profession or Status : doctor, Mr. President, Bishop etc.

iv) A nominal clause (very occasionally): whoever said that
One obvious function of a vocative in English is to seek the attention of the person addressed, and especially to single him out from others who may be within hearing. A second function is to express the attitude of the speaker towards the addressee. Vocatives are generally used as a positive mark of attitude, to indicate either respectful distance or familiarity. (Varying from mild friendliness to intimacy).

Negation

The negation of a simple sentence is achieved by inserting not, n’t between the operator and the predication:

We may win the match – We may not win the match.
She is coming - She isn’t coming.

In these instances, there is an item in the positive sentences that can serve as operator. When this is not so, the auxiliary ‘do’ is introduced and this, like modal auxiliaries, is followed by the bare infinitive.

E.g. They understood the problem – They did not understand the problem.

Abbreviated negation – In circumstances where it is possible to abbreviate the operator by the use of a contracted form.

E.g. He isn’t coming. – He is not coming.

Statements, questions, commands, exclamations

Simple sentences may be divided into four major syntactic clauses whose use correlates with different communicative functions:

1) Statements are sentences in which the subject is always present and generally precedes the verb. E.g. John will speak to the boss today.
2) Questions are sentences marked by one or more of these three criteria:
   a) The placing of the operator immediately in front of the subject: Will John speak to the boss today?
   b) The initial positioning of an interrogative or Wh-element: Who will you speak to?
   c) Rising intonation: You will speak to the boss?
3) Commands are sentences which normally have no overt grammatical subject, and whose verb is in the imperative:
   Speak to the boss today.
4) Exclamations are sentences which have an initial phrase introduced by what or how, without inversion of subject and operator: What a noise they are making!
4.5to 4.6 Check your Progress

1. Answer in ½ sentences.
   1. Define Statements.
   2. Define Commands
   3. Define Exclamations.

2. Fill in the blanks by choosing proper option.

   1. Simple sentences may be divided into ............major syntactic clauses whose use correlates with different communicative functions. (four, two, three)
   2. One obvious function of a ................in English is to seek the attention of the person addressed, and especially to single him out from others who may be within hearing. (Noun, pronoun, vocative).
   3. ................ is agreement of verb with subject according to the idea of number rather than the actual presence of the grammatical marker for that idea. (verbal concord, notional concord, subject-concord)
   4. Prepositions that consist of more than one word are known as ................ Prepositions. (Simple, Compound)
   5. Normally, Preposition must be followed by its ................... (Complement, Compliment)

4.7 Conclusion

In this chapter we learnt how the study of syntax helps us to understand the structure of English in general. However, the study of ‘Semantics’ helps us to understand the deeper meanings of the words which is dealt in the next chapter.

4.8 Summary

In this chapter, we learnt the following things.
There are seven types of clauses.

1. SVA – Tom is in the library.
2. SVC - John is my friend.
3. SVO - Rakesh ate an apple.
5. SVOC - They made him the captain.
6. SVOO - Akshay gives me a book.
7. SV – Birds fly.

The following are some of the essential principles of sentence construction.

1. A sentence should have two parts: subject and predicate.
2. The subject should precede the verb in a sentence.
3. The object should occur in the predicative part of the sentence.
4. In an interrogative sentence, the word order should be Wh-word + Aux + Sub + MV….?
5. In tag questions, if the sentence is positive, the tag is negative, and if the sentence is negative, the tag is positive. There are exceptions as well.
6. In a negative sentence, the negative word should follow the auxiliary verb.
7. Passive transformation is possible only when ‘object’ is present in a sentence. In active voice, the doer of the action (agent) is emphasized, whereas in passive construction, the action is focused. The word order in the former is Subject + Verb + Object, and in the latter, it is Object + Verb + Subject (of the active sentence).
8. A simple sentence generally consists of a single finite clause.
9. The simple sentences are of four types, viz. declarative (statements), interrogative (questions), imperative (Commands), and exclamatory (exclamations).
10. A compound sentence consists of two or more main clauses which are connected by coordinating conjunctions like ‘and’, ‘but’ ‘or’, but when separated, these clauses may exist as separate sentences.
11. A complex sentence is composed of one main clause and two or more subordinating clauses. These clauses are joined by subordinating conjunctions like while, therefore, if, because, etc.
12. The compound and complex sentences have reference items which just like pronouns avoid repetition.
13. The given information is generally in the first part of the sentence while the new information is placed in the final part of the sentence. The information in a sentence can be emphasized by use of cleft sentences, fronting, etc.

In the second half of twentieth century Chomsky’s Transformational Generative (TG) grammar has contributed a lot to the study of syntax.

In addition to the above things, we also learnt the concepts of Nouns, Pronouns and the basic NP, Adjective and Adverb, Preposition and Prepositional Phrase and The Simple Sentence.

Check Your Progress – Answers

4.2

1. 20\textsuperscript{th}

2. Simple

3. 7

4.3

1. a) quantifier

2. d) in all the above three references

3. d) in all the above three cases

4.4.

1. There are two main functions of adjectives:

   1. Attributive function – There is a noun after the adjective.
      E.g. medical college
      \begin{align*}
      \text{Adj.} & \quad \text{N} \\
      \end{align*}

   2. Predicative function- There is no noun after the adjective.
      e.g. he made his wife happy. (adj)

2. Degrees of comparison are Positive, Comparative, Superlative, Equative, lesser degree of comparison, least degree of comparison

3. Three types of adjectives are

   1. Both attributive and predicative – e.g. tall, beautiful, interesting, short etc.
   2. Only attributive – e.g. medical college. You cannot say “The college is medical”.
   3. Only Predicative- e.g. alive, well, ill etc.

4.5 to 4.6
1. Statements are sentences in which the subject is always present and generally precedes the verb. E.g. John will speak to the boss today.
2. Commands are sentences which normally have no overt grammatical subject, and whose verb is in the imperative: Speak to the boss today.
3. Exclamations are sentences which have an initial phrase introduced by what or how, without inversion of subject and operator: What a noise they are making!

2.

1. Four
2. Vocative
3. “Notional Concord”
4. Compound
5. Complement
Chapter 5

SEMANTICS

5.0 Objectives
5.1 Introduction
5.2 The term “Semantics”
5.3 The term “Meaning”
5.4 Lexical Relations
5.5 Conclusion
5.6 Summary

Check Your Progress – Answers

Fieldwork

5.0 Objectives

The detailed study of this chapter would enable you to

Explain the concept of “Semantics”

Explain the concept of “Meaning”

Describe the lexical relations.

5.1 Introduction

We have just seen one of the major levels of linguistic analysis called Syntax. It plays an important role in the study of a language. It is the study of the order in which words are arranged in a sentence. Syntax is the important part in the study of grammar of a language. Sentence is the important part of grammatical analysis. The study of sentence structure is called syntax.

Now we will go briefly through another system of language called ‘Semantics.’ Semantics deals with meaning.

5.2 The term “Semantics”

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. It is the level at which one attempts to analyze how meanings are expressed and understood.

Just like a 'phoneme' is the smallest distinctive unit of a sound, a minimal unit of meaning is a 'sememe'.
5.3 The term “Meaning”

The term 'meaning' is understood in many different ways. Therefore there are many definitions explaining the word 'meaning'. The meaning of a word lies in the relationship between words and the concepts for which these words stand. These relationships can be of various types. Some of these types of meaning are as follows.

(1) The denotative (or conceptual) meaning – It is the literal meaning of a word which indicates the concept or idea it refers to. This meaning does not change as it is directly related to the concept it defines. For instance, the word 'dog' is used for a pet animal which guards our home.

(2) The connotative meaning – It is the additional meaning of a word. This meaning of the word comes from its reference to other things in the world. This meaning may change in the course of time as it is based on associations made to the concept. For example, a cow is a sacred animal.

(3) The social meaning – The meaning which conveys about the circumstances of the use of a word is called its social meaning. This meaning is related to the situation and the relationship between the participants in a conversation. For example, though apparently similar, the meanings of these words- house, home and residence are not exactly one and the same but differ from one context to another.

(4) The thematic meaning – This type of meaning is related to the way in which the message is organized in a written or spoken matter. Though two sentences apparently appear alike, their meanings may differ. The active and passive constructions differ in their thematic meanings. In active sentence the emphasis is on the subject (doer of the action) while in the passive it is on the object (the action). Consider the following pair of sentences as an example.

The cat killed the rat. (Active)

The rat was killed by the cat. (Passive)

Lexical meaning and grammatical meaning are the major sources of meaning.

Let's see the distinction between the lexical and the grammatical meaning.

The meanings of open class items like nouns and adjectives are defined in a dictionary and this meaning is 'lexical meaning'.

The meanings of close class items like prepositions and conjunctions have meaning only in relation to other words in a sentence. This is called grammatical meaning.

This distinction helps to understand ambiguity in the sentences.

5.2 and 5.3 Check Your Progress
1. Fill in the blanks with proper alternative.

1. The ........ meaning related to the way in which the message is organized in a written or spoken matter. (thematic, syntactic)

2. The meaning which conveys about the circumstances of the use of a word is called its ........ meaning. (social, asocial)

3. ..................................................meaning is the literal meaning of a word which indicates the concept or idea it refers to. (denotative/conceptual, connotative)

2. Answer in ½ sentences.

1. Define ‘Semantics’

2. Define the term ‘Meaning’.

5.4 Lexical relations

The meaning of a word can be known with the help of its relationship to other words. The lexical relationship between the words can be known by the similarity between words, opposition, and inclusion. These lexical relations which are considered to know the ‘sense’ relationship between the words include synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, homonyms, polysemy, etc.

The following types of lexical relations are usually studied in semantics.

**Synonymy**

Two or more lexical items can be called synonyms if they have similar meanings and they can be replaced in sentences. Examples of synonyms are – answer-reply, freedom-liberty, and toilet-lavatory.

Synonyms are near-equivalent lexical items and they don't have exactly same meanings. A word may appear appropriate in a context whereas its synonym is unsuitable. For example, the sentence *My answer to the first question in the second unit test was correct* would appear odd if it is written as *My reply to the first question in the second unit test was correct*.

**Antonymy**

The words with opposite meanings are called as antonyms. Antonyms are different both in form as well as meaning. Examples of antonyms are – long-short, big-small, boy-girl, good-bad, true-false.

The opposite meaning doesn't always mean negative meaning. For example, pack-unpack, here unpack doesn't mean 'not to pack'. The same is applicable to 'uncover' in the pair cover-uncover.
Some antonyms like big- small have comparative forms - bigger than - smaller than while some antonyms like 'dead' cannot be used in comparative sentences. For example, 'dead' can't be used as 'deader' or 'more dead'.

**Hyponymy**

In this lexical relationship a word with specific meaning includes a word with more general meaning. For example the word 'dog' includes the meaning of 'animal' in its meaning. In hyponymy the more specific item is considered a hyponym of the more general item. Thus *apple* is a hyponym of *fruit*. The other examples are —chair-furniture, snake-reptile, rose -flower.

**Homophony**

If two or more words have the same pronunciation but their spellings and meanings are different then they are known as homophones. E.g. some/sum, sun/son, meat-meet, sweet/suite, etc.

Homonymy- Homonyms are the words with same spelling and pronunciation but having different meanings. E.g. lead /lɛd/ = metal; lead/ lɪːd/ = verb. Another example of this kind could be the word 'bank'.

**Polysemy**

It is the phenomenon of a word having same form having more than one meaning. The meanings here are based on similarity. For example, the word 'head' has multiple meanings like – important part of body, main person of a department, top part of a nail, part of a cassette player, etc.

Sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the terms 'homonymy' and 'polysemy'. A dictionary has only one entry for a polysemic word, but for each homonym there is a separate entry in the dictionary.

**Metonymy**

In metonymy the relationship between words is based on the close connection in everyday life. For example, if you come across a courier service named 'Spokes', you may easily understand (via metonymy), that the parcels are delivered by bicycle. I have at least a roof over my head. (Here roof refers to house).

Other examples - The white house today announced a package to the companies badly affected by recession. (Here the white house means the President of USA)

Similarly - 10, Janpath suggest The Prime Minister of India and Varsha suggests The chief minister of Maharashtra

Collocations – Collocations are the words which frequently occur together. There are certain words that always occur in the company of certain other words.
E.g. hard work, strong coffee, beautiful flower, husband and wife, bread and butter, etc.

5.4 Check Your Progress

Answer in ½ sentences.

1. What are collocations?
2. What is Polysemy?
3. What is metonymy?
4. Define homonymy.
5. Define antonymy.
6. Define Synonymy.

5.6 Conclusion

Dear students,

Thus, semantics deals with the meaning at the level of words. It deals with the denotative that is dictionary meaning mainly. Whereas ‘Pragmatics’ deal with the meaning in context. It deals with the intended meaning by the speaker. The study of the pragmatics would be a matter of interest to you in the next semester.

5.7 Summary

In this chapter, we mainly learnt the terms ‘Semantics’, ‘Meaning’ and ‘lexical relations’. Semantics is the study of meaning in language. Lexical relations which are considered to know the ‘sense’ relationship between the words include synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, homonyms, polysemy, etc. The meaning of a word lies in the relationship between words and the concepts for which these words stand. Some of the types of meaning are thematic, social, denotative, connotative etc.

Check Your Progress – Answers

5.2 to 5.3

1.

1. Thematic
2. Social
3. Denotative/ Conceptual
Semantics is the study of meaning in language. It is the level at which one attempts to analyze how meanings are expressed and understood.

The meaning of a word lies in the relationship between words and the concepts for which these words stand.

Collocations are the words which frequently occur together. There are certain words that always occur in the company of certain other words.

E.g. hard work, strong coffee, beautiful flower, husband and wife, bread and butter, etc.

Polysemy is the phenomenon of a word having same form having more than one meaning. The meanings here are based on similarity. For example, the word ‘head’ has multiple meanings like – important part of body, main person of a department, top part of a nail, part of a cassette player, etc.

Metonymy – In metonymy the relationship between words is based on the close connection in everyday life. For example, if you come across a courier service named ‘Spokes’, you may easily understand (via metonymy), that the parcels are delivered by bicycle. I have at least a roof over my head. (Here roof refers to house).

Homonymy- Homonyms are the words with same spelling and pronunciation but having different meanings. E.g. lead /led/r= metal; lead/ li:d/ = verb. Another example of this kind could be the word ‘bank’. This is known as homonymy.

Antonymy - The words with opposite meanings are called as antonyms. Antonyms are different both in form as well as meaning. Examples of antonyms are – long-short, big-small, boy-girl, good-bad, true-false.

Synonymy - Two or more lexical items can be called synonyms if they have similar meanings and they can be replaced in sentences. Examples of synonyms are – answer-reply, freedom-liberty, and toilet-lavatory.

Fieldwork

Find out the book entitled “Meaning of Meanings” from the library and read it in detail.
Section A
Question Bank

1. Explain the concept of Communication
2. Describe the characteristics of Communication
3. Describe the barriers to Communication
4. Explain the concept of Non-verbal Communication
5. Elaborate essential Categories of Non-verbal Communication
6. Describe the principles of Effective Communication
7. Explain the concept of “Phonology”. Deep study of this chapter would enable you to
8. Explain phonemes and Sounds of English.
9. Explain the place and manner of articulation.
10. Describe the Vowels and Consonants in English.
11. Distinguish between phonemes and allophones.
12. Explain the concept of “Morphology”. Deep study of this chapter would enable you to
13. Explain the concepts of “morphemes” and “Allomorphs”
14. Describe the types of morphemes in English
15. Describe the processes of word formation.
16. Discuss the elements of grammar in detail.
17. Describe Nouns, Pronouns and the basic concept of NP
18. Describe Adjective and Adverb in detail.
19. Discuss Preposition and Prepositional Phrase in detail.
20. Discuss the concept of Simple Sentence in detail.
21. Explain the concept of “Semantics”
22. Explain the concept of “Meaning”
23. Describe the lexical relations.

Write Short Notes on -
1. Structure of English sentence
2. Dialect and accent
3. Principles of communication
4. Functions of language
5. Vowels
6. Consonants
7. Weak forms
8. Intonation
9. Acronyms
10. Suffixes
11. Free and bound morphemes
Reference Books


2. Thorat Ashok, (2008), Discourse Analysis, CUP.


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CHAPTER 1

Language and Society

1.0 Objectives

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Language Variation

1.2.1 Regional Variation/Dialects

1.2.2 Social Variation/Sociolects

1.2.3 Stylistic Variation/(i.e. Formal and Informal Styles)

1.3 Language Contact

1.3.1 Code Switching and Code Mixing

1.3.2 Pidgins and Creoles

1.4 Conclusion

1.5 Summary

Check Your Progress – Answers

Field Work

1.0 Objectives

The detailed study of this chapter would enable you to
Describe the relation between the language and society
Explain Language Variation
Explain Regional Variation/Dialects
Explain Social Variation/Sociolects
Describe the concept of Language Contact
Describe the concepts of Code Switching and Code Mixing
Describe “Pidgins” and “Creoles”
1.1 Introduction

As language varies from one individual to another, it also varies from one social group to another. In this chapter, we are going to study language from the point of view of accents, dialects, registers and styles.

1.2 Language Variation

Let’s see such variations in the English language.

The varieties of English can be classified as-

i) Varieties according to user – dialects and accents

ii) Varieties according to use – registers and

iii) Varieties according to social relations - styles

i) Varieties according to user – Accents and Dialects

1) Accent–

Accent refers to differences in pronunciation. Educated speakers in the south of England speak RP and uneducated speakers in London use Cockney. These are accents of English.

All accents of English have /r/ sound in words such as ‘rat’ and ‘rich’ and most carry /r/ in sorry. On the other hand some accents have no /r/ in accent in England in words like ‘car’ and ‘cart’. The accents without /r/ have more status in England and RP is considered to be the prestige accent which does not have /r/ whereas in USA, accents with postvocalic /r/ have more prestige than without /r/.

Distinction between dialect and accent-

If two speakers differ in grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary, then they are speaking different dialects. Variation in pronunciation, but not in grammar and vocabulary, would be considered difference of accent.

2) Dialects –

Dialect has been defined in the following ways.

i) Dialect is a regionally or socially distinctive variety of language, identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures. (Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics – David Crystal)
ii) Dialect is a specific form of a given language, spoken in a certain locality or geographic area, showing sufficient differences from the standard of literary form of that language, as to pronunciation, grammatical construction and idiomatic use of words, to be considered a distinct entity, (A Dictionary of Linguistics (1959) – A. Pie and Frank).

Thus a dialect is a variety of language distinguished according to region and social class. Dialects are mainly divided into two types - regional dialects and social dialects.

**ii) Varieties according to use Registers and Styles**

Varieties according to the subject matter involved in a discourse are sometimes referred to as ‘registers’. The language found in the jargon of fishing, gambling and sports varies from topic to topic. These are the occupational varieties which involve members of a particular profession or occupation.

The following definitions can give us the features of this variety of language.

i) Register is a variety of language defined according to its use in social situations. (Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics – David Crystal)

ii) A language variety marked by certain features that are typical of certain disciplines/fields/topics, occupations and social roles played by a speaker is referred to as register. (Modern Applied Linguistics – Krishnaswamy, et al.)

It is generally assumed that registers are differentiated mainly on the basis of vocabulary. However, vocabulary is one of the indicators of a register and not only one. We always find a mixture of features in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Therefore registers can be described in terms of lexical, grammatical and phonological markers peculiar to a text. Based on the differences in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation registers can be mainly classified into three types.

a) Registers according to differences in vocabulary

b) Registers according to differences in grammar

c) Registers according to differences in pronunciation

a) Registers according to differences in vocabulary-

Vocabulary is one of the chief aspects of distinction between one register and another. One can identify the register of a particular subject based on the words specific to the subject. For example, if terms like LBW, wide ball, umpire, third man, bouncer, and beamer exist we may say the written or spoken text is related to sports register, particularly cricket. The terms like oldie-Goldie, top-ten, feature in the programmes on FM radio. The occurrence of words like gene, DNA, cell, may indicate that the text belongs to the scientific register.
b) Registers according to differences in grammar-

The register can also be identified with the help of grammatical features found in a particular text. For example, the newspaper headlines have certain grammatical features which are distinct from Standard English.

i) There is use of simple tense.
   E.g. Amartya Sen wins Nobel Prize for Economics

ii) Noun phrase is generally lengthy and without a main verb.
    E.g. City fire death stock probe

iii) The words belonging to minor grammatical categories (like articles, prepositions) rarely find the place in headlines.
    E.g. Archbishop ill: misses funeral

c) Registers according to differences in pronunciation-

Some registers are also identified with the special pronunciation features. The spoken form of English is required in the registers of sports commentaries, public speaking, televisions advertisements, poetry reading, and announcements at railway station. In these situations if the user fails to take into account the special features of the registers, then the performance could be disastrous.

Style - varieties according to social relations

Language varies not only according to the social characteristics of the speaker (such as age, gender and social class) but also according to the social context in which the individual finds himself/herself. The same person uses different linguistic varieties in different situations for different purposes.

We have just seen the variations in language according to the user (dialects) and use (registers). There is one more kind of variation generally noticed in language and it is called style.

The following definitions of this variety give us its features.

a) Style may be defined as variation in a person’s speech or writing. It usually varies from casual to formal according to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed, etc. (Longman dictionary of Applied Linguistics)

b) Cook (1996) defines style as the distinctive manner in which one handles one’s language, with due consideration given to its appropriateness for the occasion.

   A person plays different social roles. For instance, a young teacher will speak in different ways when communicating with his wife, his colleagues, his students, while shopping and so on. The manner in which s/he uses a language varies from one situation to other. In a
communicative situation the language also varies according to the participants like members in the family, close friends, strangers and with persons of different social positions like the boss or other senior or junior colleagues in the office. When the professor’s wife tells him to ‘stop talking like a professor’ she is protesting at a misuse of style.

Thus, style is a functional variety of language which is known according to

i) attitude to the hearer (reader)
ii) social relations between the participants
iii) situation
iv) appropriateness
v) subject matter and
vi) Purpose of communication.

1.2.1 Regional Variation/Dialects

Regional dialects

The dialects which are spoken by the people of a particular geographical area are known as regional dialects, for example, Cockney in London. The regional variety has a separate status in the region where it is spoken.

In the development of regional dialects, geographical features such as barriers (rivers, mountains) and distance are important. If there is a linguistic innovation – a new word, a new pronunciation, a new usage – at a particular place, it spreads to other areas, if no serious barriers are there. The reason for the differences between urban and rural accents (with relation to pronunciation of /r/) is that linguistic innovations often spread from one urban centre to another, and only later spread out into the surrounding countryside. This is due to the general economic and cultural dominance of town over country (village). This could be easily understood in the context of fashion in clothing.

The spread of linguistic features from one area to another is therefore not dependent solely on proximity (nearthness of distance). Linguistic innovations not only spread from one region to another but also may spread from one language to another.

Mass media and universal education have contributed to developing a tolerance of regional variations and to minimize differences.

The regional variation is easily traceable in the localized English dialects. If we consider an example of vocabulary difference, we find a number of words for scarecrow like flay crow, Maupin, boggle in the different parts of UK. A similar kind of difference is found in syntax. Let’s see an example of different versions of a sentence.

He is a man who likes his beer.

He is a man that likes his beer.
He is a man what likes his beer.

He is a man he likes his beer.

The differences are noticed in accent as well. Word ‘home’ is pronounced in different ways in the most localized accent of Edinburgh /heːm/, Liverpool /oːm/, Norwich /Um/, London /æUm/.

1.2.2 Social Variation/Sociolects

Dialects which are spoken by the members of a particular social group or stratum of a speech community are called social dialects. These are also known as sociolects.

The acquisition of a given social dialect depends on one’s membership in a class which may be determined by birth, education, profession, wealth and religion or race. Two factors are important in social dialects – social barriers and social distance.

Social dialects include class dialects and caste dialects.

**Class dialects** -

There is a very close relationship between language and society. The variation in a language can also be the result of the existence of varieties of language called social-class dialects. What a speaker says on any occasion is in part a reflection of his social identity. The pronunciation, vocabulary items and grammatical differences found in the language used by the speakers may provide us with the hints about the social background of those speakers. The identity of a social group is related to features of the language related to that group.

In England social dialects are differentiated as upper class and non-upper class. In USA and Canada these dialects are studied as lower class and middle class dialects. In England speakers of the highest class employ the dialect called Standard English and the accent they prefer is RP. The speakers from the lowest class use most localized accent or non-standard dialect.

In case of social dialects, mass media and universal education have not been affected much. The use of non-prestige features are noticed in informal discourse by the speakers from Upper class or middle class. Most important class differences are signaled by features like intonation or voice quality. For example, the working class accents of Birmingham, Liverpool and Norwich, all have voice quality features which distinguish themselves from their middle-class counterparts.

In America the lower middle class has a tendency to use more prestige forms in formal discourse than upper middle class.

In India as well we can come across such variations in different parts of the country between the language used by the upper class and lower class people. For example, Konkani used by the Brahmins in Mangalore differs from the Konkani used by the non-Brahmins in Mangalore.
Caste dialects –

According to some linguists the study of caste dialects is easier because castes are stable, clearly named groups, rigidly separated from each other, with hereditary membership and with little possibility of movement from one caste to another. Though the speakers of a language may move from one social class to another, they may still belong to the caste of their birth. India is one of the suitable places to study the features of caste dialects. In India one’s personal status was traditionally largely circumscribed at birth by caste membership. The lexical forms and their pronunciations used by Brahmins and non-Brahmins in two Indian cities - Bangalore and Dharwar were studied. In the study of Kanarese language spoken by Brahmins and non-Brahmins in these two Karnataka cities, it was revealed that social differences in a language are greater. For instance, an expression like ‘it is’ is pronounced in different ways by the social groups in these two cities. In Bangalore, Brahmins pronounce it as /ide/ whereas non-Brahmins pronounce it as /ayti/.

1.2.3 Stylistic Variation/ (i.e. Formal and Informal Styles)

Types of Style-

Formal and informal styles -

The use of language in a situation depends on the formality or informality of the situation, which in turn depends on the relationship between participants, topic of discussion and the occasion.

If the participants in a communicative situation are a boss and his/her junior, the style is formal. If the relationship between the participants in a situation is intimate, the style used is informal. One of the features of formal style is redundancy while use of short forms is a noticeable feature of informal style.

The examples of these styles are –

Would you care for some coffee? (Formal)
Want some coffee? (Informal)

In everyday life we find adult speakers using a small number of styles.

Martin Joes (1962) has suggested five levels of styles for English: frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate. This classification rests on the formality scale.

1. Frozen style is a marked feature of literary, religious and legal works like scriptures, weddings and treaties. Archaic vocabulary and ceremonial language distinguishes this style from other styles.
2. Formal style is informative and includes complex sentences, ample vocabulary and meticulous pronunciation without contractions. It is generally found in a lecture where one is in authority and others listen to him/her passively as in a classroom situation. It is used by professionals like lecturers and judges.
3. Consultative style is preferred when one is conversing with a stranger, and in small group discussions. The major features of this style are clear pronunciation and avoidance of slang. One can find use of this in a telephonic conversation.

4. Casual style is used within members of a social or occupational group. It is preferred among friends. It is marked with fillers like ‘you know’, ‘I mean’, and sometimes includes use of slang.

5. Intimate style is used by the people who know each other very well as in a love relationship. Private vocabulary, special meanings and use of non-verbal communication are the noticeable features of this style.

Let’s see examples of these styles.

   Frozen style - Miss. Patil must keep quiet! (An announcement on mike)
   Formal style – Kindly stop talking now, Miss. Patil. (Teacher in a class)
   Consultative style – Do you mind not talking now, Miss. Patil?
   Casual style – Better not to talk now, Vidya.
   Intimate style – Darling- shhh!

1.2 Check Your Progress

   Fill in the blanks by choosing correct option.

1. ..........style is a marked feature of literary, religious and legal works like scriptures, weddings and treaties. (Frozen style, Casual style).

2. ..................... style is preferred when one is conversing with a stranger, and in small group discussions. (Casual, frozen, consultative)

3. Private vocabulary, special meanings and use of non-verbal communication are the noticeable features of ................. style.

1.3 Language Contact

It occurs when two or more languages or varieties interact. It occurs in a variety of phenomena

1.3.1 Code Switching and Code Mixing

In linguistics, Code Switching is the concurrent use of more than one language variety in conversation. Code switching is the use of more than one linguistic variety in a manner consistent with the syntax and phonology of each variety. Whereas code mixing is a phenomenon of mixing one or two languages together in conversation. For instance ‘Hinglish’ that is mixture of Hindi and English is the best example of code mixing.
1.3.2 Pidgins and Creoles

A pidgin is a simplified language that develops as a means of communication between two or more groups that do not have a language in common. It is commonly employed in situations such as trade or where both groups speak languages different from the language of the country in which they reside. Pidgins usually have low prestige with respect to other languages. Whereas Creole is a stable, natural language that originates from a pidgin that has become nativized. The vocabulary of Creole language consists of cognates from the parent languages, though there are often clear phonetic and semantic shifts.

1.3 Check your Progress

Answer in ½ sentences.

1. Define pidgin.
2. Define Creole.
3. What is code mixing?
4. What is code switching?

1.4 Conclusion

Thus, language variation plays a major role in the cultures of different communities. It influences an individual’s personal, social and political life to a great extent. The varieties of language we learnt in this chapter are mainly national varieties. The next chapter would introduce you to the recognized international varieties that are of great importance in the study of English language in general.

1.5 Summary

In this chapter, we learnt that language changes from one individual to another; it also varies from one social group to another. We can find language variation in social as well as geographical space. People of different age, gender, social class, occupations, or cultural groups in the same speech community show variations in their use of language. These variations are known as varieties of a language.

The varieties of English can be classified as-

i) Varieties according to user – dialects and accents

ii) Varieties according to use – registers and

iii) Varieties according to social relations - styles
Answers to Check Your Progress

1.2

1. Frozen
2. Consultative
3. Intimate

1.3

1. A pidgin is a simplified language that develops as a means of communication between two or more groups that do not have a language in common.

2. Creole is a stable, natural language that originates from a pidgin that has become nativized.

3. Code mixing is a phenomenon of mixing one or two languages together in conversation. For instance ‘Hinglish’ that is mixture of Hindi and English is the best example of code mixing.

4. Code Switching is the concurrent use of more than one language variety in conversation. Code switching is the use of more than one linguistic variety in a manner consistent with the syntax and phonology of each variety.
CHAPTER 2
Distinctive Features of British, American and Indian English

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Some concepts related to varieties of English

2.2.1 English as an International Language

2.2.2 Standard English

2.2.3 Received Pronunciation (RP)

2.2.4 General American English

2.2.5 Standard Indian English – (General Indian English)

2.3 Varieties within National varieties of English

2.3.1 Regional varieties of British English

2.3.2 Regional Varieties of American English

2.3.3 Regional Varieties of American English

2.4 National Varieties of English

2.4.1 American English – A native variety of English – Phonological, Syntactic, Vocabulary Features

2.4.2 Indian English – a non-native variety of English - Phonological, Syntactic, Vocabulary Features

2.5 Spelling Conventions in British, American and Indian English

2.6 Conclusion

2.7 Summary

Check Your Progress – Answers

Field Work

2.0 Objectives
The detailed study of this chapter would enable you to

Explain some concepts related to varieties of English.

Describe the distinctive features of British, American and Indian English.

Explain the phonological features of British, American and Indian English.

Explain the Syntactic features of British, American and Indian English.

Explain the features of Vocabulary of the British, American and Indian English.

Explain the spelling conventions of the British, American and Indian English.

2.1 Introduction

Before we discuss the varieties of English, let us first try to know what is meant by a variety of language.

A language varies from person to person, situation to situation, subject to subject, region to region, and so on. A language is an entity which comprises of all such variations but yet maintains enough similarities in all these varieties in relation to phonology and grammar. These common features make these varieties mutually intelligible.

A variety of a language could be identified as a smaller entity which has some distinctive features of its own and which shares some common features with the larger entity called language.

2.2 Some concepts related to varieties of English

2.2.1 English as an International Language

English has now established itself as a link language (lingua franca). The use of English for purposes of international communication has paved the way for it to gain the status of an International language in the world today.

English is an International language because of the following reasons.

i) It is mother tongue of the people in the countries like UK, USA, Canada, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa.

ii) It is used in as a medium of instruction in school and college education, in government system and media in countries like India and Singapore.
iii) It is taught as a foreign language in schools in countries like Russia, China, Germany, Spain and Brazil. However it is not used in daily communication in these countries.

iv) It is used for communication by the people for whom it is not a first or native language. In countries like India many people speak English for every day communication.

v) It is a medium of communication in diplomacy, business, technology and science. It is preferred by professional people from various countries in the world for the purposes like business, science, political and academic.

The political (military) and economic dominance of the United States in the world today is one of the important factors responsible for the spread of English language all over the world. The USA dominates the world via Internet. Even in the world of computers US spelling system is accepted. This can be known by the widespread use of US spellings by the technocrats in the world.

2.2.2 Standard English

Standard English is a variety of English which was developed out of the English dialects used in and around London. These dialects were modified through the centuries by speakers at the court, by scholars from the universities and other writers and by the public schools.

Here the word ‘standard’ means socially acceptable. It also means ‘used by the majority of people designated. ‘Designated’ means the people those who are concerned with education, with educated usage, with literature. However, ‘standard’ does not mean ‘better’. It means simply ‘most frequent’ in the usage of the people concerned with education and literature. Hence ‘Standard English’ is nothing but one of the dialects of English which has gained prestige.

The British linguist David Crystal (1995) defines Standard English as a minority variety (identified chiefly by its vocabulary, grammar, and orthography) which carries most prestige and is most widely understood.

Features of Standard English

i) Standard English is a variety of English language known by the labels as ‘BBC English’, the Queen’s English’, ‘Oxford English’.

ii) It is identified mainly on its vocabulary and grammar. Standard English is the name of a dialect and not an accent.

iii) Standard English is a dialect of English without a local base. According to Peter Strevens it is the universal non-regional dialect. It displays no geographical or social variation. It is not necessary to speak RP to speak Standard English. It can be spoken with any regional accent or with a non-regional accent.

iv) It is regarded as a ‘pure’ variety.

v) It is used normally by educated people all over the world (and not only in Britain).
vi) It is a prestigious variety understood by more number of people within a country. ‘Prestige’ is a social concept which derives from social class, material success, political strength, popular acclaim, or educational background. The prestigious people in a community are those who have high standing in the eyes of others. The English used by these people naturally becomes the standard within their community. In the words of US linguist James Sledd, Standard English is ‘the English used by the powerful’.

vii) Although Standard English is widely understood, it is not widely produced. Only a minority of people within a country (e.g. radio newscasters) actually use it when they talk.

viii) It is usually used in print media as well.

ix) It is the dialect of literature.

x) It is the variety of English which has been most comprehensively described and studied.

xi) It is that variety of a language for which reference works like dictionaries and grammar books are available.

xii) It is universally accepted in the English-speaking world as the only appropriate model for educational use. It is normally taught in schools and colleges to the native as well as non-native speakers learning the language.

2.2.3 Received Pronunciation (RP)

The short form used for the term ‘Received Pronunciation’ is RP. The word ‘received’ means ‘socially acceptable’. RP is a standard for Spoken English. Received Pronunciation has following features.

i) The areas where English is spoken as the mother tongue, RP is used only in speaking Standard English.

ii) It has been thoroughly studied and ample literature on it is available and this is one of the reasons why it has been used as a model for the learners of English as a second language.

iii) It is a marker of social class. It suggests that the user has his/her schooling in a public school, or the speaker has received higher education and is a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge, or perhaps was defense personnel.

iv) RP is a cluster of weakly marked accents.

2.2.4 General American English

The United States of America (USA) can be divided into three main dialectal regions viz. the North-eastern type, the Southern type, and the Western type, for the convenience of the linguistic study. The Western type, regarded as the most important, covers about four-fifths of the total land surface of the United States of America. It comprises of all the Middle and Western States, the Atlantic Middle States of New Jersey
and Pennsylvania, New York City, and the part of New York State that is situated in the west of the Hudson River. This Western regional dialect of American English represents what is generally referred to as “American English”, or “General American English”. (Spitzbardt (1979))

2.2.5 **Standard Indian English – (General Indian English)**

Indian English is not merely a language of the Indian creative writers in English but also of a vast majority of educated Indians who use it for interpersonal communication in a wide range of contexts. It is a non-native variety of English used by English-using Indian bilinguals or multilinguals. In spite of its own lexical, grammatical, and phonological systems, the English spoken by some of the Indians is understood by the users of English in South East Asia. The kind of English used by Indians is neither R.P. nor American. It is a variety which has its own identity.

The kind of English spoken by the educated Indians from different regions of India is alike in many respects. It is understood by the speakers of English throughout the country. This English can be called as ‘Standard Indian English’ (S.I.E.). One more term used for this is ‘General Indian English’ (GIE). The word ‘general’ is generally applied to a geographically-neutral accent. There are number of people, who belong to different regions in India, speaking S.I.E. S.I.E. is relatively nearer R.P. than any other regional variety of Indian English like Bengali English and Tamilian English. It is used as second or third language and is as recognizable variety of English as American English. (Based on – Linguistics for Language Teachers, pp. 223-224)

2.1 and 2.2 Check Your Progress

**Answer in ½ sentences.**

1. Define Language.
2. State any one reason of being English as an international language.
4. In how many dialectal regions can United States of America be divided? State them.

2.3 **Varieties within National varieties of English**

2.3.1 **Regional varieties of British English**

There are numerous dialects of English in Britain. There are about nine dialects in Scotland, three in Ireland and thirty in England and Wales. This could give us the idea of regional variation in British English. These regional varieties considerably differ from Standard English. The following example may be useful to us to know the variations.
a) In Scottish English
   i) we come across ‘wifes’ as a plural form of ‘wife’
   ii) the meaning of the word ‘scheme’ is ‘local government housing estate’; word ‘travel’ means to ‘go on foot’

b) In Welsh English
   i) the tag question ‘isn’t it’ is used by some speakers after all pronouns
   ii) consonants between vowels are often lengthened, as in money /mən:i/ and butter /bʌtə/

c) In Irish English
   i) /r/ after vowels is kept in such words as ‘car’ and ‘purse’
   ii) /l/ is always clear in words like ‘full’ and ‘field’

2.3.2 Varieties of American English –

The English spoken in different parts of USA is not the same as is taught in schools in a country like Philippines. On the basis of regional variation in the use of English, USA can be divided into three main areas, viz. the North-eastern, the Southern and the Western. Though mutually intelligible, the varieties used in these regions differ in vocabulary, accent and grammar.

We could consider some examples from Black American English to know how the varieties vary from General American (GA) English.

Black Americans maintain their social identity by speaking this variety at home. Black English speech can be distinguished from GA based on the following examples.
i) The word ‘tooth’ is pronounced as ‘toof’ and ‘axe’ as ‘ask’.

ii) There are differences in grammar as well.

   use of ‘be’-

   In a sentence like ‘Sometimes my ears be itching’ we can notice the different way in which ‘be’ is used.

   relative clause -

   ‘I saw the man’ and ‘The man did it’ these two clauses are combined as

   ‘I saw the man what did it’ or ‘I saw the man did it’

   In Standard English the combination would be ‘I saw the man who did it’ where as ‘I saw the man did it’ is not acceptable.
2.3.3 Regional Varieties of Indian English

In India states have been formed on the basis of regional languages. Hence we find varieties in Indian English like Bengali English, Tamil English, Marathi English and Assamese English.

Variations in Indian English are largely related to variations in the pronunciations of English sounds. Comparatively variation in vocabulary and grammar is less affected.

The Indian English pronunciations and sound combinations are influenced by the sounds in regional languages. For instance in North Indian states /s/ is preceded by ‘e’ and we get words like ‘school’ pronounced as ‘eschool’; similarly Bengali speakers replace /v/ by /b/ and hence ‘Rabindranath’, ‘Sourabh’, etc. In the South Indian states we find the influence of the tone of the regional languages. A word like ‘father’ is pronounced with elongated ‘r’.

Thus we find regional variations within Indian English. According to Bansal (1983) in spite of these variations the sub-varieties of Indian English share a common core of language patterns which makes them mutually intelligible.

2.3 Check your Progress

Fill in the gaps with suitable option.


2. Variations in Indian English are largely related to variations in the ................. of English sounds. (pronunciations, grammar).

2.4 National varieties of English

According to Crystal (1995) British colonial power and the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the 20th century are the two main factors responsible for the spread of English language all over the world. This has resulted into national varieties of English like British English, American English, Australian English, West African English, Indian English and Singapore English.

British English and American English are native varieties while Indian English and Singapore English are non-native varieties of English. These varieties are identifiably different from each other. The user acquires native variety as the mother tongue. The non-native variety is learnt in schools. The former is used in varied contexts where as the later is used in limited contexts.
The national varieties of English are similar in their inflectional system and syntax. They vary considerably with respect to sounds, vocabulary, word formation and usage. Let’s go through American English and Indian English and know some of the features of these varieties and how do they differ from British English.

A) Phonological features
B) Lexical features
C) Ways of word formation-
D) Word Usage
E) Syntactic features

2.4.1 American English – A native variety of English

American English is one of the ‘avatars’ of the English language. It has spread worldwide due to television, movies, print media, literature, popular music, economic relations, etc.

A) Phonological features:
You have already come across the phonological features of American English in the unit Physiology of Speech. Hence here we could only see few examples of this.

First we would see the features that distinguish American English from British English. Some of the sounds in British English are pronounced in a different way in American English. The following instances could help us to know the differences in these national varieties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change in sounds</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>British English</th>
<th>American English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/æ:/ - /æ/</td>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>/sæ:mpl/</td>
<td>/sæmpl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɑː:/ - /ɔ/</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>/klaːk/</td>
<td>/klɔːk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɑ:/ - /ɔ:/</td>
<td>cot</td>
<td>/kɒt/</td>
<td>/kɑt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʊː/ - /ɔː:/</td>
<td>cloth</td>
<td>/klɒθ /</td>
<td>/klɔːθ /</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/uː:/ - /uː:/</td>
<td>duty</td>
<td>/djuːti/</td>
<td>/duːti/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/r/</td>
<td>Car</td>
<td>/kɑːr/</td>
<td>/kɑːr/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In American English /l/ is dark in any position, as in word like ‘lady’ where as in British English it is pronounced with clear /l/.

The voiceless /p/, /t/, /k/ are weakened in American English.

B) **Features of Vocabulary**

I) **Spellings** - The electronic media acquaints ones with the spelling system of American English. It is one of the most noticeable features of American English. In certain domains, such as computing, US spellings are becoming increasingly widespread as in the following examples program, disk, catalog, pediatrics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change in spellings</th>
<th>British English</th>
<th>American English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘-our’ – ‘-or’</td>
<td>colour</td>
<td>color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>neighbour</td>
<td>neighbor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘-re’ – ‘-er’</td>
<td>centre</td>
<td>center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>metre</td>
<td>meter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘-ise’ – ‘-ize’</td>
<td>realize</td>
<td>realize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>analyse</td>
<td>analyze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘-ller’ – ‘-ler’</td>
<td>jeweller</td>
<td>jeweler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>traveller</td>
<td>traveler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘-oe’ – ‘-e’</td>
<td>amoeba</td>
<td>ameba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>foetus</td>
<td>fetus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘-c’ – ‘-s’</td>
<td>defence</td>
<td>defense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>practice</td>
<td>practise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II) **Vocabulary** - A visitor to the US generally comes across the differences in the English vocabulary which s/he knows and what he finds in the US e.g. whatever is ‘time table’ in British English is ‘schedule’ in American English. The following statement by a distinguished journalist in Preface to H.W. Horwill: An Anglo-American Interpreter (1939) could make us aware about these differences.
“An American, if taken suddenly ill on a visit to London, might die in the street through being unable to make himself understood...He would naturally ask for the nearest drugstore and no one would know what he meant.”

The differences in vocabulary can be easily noticed in the fields like travel and transport, communication, food and drinks, clothing, education, government system, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>American English</th>
<th>British English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel and transport</td>
<td>truck</td>
<td>lorry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elevator</td>
<td>lift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>baggage</td>
<td>luggage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and drinks</td>
<td>cracker</td>
<td>biscuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>candy</td>
<td>sweets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lemonade</td>
<td>lemon soda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>cuffs</td>
<td>turn ups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tuxedo</td>
<td>dinner jacket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nightgown</td>
<td>nightdress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>line</td>
<td>queue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>carrel</td>
<td>writing desk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vacation</td>
<td>holiday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government system</td>
<td>secretary</td>
<td>minister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>administration</td>
<td>government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>congress</td>
<td>parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>mailbox</td>
<td>pillar box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>movie</td>
<td>cinema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>call up</td>
<td>ring up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C) **Word formation:**
Here is a brief review of some of the processes of word formation. In affixation words are formed by addition of affixes – prefixes and suffixes which are added before and after the root words, for example, un-suit-able. Here un- is the prefix, suit is the root word and –able is the suffix. In acronyms new words (short forms/abbreviations) are formed by the initial letters of the words e.g. USA - United States of America. Clippings are the words formed by shortening either the words e.g. ‘phone’ from telephone. Blending is the process in which parts of two or more words are used to form a new word e.g. edutainment (education and entertainment). In backformation the noun form of a word is reduced to form its verb form e.g. ‘to enthuse’ from ‘enthusiasm’. Lastly, when instead of a direct expression a polite expression is used then it is euphemism e.g. instead of ‘die’ the expression ‘pass away’ is used.

The American variety of English is known for its contribution to the ways of word formation. The following are some of the examples of the novel words formed in American English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways of Word formation</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acronyms</strong></td>
<td>NASA- National Aeronautics and Space Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affixation (-suffixes)</strong></td>
<td>-eria – groceteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-burger – cheese-burger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Backformation</strong></td>
<td>to orate (from oration)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to biograph (from biographer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Blends</strong></td>
<td>Gasohol (gasoline + alcohol)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sportcast (sport + broadcast)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clippings</strong></td>
<td>Gasoline – gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lubricating oil - lube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Euphemisms</strong></td>
<td>gentleman cow (bull)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sanitary engineer (plumber)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D) **Word Usage**
**Borrowings** – American English has borrowed some words from other languages.

The examples of loan words found in American English are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source language</th>
<th>Words in American English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American languages</td>
<td>squash, moose, raccoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>prairie, mode, depot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>hamburger, kindergarten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>bakery, cookie, boss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>cockroach, ranch, cafeteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>tycoon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**New meanings** – Some of the words in American English have meanings different than those in British English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>British Meaning</th>
<th>American Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>corn</td>
<td>Grain</td>
<td>Maize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creek</td>
<td>an inlet from the sea</td>
<td>a small fresh water stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homely</td>
<td>down to earth</td>
<td>ugly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathroom</td>
<td>room with bath or shower and sink</td>
<td>room with toilet only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surgery</td>
<td>a medical operation room</td>
<td>an office of any doctor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>educational institution at elementary level</td>
<td>all institutions of education including universities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Coinages** - Some of the words invented in the USA are lynch, popcorn, drive-in, sit-in, super-market, gangster, lollipop, etc.

**C) Syntactic features:**

American English differs from British English in relation to syntax as well.

i) Word order in a Noun Phrase – In British English the proper noun is placed in the end position whereas in American English it occurs immediately after the modifier.
   - **BrE** - The River Thames, the University of London
   - **AmE** - The Hudson River, London University

ii) Repeated subject – In British English if in a sentence the subject is repeated the indefinite pronoun is repeated in the later part of the sentence while in American English the indefinite pronoun is replaced by a pronoun indicating gender.
   - **BrE** - One cannot succeed unless one tries.
   - **AmE** - One cannot succeed unless he tries hard.

iii) American users avoid using auxiliary verbs
   - **BrE** – I had better go.
   - **AmE** - I better go.

iv) Shall – will distinction – In British English the users prefer ‘shall’ with the words ‘I’ and ‘We’ and use ‘will’ with pronouns ‘he, she, it, they’ while the American users don’t make any such distinction.

v) In British English ‘want’ is followed by ‘to’ infinitive whereas it is missing in American English.
   - **BrE** – He wants to get out.
   - **AmE** - He wants out.

vi) After the verb ‘help’ there is mostly an infinitive without ‘to’ in AmE.
   - **BrE** - I shall help you do it.
   - **AmE** - I will help you do it.
vi) Interrogative sentences - Both the Englishes differ in the use of question words in the interrogative sentences.
BrE - Have you any children?
AmE - Do you have children?

vii) Question tags – The difference in both the varieties of English is noticed even in the way in which question tags are used.
BrE - You haven’t got dances in your village, have you?
AmE - You haven’t got dances in your village, do you?

viii) One more peculiarity of American English syntax is - the use of the past participle after to order.
AmE - The captain ordered the old ship sunk.

ix) In American English we find the frequent use of the simple subjunctive mood after suggest, etc.
BrE - The organizing committee suggests that a sub-committee should be formed.
AmE - The organizing committee suggests that a sub-committee be formed.

x) Verb-adverb constructions – Americans replace ‘gets me by’ for BrE’enough’.
BrE - It is quite enough for me.
AmE - My German is very poor, but I guess it gets me by.

xi) In British English where so that is used American English simply uses so.

2.4.2 Indian English – a non-native variety of English

Indian English is a non-native variety of English used by a vast body of educated Indians. It is an all-India language which is marked by Indian colour and socio-regional features. As the language is widely used for communication it has its own lexical, grammatical, and phonological systems. Apart from Indian creative writers in English, Indian variety of English is also used by many other people in variety of contexts.

i) Media persons working for TV channels and national dailies;
ii) Students at English medium schools, colleges and universities;
iii) Teachers teaching at educational institutions;
iv) Officers and clerks working in private and public sector firms;
v) Employees at hotels, restaurants, and shopping malls;
vii) Scholars participating in seminars, workshops and conferences;
v) Professionals like doctors, engineers and lawyers.
vi) Urban and rural laymen in their routine activities.
Along with creative writing, the use of Indian English is found in advertisements, signboards, posters, slogans, TV programmes, newspapers, film reviews, matrimonials, magazines, greetings, abuses, curses, etc.

A) Phonological features -

You have already come across the phonological features of Indian English in the unit Physiology of Speech. Hence there is less focus on these features here.

The following are some of the important differences noted in relation to phonology of Indian English.

1. Sounds in Indian English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sounds</th>
<th>British English</th>
<th>Indian English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consonants</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diphthongs</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monophthongs</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. In Indian English there is only one vowel sound /ə/ which corresponds to /ə/, /ɜ:/ and /ʌ/ these three sounds in British English.

3. Spelling pronunciations – This is also a noticeable feature of Indian English.
   i) Affixes and bound roots spelled with ‘e’ are pronounced with /e/ in Indian English as different from /i/ in R.P. e.g. wanted, concept, goodness, etc.
   ii) The plural, possessive and the third singular endings spelled with ‘S’ are pronounced with /s/. e.g. dogs, Mohan’s, reads, etc. In British English these endings are pronounced with /z/.
   iii) The past tense suffix ‘ed’ is not devoiced to /t/ but remains /d/ even after voiceless consonants e.g. washed, helped, etc.
   iv) In the proper nouns the letter ‘a’ is pronounced with /æ/ as in America.
   v) The consonant /r/ is pronounced after a vowel e.g. father, war, etc.

4. Suprasegmental features-
i) Indian English is not stress-timed but syllable-timed. It is not stressless but the stress is not as prominent as it is in British English or American English.

ii) Similarly Indian English is not intonation-less but the intonation patterns are different from that of R.P.

**B) Vocabulary Features**

The lexical items and their distinctive features in Indian English can be known under the following headings:

1. Collocations- The words which occur together in Indian English have their own meanings. These are not found in British English. Let’s see some examples.

   i) The word ‘kind’ collocates with –‘ation’ ending words as in kind consideration, kind cooperation, kind information, kind attention.

   ii) In Indian English the word ‘tea’ collocates with ‘light’ instead of ‘weak’ as in British English.

      **IE** - This tea is too light for me.
      **BrE** - This tea is too weak for me.

   .iii) In Indian English we come across collocations like - Invite (draw) attention, kindly enhance (increase) our overdraft limit.

   iv) In Indian English the word ‘shoe’ collocates with ‘biting’ where as in British English it occurs with either ‘hurting’ or ‘pinching’.

      **IE** - These new shoes are still biting me.

2. Other typical examples of Indian English vocabulary are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical Feature</th>
<th>Examples from Indian English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hybrid formations</td>
<td>Swadeshi-cloth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound word</td>
<td>time-pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kinship term</td>
<td>cousin-brother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>productive device</td>
<td>prepone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 transfer</td>
<td>head-bath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extra redundancy</td>
<td>repeat again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idioms</td>
<td>stop eating my head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indianism</td>
<td>pin-drop silence = absolute silence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**C) Usage** –

We find some differences between Indian English and British English in case of usage.

The following are the sentences in Indian English.
i) about – They are discussing about Hindi films.
ii) back - Radha has returned back from school.
iii) call - Jack called Jill to lunch. (BrE – invited)
iv) foreign- returned – My son-in-law is foreign-returned.
v) lady - The college management has appointed a lady as the principal.
   (BrE – a woman)
vii) native place (BrE – ‘home town’)

In the examples i) and ii) the way in which ‘about’ and ‘back’ are used in Indian English would be superfluous in British English.

In Indian English usage we also come across sentences like -

What shall we eat? Eggs are there; rice is there.
I request your honour.

i) Borrowings (Loan words) -

Several words of Portuguese and Arabic origin have entered the vocabulary of ‘Indian English’ via Indian languages - zamindar, chowkidar, davakhana, sepoy (Arabic or Persian languages); ayah, caste, cobra, mosquito, peon (Portuguese); pyjama, compound, godown, bandicoot, bakshish (Asian languages).

Indian English has borrowed heavily from Indian languages. Words from Indian languages have become so much a part of Indian English that they are freely used in English language books, journals and newspapers published in India. The words of this category generally relate to the following topics:

(Source: Bansal, CIEFL Monograph 10)
ii) Coinages – Indian English vocabulary has been enriched by the typical culture-specific Indian words. The examples of coinages are expressions like ‘co-brother’, ‘bed-tea’, ‘finger-ring’, ‘chief-minister’, ‘black-money’, ‘fall at your feet’.

iii) Words with New meanings and special meanings

a) Words with New meanings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>British Meaning</th>
<th>Indian Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boy(n)</td>
<td>A male child, strictly till puberty, loosely till 19 or 20</td>
<td>Groom (Matrimonials)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convent(n)</td>
<td>A house in which nuns live</td>
<td>An English medium school, esp. one run by a Christian mission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon(n)</td>
<td>Sign of chastity</td>
<td>Associated with maternal uncle, loveliness of the beloved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b) Words with special meaning:

English words and phrases which are either used only in India or have acquired a special meaning in this country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Indian Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gandhi cap</td>
<td>a cap made of white hand-woven cloth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congress</td>
<td>a major political party in India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarters</td>
<td>housing provided by an employer or by the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relay fast</td>
<td>a form of protest in which a number of persons go without food by turns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C) Syntactic features

i) Interrogative sentence – (Wh-questions)

A teacher of English may explain the word order of an interrogative sentence of BrE while teaching; however in use he may not follow the same.

On the black board he writes \( Wh + Aux + Sub + MV + \ldots \) (BrE)

He may provide examples like BrE- Where are you working now?

However, if a student comes late to the class he will ask ‘Why you are late?’

Thus the word order of the interrogative sentences in Indian English is

\[ Wh + Sub + Aux + MV + \ldots \]

IE- When he is coming? \quad BrE- When is he coming?

ii) Indirect questions-

In British English the word order of the direct questions is changed (Wh /If + Sub) where as Indian English preserves the order Wh+ Aux + Sub of direct questions.

IE – Tell me what are your duties.
BrE- Tell me what your duties are.

iii) Response-type sentences-

In BrE the answer to ‘yes/no’ type of questions depends on the polarity of the situation. If the situation is positive, the answer is ‘yes + an affirmative statement’, if the situation is negative, the answer is ‘no + a negative statement’.

In Indian English selection of the response depends on the polarity relationship between the question and situation.

BrE – Q - Aren’t you coming this evening?

A - Yes, I am or No, I am not.

IE - Q - Aren’t you coming this evening?

A - Yes, I am not (coming). Or No, I am (coming).

iv) Tag questions –

We find Indians using the same tag question for all kinds of sentences. In British English the tag is according to the verb in the sentence while in Indian English a universal tag ‘isn’t it?’ is used whatever be the sentence.

IE – You can do this work, isn’t it?

BrE - You can do this work, can’t you?

IE – These units are boring, isn’t it?

BrE - These units are boring, aren’t they?

IE – He will certainly come tomorrow, isn’t it?

BrE - He will certainly come tomorrow, won’t he?

v) Inter-clause sequence of tense –

IE - When I met him yesterday he said he is coming.

BrE – When I met him yesterday he said he was coming.

vi) Conditional sentences –

IE -If it will rain this evening we will not go out.

BrE- If it rains this evening, we will not go out.

vii) Word –order in noun phrases –

In BrE – the predeterminers (like all, both, some of, half, half of....) occur before the possessives/articles/demonstratives. In Indian English they can come before and also after the possessives.
IE - My all friends are here.
BrE- All my friends are here.

viii) Different verb forms-
IE - I am having a desktop and a palmtop.
BrE- I have a desktop and a palmtop.

ix) In Indian English the progressive (-ing) form is used instead of stative verbs. This mainly happens with the verbs of perception e.g. know, remember, etc.
IE - I am knowing him for years.
BrE – I know him for years.

x) ‘want’-type of verb + sentence -
In British English ‘want’- type of verbs do not take a that-type of sentential complement which is a feature of Indian English.
IE - Sonali wants that she should be the captain of the team.
BrE – Sonali wants to be the captain of the team.

xi) Tense and aspect-
An action began in the past and is going on even at the present moment. The distinction between ‘for’ and ‘since’ is neutralized in IE.
IE- Mohan is working here since three years.
BrE- Mohan has been working here for three years.

xii) Relative clauses followed by correlative pronouns -
IE- The three young men who visited you yesterday, they have come again to see you.
BrE – The three young men who visited you yesterday have come again to see you.

xiii) Omission of articles-
Articles are generally omitted by the users of Indian English as in (the) Modern Generation, (the) newspaper, (The) CM has rejected the demand.

xiv) Omission of preposition -
Indian users also omit prepositions.
I applied (for) casual leave yesterday.

D) Spelling Conventions
a) Indian English
Spelling pronunciations – This is a noticeable feature of Indian English.

1) Affixes and bound roots spelled with ‘e’ are pronounced with /e/ in Indian English as different from /I/ in R.P. e.g. wanted, concept, goodness, etc.

2) The plural, possessive and the third singular endings spelled with ‘S’ are pronounced with /s/. e.g. dogs, Mohan’s, reads, etc. In British English these endings are pronounced with /z/.

3) The past tense suffix ‘ed’ is not devoiced to /t/ but remains /d/ even after voiceless consonants e.g. washed, helped, etc.

4) In the proper nouns the letter ‘a’ is pronounced with /æ/ as in America.

5) The consonant /r/ is pronounced after a vowel e.g. father, war, etc.

2.4 Check your Progress

Choose the correct alternative.

1. Indian English and Singapore English are .................. varieties of English.
   a. native
   b. national
   c. non-native
   d. local

2. Indian English is not stress-timed but ............
   a. syllable-timed
   b. rhyming
   c. syllabic-timed
   d. none of the above

3. The ............... variety of English is known for its contribution to the ways of word formation.
   a. Indian
   b. African
   c. American
   d. Canadian
Check Your Progress – Answers

2.1 and 2.2

1. A language is an entity which comprises of all such variations but yet maintains enough similarities in all these varieties in relation to phonology and grammar.

2. It is mother tongue of the people in the countries like UK, USA, Canada, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa.

3. It is universally accepted in the English-speaking world as the only appropriate model for educational use. It is normally taught in schools and colleges to the native as well as non-native speakers learning the language.

4. The United States of America (USA) can be divided into three main dialectal regions viz. the North-eastern type, the Southern type, and the Western type, for the convenience of the linguistic study.

2.3

1. 9,3,30

2. Pronunciations

2.4

1. Non-native

2. syllable-timed
CHAPTER 3
PRAGMATICS

3.0 Objectives

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Basic Concepts

3.2.1 Speech Acts

3.2.2 Situation and Speech Event

3.2.3 Deixis

3.2.4 Presuppositions and Implicatures

3.2.5 Turn Taking and Adjacency Pairs

3.3 Conversational Principles

3.3.1 Politeness Principle

3.3.2 Maxims of Politeness Principle

3.3.3 Cooperative Principle

3.3.4 Maxims of Co-operative Principle

3.4 Observation and Violation of C.P. and P.P in Conversation

3.5 Conclusion

3.6 Summary

Check Your Progress – Answers

Field Work

3.0 Objectives
The detailed study of this chapter would enable you to

Explain the basic concepts of “Pragmatics”

Explain the concept of Speech Acts in Pragmatics

Discuss the “Situation and Speech Event” in Pragmatics

Elaborate the concept of “Deixis”
Discuss the concepts of “Presupposition” and “Implicatures”

Explain the concept of “Discourse”

Discuss the principles of “Cohesion” and “Coherence”

Describe the concepts of “Turn Taking” and “Adjacency Pairs”

Discuss the “Conversational Principles” in detail

Explain the observation and violation of C.P. and P.P in conversation.

3.1 Introduction

Linguistics can be defined as the scientific study of language. As discussed in the section ‘Language and Style’, the various levels of linguistic organization are phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Let’s study “Pragmatics” in detail.

3.2 Basic Concepts

3.2.1 Speech Acts

Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) define a speech act as ‘a sentence or utterance that has both propositional meaning and illocutionary force’ (p. 265). The speech act theory was proposed by J.L. Austin in his book ‘How to do Things with words’, in 1962. He defines a speech act as ‘the act of uttering a sentence in a given context for a determined purpose, i.e. an act of communication.’ The focal point involved in the speech act theory is that language should basically be seen as action. In other words, the use of language is simultaneous with the performance of an action. This theory was later on refined by Searle and is also now popularly known as the Austin Searle theory.

The Speech act theory has now aroused a wide interest in the field of language usage. It is a theory of language in which Austin puts forth the view that some declarative sentences are not simply used to declare anything with an intention of making true or false statements, rather they are used to perform some actions or are part of action. Actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts.

As said earlier, the speech act theory is basically concerned with how people use language for the purpose of communication. It takes into account the linguistic knowledge of the users as well as their knowledge of the real world.

Initially, Austin made a distinction between constatives and performatives. A constative is an utterance which asserts something that is either true or false, for example, ‘Pune is located in Maharashtra’. A performative in the speech act theory is an utterance that performs an act, such as a promise, or a warning. He further distinguished between explicit performatives and implicit performatives. Those utterances that contain a performative verb are labelled by him as ‘explicit performers’ and utterances that do not contain a performative
verb are labelled as ‘implicit performers’. However, later Austin himself ruled out this distinction and claimed that all utterances are basically performatives. For example, a simple sentence like ‘The kettle is boiling’ is also a performative in the sense that it motivates someone to do something.

According to this theory any utterance can be understood at three levels. That is, three kinds of speech acts are simultaneously performed. They are

i) The Locutionary Act
ii) The Illocutionary Act
iii) The Perlocutionary Act

The locutionary act consists in saying something meaningful which can be understood by the listener. Thus, it is the production of sounds in a coherent manner. It is the basic literal meaning of the utterance which is conveyed by particular words or structures. It refers to the denotative or dictionary meaning of all the words put together. According to Austin, a locutionary act contains ‘within it the phonetic, the phatic and the rhetic acts’. In short, a locutionary act is the act of ‘performing an act of saying something’. For example, the utterance ‘I am thirsty’ can be understood as a locutionary act. It means that ‘I experience a particular sensation in my stomach which necessitates me to drink water’.

The illocutionary act refers to what the speaker does through a particular utterance. It is also termed as the illocutionary force of function of language. It is the ‘effect of the utterance’. It therefore refers to the implicative force of an utterance and the intention of the speaker matters a lot here. For example, the utterance ‘I am thirsty’, can be understood as a request. It can mean ‘Please give me a glass of water’.

The perlocutionary act refers to the effect the utterance has on the listener. In other words, it refers to the action on the part of the listener. People always try to get the desired effect on the hearer, by performing an illocutionary act. The consequences of the illocutionary acts were termed by Austin as the perlocutionary acts. Thus, the perlocutionary act refers to the influence or impact on the listener. For example, only when someone actually gives water, we can say that the perlocutionary act is fulfilled. Without this, in a sense, the utterance is incomplete.

Let us now take one example and see how different speech acts are performed. For example,

SpeakerA: I don’t have enough money to pay the fees right now.

Speaker B: Mary stays nearby.

If we consider the utterance of Speaker B, all the three speech acts are simultaneously performed. The locutionary act suggests that Mary’s house is somewhere close by. The illocutionary act gives a suggestion. It suggests that since Mary’s house is close by, Speaker A
can borrow money from Mary. The perlocutionary act would be fulfilled if Speaker A actually borrows money from Mary and pays his tuition fees.

However, the speech acts are not considered to be successfully performed unless certain felicity conditions are fulfilled. The felicity conditions are those conditions which must be fulfilled for a speech act to be satisfactorily performed or realized. The felicity conditions are as follows.

i) The Propositional Content Condition
ii) The Preparatory Condition
iii) The Sincerity condition
iv) The Essential Condition

The propositional content condition suggests that the content of the utterance must be logical. For example,

a) I request you to complete the work on time.
b) I request myself to complete the work on time.

In this example, Sentence B violates the propositional content condition, as when we use the verb ‘request’, we expect the listener to do something, but in sentence B the content is illogical.

The preparatory condition suggests that a certain type of speech act is possible only on the basis of authority. For example,

The queen says, ‘I name this ship Queen Victoria’.

The Queen’s authority allows her to make a statement of this kind. It is also necessary that there has to be an evidence for what is said. For example, when the queen names the ship, the presence of the ship is absolutely necessary.

The Sincerity condition suggests that we must be sincere when we make a particular utterance. In other words, a speaker must not tell a lie in the process of communication. It is concerned with the speaker’s intention, belief and desire. For example, when one promises to do something, he should have a genuine intention of fulfilling that promise.

The Essential condition relates to the way the speaker is committed to a certain kind of belief of behaviour, having performed a speech act. It is related to the illocutionary point of an act, namely ‘what the utterance counts as’. In a promise, uttering the words counts as the undertaking of an obligation to perform an act in the future.

AUSTIN’S CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH ACTS
In his twelfth lecture on speech acts, Austin distinguishes between five speech acts such as Verdictives, Exercitives, commissives, Behabitives and Expositives. Each of these speech acts is characterized by the use of certain performative verbs.

1) **Verdictives** are ‘typified by giving of a verdict, as the name implies, by a jury, arbiter or umpire’ – Austin (1962: 151). For example, the utterance ‘Out!’ is an example of Verdictives.

2) **Exercitives** ‘are the exercising of powers, rights or influence’. For example, ‘I name this ship Queen Elizabeth’.

3) **Commissives** create an obligation to a course of action. For example, ‘I promise that I would return this book tomorrow’.

4) **Behabitives** are ‘a very miscellaneous group, and have to do with attitudes and social behaviour’. For example, I congratulate you for your wonderful performance in the examination.

5) **Expositives** are used in acts of exposition. For example, ‘I repeat that English is a second language in India’.

Searle felt that there were some faults with Austin’s taxonomy of speech acts such as inconsistency and incompleteness. Later on Searle suggested five basic kinds of actions that one can perform in speaking, by means of the following types of utterance. It can be said that Searle’s theory of Speech acts is just a systematized version of Austin’s theory of speech acts.

**SEARLE’S CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH ACTS**

According to the philosopher Searle, speech acts can be classified into five types. They are as follows.

3) **Commissives**- A speech act that commits the speaker to do something in the future such as a promise or a threat is termed as a commissive act. This act refers to the speaker’s commitment. For example, ‘I promise that I would not leave the office before seven’. Thus, commissives express the intention of the speaker. Acts such as promise, pledge, refusal and threat are of this kind.

4) **Directives**- A speech act that has the function of getting the listener to do something such as a request or command is termed as the directive act. This act directs the listener to perform some kind of action. For example, ‘Will you please open the door?’ Thus, the directives express what the speaker wants. This class includes command, order, request, suggestion, etc.

5) **Expressives**- An act in which the speaker expresses his feelings and attitude about something is termed as an expressive act. It can include apologizing, congratulating, thanking someone, giving good wishes, sympathizing, etc. Thus, expressives express the psychological state of speaker in statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy or sorrow.

6) **Declaratives**- A speech act that brings about a change in the state of affairs in the world is termed as a declarative act. For example, The Minister says, “I
declare war on Iraq’. For declaratives to be performed appropriately, the speaker must have a special institutional role in a specific context.

7) **Representatives**- A speech act which describes state or event in the world, such as a claim or a report on something is termed as a representative act. The aim of this act is to give information to the listener. For example, ‘This is a German car’.

**DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS**

Speech acts can be distinguished into direct and indirect speech acts.

In Direct speech acts there is a one to one correspondence between the structure and the function. A Direct Speech Act is one where the speaker makes no attempt to ‘save the face’ of the addressee. It is a plain and ordinary way of saying things. For example, if speaker A asks a question ‘Where is my pen?’, and Speaker B replies ‘It is on the table’, Speaker B makes use of the direct speech act.

A speech act which is performed indirectly is sometimes known as the indirect speech act. For example, if someone says ‘It is quite hot here’, to indicate that someone should put on the fan, the speaker is making use of the indirect speech act. Indirect speech acts are often considered to be more polite ways of performing certain kinds of speech act, such as requests and refusals. The concept of Indirect Speech Act was introduced by Searle in 1975. His proposition is that in indirect speech acts the speaker communicates to the hearer more than what he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and non-linguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and inferences on the part of the hearer.

**3.2.2 Situation and Speech Event**

According to some linguists the terms ‘speech event’ and ‘speech situation’ are synonymous with each other. However, some linguists make a distinction between the two. They feel that ‘speech situation’ is a wider term and a speech situation may consist of one or more speech events. For example, a marriage party can be one speech situation and that can include a number of speech events, as different groups in this party talk on varied topics. It must be remembered that speech events are governed by rules ad norms for the use of speech, which may be different in different communities.

**3.2.3 Deixis**

The term ‘deixis’ is a greek term and it refers to pointing with the use of language. Deictic elements are essential aspects of pragmatics, as they are essentially concerned with the relation between the structure of language and the context in which they are used. Diesis can be classified into

a) Person Deixis- For example, I, We, You, etc
b) Time Deixis- For example, Today, Yesterday

c) Place Deixis- For example, This, Here

### 3.2.4 Presuppositions and Implicatures

**Presupposition**

This term is taken from logic and is used to refer to the necessary pre-conditions or assumptions made in speaking or writing an utterance. Presupposition plays a significant role in communication, as communication would have been difficult if everything had to be defined or explained in detail every time we spoke. For example, the presuppositions involved in the utterance ‘When did he stop smoking?’ are (a) He used to smoke in the past and (b) He has stopped smoking.

**Implicature**

It is one of the central concepts in pragmatics. Grice proposed the concept of ‘implicature’. It refers to a special non-conventional inference which is intended by the speaker. Thus, in simple terms ‘implicature’ can be understood as additional or unstated meaning of an utterance. The use of conversational maxims to imply meaning during conversation is termed as ‘conversational implicature’ and the cooperation between speakers in using the maxims is sometimes referred to as the ‘cooperative principle’. The next part discusses the maxims of the cooperative principle in detail.

### 3.2.5 Turn Taking and Adjacency Pairs

**Turn Taking**

In a conversation, roles of speaker and listener keep on changing. Listener becomes a speaker very soon and vice versa. So there can be movement both ways. The term “Turn Taking” refers to taking one’s turn at being the speaker. It means waiting for an opportunity or an appropriate time to converse. How does the listener know ‘speaker’ has finished speaking? There can be implicit or explicit indications of this.

Explicit indicators – e.g. what do you think? Any questions?

Implicit indicators – e.g. body language, intonation. (Usually falling tone indicates completion of what the speaker wants to say, rising tone indicates incompleteness). The rules of turn-taking may differ from situation to situation and from culture to culture.
E.g. Informal conversation and oral test – as far as informal conversation is concerned, participants (both speaker and listener) can always take their turn any time, in fact, they can interrupt.

Where as in case of an oral test, participants take their turn only when they are asked to, they cannot ask questions in between.

Sometimes there is ‘turn-stealing’. It means starting to speak when you are not supposed to speak, interrupting the speaker and start speaking. People are excited when there is emotional conversation. When there is an ‘overlap’, two or more persons speak at the same time. In drama, you have these entire phenomenons.

‘Turn Controlling’ – Someone may control the turn-taking of some people. E.g. chairman in a debate, chairman in a seminar may perform this kind of role.

In conversation, the roles of speaker and listener change constantly. The person who speaks first becomes a listener as soon as the person addressed takes his or her turn in a conversation by beginning to speak. The rules for turn taking may differ from one community to another as they do from one type of speech event (e.g. Conversation) to another (e.g. an Oral Test). Turn –taking and its rules are studied in conversational analysis and discourse analysis.

**Adjacency Pair**

It is one of the branches of pragmatics that deal with conversational analysis. Linguists record live conversations from different sources. Tape recorders are placed in busy markets, in classrooms etc. Adjacency pair is a pair of sentences which are related to each other. E.g. A: Good Morning!

    B : A very good morning!

These utterances are close to each other, they follow one another. B’s utterance depends on A’s utterance here. The term “Adjacency Pair “is coined by linguist called ‘Sacks’ in 1970. It is a sequence of two related utterances by two different speakers. The second utterance is always a response to the first.

E.g. A: You left the light on.

    B: It wasn’t me.

In previous utterances, greeting is followed by a greeting. In the above utterance, complaint is followed by the denial. There can be various combinations possible in this regard. E.g. Complaint- Apology, Invitation-Acceptance, Invitation-refusal etc.

It is sometimes called as ‘Tied Pair’ or ‘Illocutionary Sequel’.
3.2 Check Your Progress

1. Choose the correct alternative from the following.

1. ‘Implicature’ can be understood as
   a. Additional or unstated meaning of an utterance.
   b. Extra meaning of an utterance
   c. Stated meaning of an utterance
   d. none of the above.

2. The term ‘deixis’ is a .......... term and it refers to pointing with the use of language.
   a. Latin
   b. French
   c. English
   d. Greek

3. The concept of .......... Speech Act was introduced by Searle in 1975.
   a. indirect
   b. direct
   c. elocutionary
   d. illocutionary

4. An act in which the speaker expresses his feelings and attitude about something is termed as an .......... act.
   a. directive
   b. expressive
   c. declarative
   d. representative

5. A speech act that commits the speaker to do something in the future such as a promise or a threat is termed as a .......... act.
   a. committed
   b. commutative
c. commissive

d. combative

6. The .......... conditions are those conditions which must be fulfilled for a speech act to be satisfactorily performed or realized.

a. preparatory
b. felicity
c. friendly
d. none of the above

7. The .......... act refers to the effect the utterance has on the listener.

a. Locutionary
b. Perlocutionary
c. Illocutionary
d. direct

2. Fill in the gaps by choosing the correct option.

1. .......... proposed the concept of ‘implicature’. (Grice, Leech)

2. A speech act which describes state or event in the world, such as a claim or a report on something is termed as a representative act.(representative, declarative)

3. A speech act that has the function of getting the listener to do something such as a request or command is termed as the .......... act. (directive, expressive)

4. .................condition suggests that a certain type of speech act is possible only on the basis of authority. (felicity, preparatory).

5. .................suggests that we must be sincere when we make a particular utterance. (Sincerity, preparatory).

3. Answer in one or two sentences.

1. Explain the term ‘Turn Taking’
2. Define ‘Adjacency Pair’.

3.3 Conversational Principles

3.3.1 Politeness Principle
Language plays a very significant role in establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships. By being polite a person can save himself from fact threatening acts. Politeness is the expression of the speaker’s intention to mitigate face threats carried by certain face threatening acts toward another.

The politeness principle was proposed by Leech in (1983). The purpose of this principle is to maintain friendly relations among the people and thereby enable them to maintain social equilibrium. The politeness principle asks speakers to ‘Minimise the expressions of impolite beliefs, other things being equal’. The principle suggests, ‘If you may cause offence, at least do so in a way which does not overtly conflict with the politeness principle, but allows the hearer to arrive at the offensive point of your remark indirectly, by way of implicature’.

3.3.2 Maxims of Politeness Principle
3.3.3 There are eight maxims of the politeness principle. They are the maxims of

- Cost
- Benefit
- Tact
- Generosity
- Approbation
- Modesty
- Agreement and
- Sympathy

According to the maxim of cost, maximum cost to the speaker means greater politeness and maximum cost to the listener indicates less politeness. Thus, if the speaker takes more trouble, he is seen as more polite. For example,

a) Open the door.
b) Could you possibly open the door?

In this example, the second sentence is considered to be more polite as it does not force the listener to carry out a particular action.

The benefit maxim suggests that the greater benefit to the listener means greater politeness and greater benefit to the speaker indicates less politeness. For example, in the above example, sentence (b) follows the benefit maxim.

The tact maxim suggests that the more tactful we are in the process of communication, we are more polite. For example, if a student writes an article in which he makes several mistakes, the teacher may say

a) This article is very bad.
b) It is a good attempt, but I think that it should be revised.

In the second example, the speaker is more tactful and therefore more polite.

The generosity maxim suggests that greater benefit to the listener indicates greater politeness and greater benefit to the speaker indicates less politeness. For example, if the
The teacher says to the students, ‘If you have any problem, you can always see me’, the teacher is following the generosity maxim.

**The approbation maxim** suggests that if we can maximize the praise of the listener, we are more polite and if we maximize the praise of ourselves, we are less polite. For example, if someone invites us for lunch, and if we say ‘All the dishes that you have made today are very delicious’, we are following the maxim of approbation.

**The modesty maxim** suggests that we are polite if we show greater modesty.

**The agreement maxim** suggests that greater agreement with the listener indicates greater politeness and greater disagreement with the listener means less politeness. For example, if we say ‘I have a similar opinion’, we are following the maxim of agreement.

**The sympathy maxim** suggests that greater sympathy for the listener shows greater politeness and less sympathy for the listener shows less politeness. For example, if speaker A is in trouble, and if speaker B says to him, ‘I am always with you in times of difficulty’, speaker B follows the maxim of sympathy.

### 3.3.3 THE CO-OPERATIVE PRINCIPLE

Generally, in day to day interaction, people co-operate with each other by observing certain rules or maxims. Language is a social institution and communication is made possible as a result of cooperation among the people.

This principle was proposed by Grice in the essay ‘Logic and Conversation’ in 1975. He suggests, ‘Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the task exchange in which you are engaged. One might label this the cooperative principle’ (p. 45). The assumption of this principle is that people co-operate with each other in the process of communication. For example, when someone asks for an address, there is an assumption that the other person will co-operate. It is an important feature as in the absence of it, no communication is possible. This principle is intended as a description of how people normally behave in conversation. This principle goes both ways, generally the speakers observe the cooperative principle and the listeners assume that speakers are observing it.

The philosopher Grice identifies four basic conversational maxims or general principles underlying the efficient and cooperative use of language. The cooperation between speakers in using the maxims is sometimes termed as the ‘cooperative principle’.

### 3.3.4 Maxims of Cooperative Principle

The four maxims of the co-operative principle are
i) Quality

ii) Quantity

iii) Relevance and

iv) Manner

Levinson (1983) brings out the significance of these maxims by stating that ‘These maxims specify what participants have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, co-operative way: they should speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly while providing information’ (p. 102).

The maxim of Quality states that we must not say what we believe to be false and also we must not say things for which we lack adequate proof or evidence. For example, if someone asks us for an address, we must give only the right information. There is no point in saying ‘John was in St.George Park’ if a park with this name does not exist at all.

The maxim of Quantity suggests that we must make our contribution as informative as is required and we must not make our contribution more informative than is required. For example, if speaker A asks speaker B for a particular address, and if speaker B replies by saying ‘Take 234 steps to the right, then take 54 steps to the left, walk 52 steps straight…..etc’, Speaker B would be violating the maxim of quantity. For successful communication, it is necessary to give only as much information as is required, neither more, nor less.

The maxim of relevance states that speakers are assumed to be saying something that is relevant to what has been said before. For example,

Speaker A: Do you have vacation these days?

Speaker B: They are playing Cricket.

In this example, Speaker B violates the maxim of relevance, as speaker B’s response is not relevant with respect to the question asked by Speaker A.

The Maxim of manner states that we must avoid obscurity, ambiguity and vagueness in the process of communication. In other words, it is necessary to maintain clarity in communication. For example, if a person says a sentence like ‘He loves his cat more than his wife’, he is violating the maxim of manner as this simple sentence carries two meanings, one meaning is that his love for the cat is more than his wife’s love for the cat, where as the second meaning is that his love for the cat is more than his love for his wife’.

According to Grice these maxims should be considered as ‘reference points’. It means that all these maxims are not followed in each and every situation. For example, in the court, both the parties claim that they will speak the truth, but in reality there is a contradiction. However, these maxims are extremely useful as guidelines in the process of communication. Thus, Grice did not assume that all people should constantly follow these maxims. Instead he
found it interesting when these maxims were ‘flouted’ or ‘violated’ by speakers, which could imply, some other, hidden meaning.

The co-operative principle can offer a valuable framework in which literary texts can be fruitfully analyzed. It can be an interesting task to see whether the characters in a particular play follow or violate the maxims of the co-operative principle, and also try to find out the reasons behind the same.

3.3 Check Your Progress

Fill in the gaps with suitable options

1. The Maxim of ……… states that we must avoid obscurity, ambiguity and vagueness in the process of communication. (manner, relevance).

2. The maxim of …………… states that speakers are assumed to be saying something that is relevant to what has been said before. (manner, relevance).

3. The maxim of …………… states that we must not say what we believe to be false and also we must not say things for which we lack adequate proof or evidence. (quality, quantity).

4. …………… maxim suggests that the greater benefit to the listener means greater politeness and greater benefit to the speaker indicates less politeness. (benefit, cost).

5. ……………………… maxim suggests that if we can maximize the praise of the listener, we are more polite and if we maximize the praise of ourselves, we are less polite. (approbation, appreciation).

3.4 Observation and Violation of C.P. and P.P in Conversation

It is observed that very often there is a conflict between the cooperative principle and the politeness principle. Observance of one entails the violation of the other. For example, let us imagine a situation in which Speaker A’s brother is in a critical situation and the doctor knows that he would not remain alive for a longer span of time. When Speaker A asks the doctor about his brother’s health, the doctor replies, ‘Don’t worry. He is improving and he will be all right’. One of the maxims of the co-operative principle namely the maxim of Quality directs the speakers to speak only the truth and nothing but the truth. Naturally, in this example, the doctor violates the maxim of truth, but he follows the maxim of generosity. Thus, the observance of one principle can sometimes result in the violation of the other principle.

3.1 Check your Progress

Choose the correct alternative from the following.

1. It is observed that very often there is a ……… between the cooperative principle and the politeness principle.
a. complex  
b. conflict  
c. confusion  
d. contrast  

2. Observance of one principle can sometimes result in the ............ of the other principle.  
a. Violation  
b. Declaration  
c. Appreciation  
d. Approbation  

3.5 Conclusion  
Thus, pragmatics deals with intentional meaning or meaning in context. It essentially deals with deeper meaning of the utterances. Politeness principle and Cooperative principle are of great help in communication in general and for the study of pragmatics in particular. The last chapter would deal with ‘Stylistics’ which studies ‘style’ of English language specially.  

3.6 Summary  
Pragmatics is the branch of linguistics that deals with meaning in context. An appropriate use of speech acts, politeness and cooperative principles helps in understanding this meaning well. The study of speech acts is important from the point of view of communication. The locutionary act consists in saying something meaningful which can be understood by the listener. The illocutionary act refers to what the speaker does through a particular utterance. The perlocutionary act refers to the effect the utterance has on the listener. In other words, it refers to the action on the part of the listener. Speech acts can be distinguished into direct and indirect speech acts.  

In Direct speech acts there is a one to one correspondence between the structure and the function. A Direct Speech Act is one where the speaker makes no attempt to ‘save the face’ of the addressee.  

A speech act which is performed indirectly is sometimes known as the indirect speech act. For example, if someone says ‘It is quite hot here’, to indicate that someone should put on the fan, the speaker is making use of the indirect speech act. Indirect speech acts are often considered to be more polite ways of performing certain kinds of speech act, such as requests and refusals. However, the speech acts are not considered to be successfully performed unless certain felicity conditions are fulfilled.  

There are 8 maxims of politeness principle and 4 maxims of cooperative principle that are worth knowing in order to understand pragmatics well.
3.2 Check Your Progress - Answers

1.
1. a. Additional or unstated meaning of an utterance.
2. d. Greek
3. a. indirect
4. b. expressive
5. c. commissive
6. b. felicity
7. b. Perlocutionary

2. Fill in the gaps by choosing the correct option.

1. Grice
2 declarative
3. Expressive
4. Felicity
5. Preparatory

3. Answer in one or two sentences.

1. The term “Turn Taking” refers to taking one’s turn at being the speaker. It means waiting for an opportunity or an appropriate time to converse.

2. Adjacency Pair is a sequence of two related utterances by two different Speakers. The second utterance is always a response to the first.

3.3 Check Your Progress - Answers

1. Manner
2. Relevance.
3. Quality
4. Benefit

5. Approbation

3.4 Check Your Progress - Answers

1. b
2. a
Chapter 4

English in India

4.0 objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 What is Indian English?

4.3 Characteristic of Indian English

4.4 Features of Indian English

4.4.1 Syntactic Features

4.4.2 Morphological Features

4.4.3 Phonological Features

4.5 Relationship between Indian English and Indian literature in English

4.6 Conclusion

4.7 Summary

Check your progress – answers

Field work

4.0 Objectives

The detailed study of this chapter would enable you to

Explain the concept of Indian English in general

Discuss characteristics of Indian English.

Explain the syntactical, morphological, phonological and pragmatic features of Indian English.

Describe the relationship between Indian English and Indian literature in English.

4.1 Introduction
Dear friends, all of us are well aware of the fact that English is regarded as a ‘Global language’. Variations that occur in English are mainly registral and regional. Registral means variety according to subject matter. Regional means change of variety according to change of region. Indian English is a part of regional variation. Braj Kachru in his book entitled ‘Indianization of English’ quotes:

‘A significant segment of the world’s population uses it as their other tongue (as a second or foreign language). It is this side of English which has actually elevated it to the status of an international or universal language.”

It means that 1/3rd of the world’s population are native speakers of English, remaining are non-native speakers. Non-native varieties of English are as follows –

1. Singapore English
2. African English
3. Australian English
4. Indian English

Though Indian English is considered to be one of the major non-native variety of English now a days; it did not enjoy this kind of status before. In India during colonial period, English was introduced to facilitate Indians to learn English administration. British used certain derogatory terms to describe English used by Indians. Some of them were babu English, Butler English, Pidgin English, Desi English etc.

After 1960s, some kind of positive attitude was developed to look at Indian English. According to Braj Kachru, as far as Indian context is concerned there is a Cline of Bilingualism. It can be shown as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Cline of Bilingualism - Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiguous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point (Don’t have proficiency)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point (Adequate competence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point (Native-like competence)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

People who are at zero point use only one language.

People who are at central point have an adequate competence of English.

People who are at ambiguous point are usually creative writers and teachers of English.

4.2 What is Indian English?

The term Indian English generally refers to the kind of English which is used by a majority of educated Indians whose process of formal education is complete.
4.1 And 4.2 Check Your Progress

1. Fill in the blanks with suitable option.

1. People who are at **zero** point use only one language. (Zero, central)

2. People who are at **central** point have an adequate competence of English. (Ambiguous, central)

3. People who are at **ambiguous** point are usually creative writers and teachers of English. (zero, ambiguous)

2. Choose the correct alternative.

1. The term ................. English is generally referred to the kind of English which is used by a majority of educated Indians whose process of formal education is complete.
   a. American English
   b. Indian English
   c. Australian English
   d. none of the above

2. ------------ English is one of the non-native varieties of English.
   a. Singapore English
   b. British English
   c. American English
   d. none of the above

4.3 Characteristics of Indian English –

Following are the major characteristics of Indian English –

1. It is labeled as non-native variety of English or it is called as a second language.

2. It is often called a bookish variety of English. Most of us have learnt English essentially from books. We, Indians are good at using formal English.

3. Use of L1 interferes in the process of learning English.

   E.g. I am angry **on** you.
It’s 5 O’clock in my watch.

My examination begins from 30th November.

They were sitting in the shade of the tree.

In the above examples, we can observe that the use of prepositions have been influenced by L1. It might be any Indian language like Marathi, Hindi, and Bengali etc.

4. Indian English is characterized by spelling pronunciation. E.g. Immediate – 2 m/ sounds.

5. Indian English tends to be a little archaic. What is out of use in modern British English is used in general Indian English. E.g. a better half.

6. Indian English is not a homogeneous or consistent variety. Different people can be placed on the scale.

Regional Sub Varieties

Marathi English   Tamil English   Bengali English

Common   Core

All the above mentioned varieties have a common core, common features shared by these sub – varieties.

4.3 Check your Progress

Fill in the blanks with suitable option.

1. Indian English tends to be a little ............ (Archaic, authentic)

2. Indian English is .................... variety of English. (Native, Non-native)

3. Indian English is often called as ................. variety of English. (Bookish, boorish)

4. Use of .............. interferes in the learning of English. (L1, L2)

5. Indian English is characterized by .................. pronunciation. (Spelling, word)

4.4 Features of Indian English

4.4.1 Syntactic Features –
1. Non count nouns are treated as count nouns. E.g. accommodations, furnitures.

2. Stative verbs are used dynamically.
   E.g. I am understanding what you are saying.
         I am thanking you.
         What you are saying.
         I am feeling happy etc.

3. Present perfect tense is often used with past adverbial. E.g. I have met him yesterday. *

4. There is a use of double comparatives and superlatives.
   E.g. he is happier than me. *
         Most happiest man *

5. Present continuous tense is used instead of present perfect continuous.
   E.g. I am reading this book since morning.

6. Prepositions like over, below, above, under etc. are not clear to Indian students.

4.4.2 Morphological Features –

1. Words like badmash, zamindar, sahib, dhobi, salam, coolie, bazaar are used as it is in Indian English.

2. There is a redundancy in speech and writing. E.g. repeat again, small small things, return back etc.

4.4.3 Phonological Features –

1. Indian English is a /r/ pronouncing variety.

2. Aspiration is not observed generally.

3. Weak forms are stressed. Indians unnecessarily stress prepositions. E.g. I go to the station. Nucleus is also placed on the different syllable in many words.
   e.g. ‘Good morning *
        Good ‘morning – British English.

4. Tone group boundary is not properly maintained.
   E.g. he said that/he was tired. *
he said/ that he was tired – British English

4.5 Relationship between Indian English and Indian literature in English

Common man’s point of view is that Indian English is a natural vehicle for a literary writer. Most writers in English welcome the potentiality of Indian English to be the medium of literature. Famous Indian writer ‘Raja Rao’ quotes in the preface to Kanthapura -

“We shall have the English language with us and amongst us not as a guest or friend, but as one of our own, of our caste, our creed, our sect and of our tradition. “

4.4 and 4.5 Check your progress

Fill in the blanks with suitable options.

1. In case of Indian English, ......................... boundary is not properly maintained. (tone-group, sub-group).

2. In case of Indian English, ................. is not observed generally. (aspiration, inspiration)

3. Indian English is ............... pronouncing variety. (/r/, /i/)

4......................................... tense is used instead of present perfect continuous in Indian English. (Present perfect, present continuous).

5. .................... point of view is that Indian English is a natural vehicle for a literary writer. (common man’s, man’s).

4.6 Conclusion

A significant part of the world’s population uses English as their other tongue (as a second or foreign language). It means that 1/3rd of the world’s population are native speakers of English, remaining are non-native speakers. Non – native varieties of English are as follows –

1. Singapore English

2. African English

3. Australian English

4. Indian English

Though Indian English is considered to be one of the major non-native variety of English now a days; it did not enjoy this kind of status before. In India during colonial period, English was introduced to facilitate Indians to learn English administration.
Thus, day by day importance of English is increasing.

4.7 Summary

Following are the major characteristics of Indian English –

1. It is labeled as non-native variety of English or it is called as a second language.

2. It is often called a bookish variety of English. Most of us have learnt English essentially from books. We, Indians are good at using formal English.

3. Use of L1 interferes in the process of learning English.

   E.g. I am angry on you.
   
   It’s 5 O’clock in my watch.
   
   My examination begins from 30th November.
   
   They were sitting in the shade of the tree.

In the above examples, we can observe that the use of prepositions have been influenced by L1. It might be any Indian language like Marathi, Hindi, and Bengali etc.

4. Indian English is characterized by spelling pronunciation. E.g. Immediate – 2 m/ sounds.

5. Indian English tends to be a little archaic. What is out of use in modern British English is used in general Indian English. E.g. a better half.

6. Indian English is not a homogeneous or consistent variety. Different people can be placed on the scale.

   **Regional Sub Varieties**

   Marathi English   Tamil English   Bengali English

   Common Core

   All the above mentioned varieties have a common core, common features shared by these sub – varieties.

   Common man’s point of view is that Indian English is a natural vehicle for a literary writer. Most writers in English welcome the potentiality of Indian English to be the medium of literature. Famous Indian writer ‘Raja Rao’ quotes in the preface to Kanthapura -
“We shall have the English language with us and amongst us not as a guest or friend, but as one of our own, of our caste, our creed, our sect and of our tradition. “

Check Your Progress – Answers

4.1 And 4.2

1.
1. Zero
2. Central
3. Ambiguous

2.
1. b. Indian English
2. d. Singapore English

4.3

1. archaic
2. non-native
3. bookish
4. L1
5. Spelling

4.4 and 4.5

1. tone group
2. aspiration
3. /r/
4. Present perfect
5. Common man’s
5.0 Objectives
Dear Students, the detailed study of this chapter would enable you to

Explain the concept “Stylistics” in general.
Discuss the relationship between “Linguistics” and “Stylistics”.

Discuss the relationship between “Practical Criticism” and “Stylistics”.

Explain the nature and scope of Stylistics in general.

Explain the stages in linguistic analysis.

Discuss the strengths and limitations of Stylistics.

Elaborate the Stylistics of Poetry.

Explain the concept of Poetic Diction.

Explain the creativity in the use of language.

Elaborate the Stylistics of Drama.

Describe the relation between “Theatre” and “Drama”.

Elaborate the concepts of “Dramatic Text” and “Performance Text”.

Explain the use of Proximal Deixis in drama.

Elaborate the Stylistics of Fiction.

Explain the Fiction as a narrative form of discourse.

Describe the Narrative Strategies.

Explain the concept of “Point of View”.

Explain “Universe of Discourse”

**5.1 Introduction**

Dear students, Stylistics has been defined as a sub-discipline of linguistics that is concerned with the systematic analysis of language and its style. It can vary according to such factors like genre, context, historical period and author. In this sense, analyzing style means looking systematically at the formal features of a text and determining their functional significance for the interpretation of the text under consideration. The connection between stylistics and linguistics is that stylistics uses models of language, analytical techniques and methodologies from linguistics to facilitate the study of style in its wider sense.

Stylistics has its roots in the formalist school of literary criticism that emerged in Russia in the early years of the twentieth century. The prime exponents of Russian formalism were Roman Jacobson, Victor Shklovskii and Boris Tomashevskii. They aimed at isolating the properties and characteristics of literary language and exploring how the concept of defamiliarization in both art
and literature was at the root of the intrinsic aesthetic value of the work in question.

5.2 Orientation

5.2.1 Relationship between Literary Criticism and Stylistics

Literary Criticism is highly subjective and impressionistic where as Stylistics is scientific and objective. Literary criticism uses grand and noble style but it doesn’t define “grand” and “noble” style. Literary criticism highly depends on personal interpretations. Many times they are not verifiable. Whereas in stylistics, inferences that are drawn are many times verifiable. There are three aspects in the analytical study of literary criticism. They are as follows –
1. Evaluation – it is done by all the critics.
2. Interpretation – it involves assigning a value to the piece- i.e. good or bad, successful or unsuccessful etc. It talks about the meaning of the text and also an effect of the text.
   In case of stylistic analysis, there is a fixed sequence. It involves the following stages –
   1. Description – it is a first stage in stylistic analysis.
   2. Interpretation – it is a second stage in stylistic analysis.
   3. Evaluation – it is a third stage in stylistic analysis. However very few critics do it.

5.2.2 The nature and scope of stylistics –

In principle, there is no restriction whatsoever on the kinds of text that may be subjected to stylistic analysis. However, there are both historical and practical reasons why there has been more emphasis on the literary aspects of style in the past, and also on the written language in preference to the spoken. Stylistics is essentially the study of style. Just as style can be viewed in several ways, there are several different stylistic approaches. This variety in stylistics is due to the main influences of linguistics and literary criticism. In many respects, stylistics is close to literary criticism and practical criticism. By far the most common kind of material studied is literary and attention is largely text-centered. The goal of most stylistic studies is not simply to describe the formal features of texts for their own sake, but in order to show their functional significance for their interpretation of the text in order to relate literary effects to linguistic causes where these are felt to be relevant. Whole question of the author’s intention is totally irrelevant according to Stylisticians. Focus of attention in stylistics is ‘the text’ but sometimes intention itself is a part of the text. E.g. to justify the ways of god to man is the intention of the text Milton’s Paradise Lost. Conventional stylistics disregards the intention.

5.2.3 Stages in Stylistic Analysis –

Following steps are to be followed in stylistic analysis.
1. Close and repeated reading of the text - it is essential because in stylistics, there is a use of text-centered approach. Silent reading should be done for comprehension. It should be followed by loud reading. Reading should be done with involvement.

2. Individual response to the text – your views about the text have to be supported by the text itself.

3. Description of formal patterns – an author doesn’t use patterns consciously. Literature is unconscious but it is possible to have conscious patterns. E.g. Sonnet writing.

4. Description of linguistic patterns – we look for linguistic patterns in a world of literature. We try to analyze whether these patterns are there as a matter of chance or consciously they are used. Both types of patterns are possible. Whole question of the author’s intention is totally irrelevant according to stylisticians. According to them, author’s intention is usually extraneous to the text, it is outside the text. There are different kinds of linguistic patterns –
   a. phonological patterns- we try to analyze the way sounds are manipulated in a text. E.g. rhyme – fleet-meet.
   b. syntactic pattern – it has something to do with sentence construction.
   c. lexical pattern – here, we try to understand why certain words are used, how they are used and what purpose do they serve.
   d. deviation – it is the violation of the rules of normal usage. All poetic language is not necessarily deviant. Hence, if we find any deviation, we try to analyze its purpose.

5.1 to 5.2 Check Your Progress

Fill in the blanks with suitable option.

1. ............ and repeated reading of the text is essential in stylistic analysis. (Loud, close)

2. .............has been defined as a sub-discipline of linguistics that is concerned with the systematic analysis of language and its style. (Linguistics, stylistics)

3. ................. is a third stage in stylistic analysis. (Evaluation, interpretation)

4. ..................... is the violation of the rules of normal usage. (Deviation, motivation)

5.3 The Stylistics of Poetry

As far as the stylistics of poetry is concerned, it considers some of the following things for analysis-

   1. Onomatopoeia - There are onomatopoeic words in ordinary language as well as in poetic language. These words represent natural sounds. E.g. dingdong, cock-a-doodle
–do etc. There is a natural relationship between the word and its meaning. This relationship is not absolutely natural. They are not the same in other languages. Poetry tends to use them to create some effect. E.g. thou watchest the last oozings hours by hours – keats – ode to autumn. This line gives you feeling of fruit being crushed and juice is coming out of that.

2. Semantic patterns – Semantic patterns are related to lexical patterns. E.g. beauty is truth and truth is beauty. This is an example of circular definition. Poet is trying to define beauty and for this he uses another concept i.e. truth. He keeps on moving in a circle.

3. Deviation – Literary language is a deviant use of language. Deviation literally means going away from the main path. There can be phonological, syntactical, lexical and semantic deviation. Rhyme is an example of phonological deviation; even alliteration is an example of phonological deviation. Every pattern is not a deviation. ‘a grief ago’ is an example of syntactic deviation because before ‘ago’ time measuring term should be used e.g. week ago. This rule has been violated here but for creative purpose, for pattern, you require some kind of design, uniformity. ‘the unchilding unfathering widow making sea’. This is deviant language talking about cruelty of the sea’. Many people are drowned in the sea. Noun is used as verb. E.g. unchilding, unfathering. This is an example of lexical deviation. Graphological deviation is used in terms of writing. It is in terms of the way the text is written. Pattern may be deviant or may not be deviant. E.g
4. Chiming - In chiming, two words are connected by similarity of sound and you are made to think of their possible connections e.g. from “Macbeth”, ‘so foul and fair a day I have not seen’. In this sentence, there is an alliteration of antonyms. Here word order is changed. There is highlighting of an object. Object becomes the theme of this sentence. This is an example of ‘marked theme’. Marked is special, unmarked is neutral. This is the example of ‘thematic fronting’. The theme is necessarily the initial element of sentence structure. Here, ‘theme’ is the grammatical term here. Each sentence has a theme. Theme is a characteristic of a clause. In a complex sentence, there can be many themes but in simple sentence, it is only one. ‘Theme’ is defined in grammar as initial element of sentence structure. Normal theme is ‘subject’ in any sentence. This is an example of contradiction. Semantically, same day cannot be foul and fair. Foul and fair are most important words in play. Whole play is about that. The two most crucial words are highlighted because of the sound effect.

5. Phonological Patterns – There are 6 patterns of sounds according to Leech. They are as follows –
   a) **CVC** – when V and C are common, this is called ‘rhyme’. E.g. date, late. In it, middle vowel and following consonant are common /delt/ , /lelt/ .
   b) **CVC** – if initial consonant is same, then it is called ‘alliteration’. E.g. sail, sight – there is a repetition of the initial sound /s/.
   c) **CVC** – e.g. cat, bag – just ‘v’ is common. This sound effect is called ‘assonance’. Rhyme can be an example of assonance and vice versa.
   d) **CVC** – e.g. last consonant is identical. E.g. bend – hand. This relationship is known as ‘Consonance’.
   e) **CVC** – e.g. bell, bend – final consonant is different. It is called ‘reverse rhyme’.
   f) **CVC** - e.g. bend – bound – first and last consonants are common. This is called ‘Para rhyme’.

5.3.1 Creativity in the use of language

a. The relationship between ordinary language and literary language – Ordinary language can be as creative as literary language. Creative resources of ordinary language are same as literary language. Literature has its own diction is an outdated view. Creativity lies in inventing new ways of expression. In literary language, there is an element of surprise, unexpectedness, unpredictability. Sharing of experiences is an artistic communication and it is achieved through peculiar use of language. For instance, ‘fog’ is used as an ‘objective correlative’ for inaction.

b. Distinctive features of literary language from critics’ point of view: Critics like Mukarovsky and Jacobson believed in dichotomy between poetic language and ordinary language. Both of them think that poetic language has a special function. According to Jacobson, language is an act of transmission and reception. Giving aesthetic pleasure is most important use of poetic
language. Both Mukarovsky and Jacobson think that poetic language is superior, appealing than other uses of language.

c. Some concepts in creative use of language –:

I) Foregrounding - we have to consider here an analogy of sculpture. There is a background, projecting of a figure which is carved out. Flat stone is a background. In the same way, literary language also stands out against the background of ordinary language. It is specially designed use of language/specially carved out figure. We compare foregrounding with ordinary language. It can be achieved through deviation, repetition and parallelism. It is pervading feature of all literature.

Foregrounding can be achieved by two ways. They are as follows-

(a) Deviation – this word comes from the verb ‘to deviate’ means to be different from. It involves breaking the rules of language. Poets have a special right. Very often, they violate the rules of language. They deviate from the accepted system. There is a motivation behind this. Poets deliberately do this because code system is inadequate to express unusual experiences. All these expressions are generally deviant expressions. E.g., a grief ago. We usually use ‘ago’ to measure a unit of time i.e. months ago, year ago etc. Here, we are required to treat ‘grief’ as a unit of time. It is ungrammatical as it violates the rule of grammar.

(b) Parallelism – the critic G.M. Leech refers to deviation as ‘foregrounded irregularity’. This is also known as parallelism. Use of language can be highlighted through parallelism. Parallelism is nothing but foregrounding achieved through an excessive adherence to the rules of language.

E.g. “When to the session of sweet silent thoughts I summon up remembrances of things past”

Shakespeare in the above sonnet imposes the rule on himself. ‘s’ sound is repeated. There is an excessive observance of the pattern. Parallelism can be used at all levels of language.

5.4 Stylistics of Drama

Drama is a generic term. There is a difference between drama and a play. Play is a concrete example of drama. For instance, ‘Macbeth’ is a play by Shakespeare. Drama is a type of genre. ‘play’ is a specific term. Just as poetry is meant to be read aloud, drama is meant to be performed. Without stage performance, the study of drama is incomplete. We should be able to visualize the performance of the play imaginatively.

Definition of drama- Drama is that mode of fiction which is designed for stage representation and which is constructed according to particular convention.
Main Purpose of the play – It must have a stage representation. Every play is meant to be performed. Every playwright writes a play so that one day it is performed.

Conventions of drama – These are as follows:

1. Drama is exclusively in the form of dialogue. There are only dialogues in the play.
2. Expression - it unfolds itself only through dialogue.
3. Division of the play is into acts / scenes.
4. There might be prologue and epilogue in the play.
5. The medium of expression can be both prose and verse.
6. There might be some conventions about setting.
7. There might be some conventions about music.
8. There might be some conventions about costumes.
9. There might be some conventions about stage directions.
10. There might be asides.
11. There might be soliloquies.
   Every play is constructed according to these conventions.

Theatre - ‘Theatre’ refers to the aspect of performance. It is the complex of phenomena associated with the performer – audience transaction that is with the production and communication of meaning in the performance itself using the underlining systems. Many phenomena come together e.g. music, action, acting etc.

Some kind of give and take between performers and audience takes place and it uses all these systems. The meaning is created and communicated during the performance itself. All these factors contribute to meaning. What one studies in the class is called “Dramatic text”. In the performance, another kind of text unfolds itself. It is called “Performance text”. Here, the term is used in a wider sense. The dramatic text is composed for the theatre but the performance text is produced in the theatre.

Use of language in drama – There are speakers and listeners in drama. The relationship between speaker and listener is dynamic. These are participants in speech events. There are actions in drama. But, most of these actions are through dialogues. That is, they are verbally reported. There are verbal reports of actions.

Some aspects of use of language in drama are as follows:-

1. Use of Deixis in drama – Deixis literally means pointing. In literary language, there are lots of deictic signals. E.g. these, this, those etc. Deixis plays a very special role in drama. The dramatist can’t speak to us directly. In drama, everything unfolds itself through dialogues. There is no use of prepositions by dramatist itself. In drama, two crucial words are ‘now’ and ‘here’. Whatever is happening is happening ‘now’ and ‘here’. In drama, language itself is an action. Language has a very active role in drama. It exclusively uses dialogues. Language of drama doesn’t play a descriptive role but it plays an active role in drama. Deixis is a necessary condition in drama. It is the
necessary condition of discourse. Language itself can create a world. We suspend our disbelief when we go to see a play. In drama, it is a non-narrative form of world creating discourse. In drama, everything takes place in front of our eyes. The whole world is dynamic. Action is progressive and deixis allows it.

There are two types of deixis – distal and proximal. Distal deixis includes there, then, that, those etc. whereas proximal deixis includes here, now, this, those. In general, proximal deixis is very frequent in drama. Because of deixis, imaginary world becomes actual because things are happening before our eyes. World pretexts before the play starts. Lot of action has already taken place. World is already in progress and deixis makes this possible.

2. Use of speech acts in drama – Basic concept here is that language has an action. Language is used to describe actions. It cannot be the sole function of language. Language itself may be an action and many times it is an action. Drama uses dialogic mode. Dialogues themselves are actions in drama. Two cannot be separated from each other. Speech itself is an action. You don’t have to show actions on the stage. Language itself constitutes action.

Speech act theory was proposed by Austin in 1962. He talks about two types of utterances. That is Constatives and Performatives. Constatives are the statements about the world e.g. It rained heavily last night. While Performatives are sentences through which we perform actions e.g. I declare you to be husband and wife.

This was his first stand. Later on he said that utterances are only Performatives and there is no Constative utterance. All language is an action.

E.g. It rained heavily last night. In this utterance, giving information is also an action. It could be anything depending upon context.

There are three kinds of speech acts:

i) Locutionary – Saying something meaningful which can be understood by the listener. E.g. I am thirsty. In other words, it is literal/core meaning of an utterance.

ii) Illocutionary – It refers to what the speaker is doing through that utterance. E.g. I am thirsty. We are interested in motivation/ purpose behind the utterance. This may also refer to suggested/implied meaning of that context. Something which is not directly said but still is communicated. This can be a request/ command depending on the context. Very often, it is called the pragmatic implicature.

iii) Perlocutionary - It is the effect of the utterance on the listener. Hence, speech act is complete when all the above three acts are successful.

3. Conversation in Drama –
Doctor: What’s the matter with you?
Patient: I have a problem.

In this conversation, doctor is asking question about the patient’s health. It is an enquiry about the patient’s health. This is locutionary act. Illocutionary act may involve
showing his concern, offer help; he welcomes the patient, trying to create confidence 
in patient’s mind. As far as perlocutionary act is concerned, patient should respond 
normally. Here it is a partial response. As far as locutionary act is concerned, patient is 
stating that something is wrong with him. As far as illocutionary act is concerned, 
patient performs an action of cooperating with doctor.

Revised speech act theory by Austin and Searle –

Searle gives us typology of illocutionary acts. According to him, there are 5 types of 
these. They are as follows:

i) Representative utterance – this is basically a statement and it commits the 
speaker to the truth of a proposition. It is similar to sincerity condition. E.g. it is 
warm today. This is a matter of fact statement. It tries to represent reality as it 
is.

ii) Directive utterance – this leads the listener to do something. It is an attempt to 
get the listener to do something. E.g. command, request, question. 
E.g. seven out of ten well dressed men use Gwalior suiting. This is an example of 
actual utterance in advertisement. It intends to persuade people to buy Gwalior 
suiting. Hence, though it seems to be representative, it is directive.

iii) Commissive utterance – this commits the speaker to the future course of action. 
e.g. I promise to give you a chocolate tomorrow. All promises, vows are included 
in this.

iv) Expressive utterance – this expresses feelings or emotions or attitudes. Simple 
acts like thanking someone, congratulating someone are examples of expressive 
utterances. In literature, especially in poetry, there are many expressive utterances. 
e.g. my love is like a red, red rose.

v) Declarative utterance – this brings about a change in the state of affairs that is reality of the 
world is changed due to this utterance. E.g. marrying someone, naming something, 
inaugurating a seminar etc. these are declaratives.

4. Conversational Principles-
   a) Politeness Principle
   Language plays a very significant role in establishing and maintaining interpersonal 
relationships. By being polite a person can save himself from fact threatening acts. Politeness 
is the expression of the speaker’s intention to mitigate face threats carried by certain face 
threatening acts toward another.
The politeness principle was proposed by Leech in (1983). The purpose of this principle is to maintain friendly relations among the people and thereby enable them to maintain social equilibrium. The politeness principle asks speakers to ‘Minimise the expressions of impolite beliefs, other things being equal’. The principle suggests, ‘If you may cause offence, at least do so in a way which does not overtly conflict with the politeness principle, but allows the hearer to arrive at the offensive point of your remark indirectly, by way of implicature’.

Maxims of Politeness Principle

There are eight maxims of the politeness principle. They are the maxims of

x) Cost
xi) Benefit
xii) Tact
xiii) Generosity
xiv) Approbation
 xv) Modesty
 xvi) Agreement and 
 xvii) Sympathy

According to the maxim of cost, maximum cost to the speaker means greater politeness and maximum cost to the listener indicates less politeness. Thus, if the speaker takes more trouble, he is seen as more polite. For example,

c) Open the door.
d) Could you possibly open the door?
   In this example, the second sentence is considered to be more polite as it does not force the listener to carry out a particular action.

The benefit maxim suggests that the greater benefit to the listener means greater politeness and greater benefit to the speaker indicates less politeness. For example, in the above example, sentence (b) follows the benefit maxim.

The tact maxim suggests that the more tactful we are in the process of communication, we are more polite. For example, if a student writes an article in which he makes several mistakes, the teacher may say

c) This article is very bad.
d) It is a good attempt, but I think that it should be revised.
   In the second example, the speaker is more tactful and therefore more polite.

The generosity maxim suggests that greater benefit to the listener indicates greater politeness and greater benefit to the speaker indicates less politeness. For example, if the teacher says to the students, ‘If you have any problem, you can always see me’, the teacher is following the generosity maxim.

The approbation maxim suggests that if we can maximize the praise of the listener, we are more polite and if we maximize the praise of ourselves, we are less polite. For
example, if someone invites us for lunch, and if we say ‘All the dishes that you have made today are very delicious’, we are following the maxim of approbation.

**The modesty maxim** suggests that we are polite if we show greater modesty.

**The agreement maxim** suggests that greater agreement with the listener indicates greater politeness and greater disagreement with the listener means less politeness. For example, if we say ‘I have a similar opinion’, we are following the maxim of agreement.

**The sympathy maxim** suggests that greater sympathy for the listener shows greater politeness and less sympathy for the listener shows less politeness. For example, if speaker A is in trouble, and if speaker B says to him, ‘I am always with you in times of difficulty’, speaker B follows the maxim of sympathy.

**b) The Cooperative Principle** -

Generally, in day to day interaction, people co-operate with each other by observing certain rules or maxims. Language is a social institution and communication is made possible as a result of cooperation among the people.

This principle was proposed by Grice in the essay ‘Logic and Conversation’ in 1975. He suggests, ‘Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the task exchange in which you are engaged. One might label this as the cooperative principle’ (p. 45). The assumption of this principle is that people co-operate with each other in the process of communication. For example, when someone asks for an address, there is an assumption that the other person will co-operate. It is an important feature as in the absence of it, no communication is possible. This principle is intended as a description of how people normally behave in conversation. This principle goes both ways, generally the speakers observe the cooperative principle and the listeners assume that speakers are observing it.

The philosopher Grice identifies four basic conversational maxims or general principles underlying the efficient and cooperative use of language. The cooperation between speakers in using the maxims is sometimes termed as the ‘cooperative principle’.

**Maxims of Cooperative Principle**

The four maxims of the co-operative principle are

i) Quality

ii) Quantity

iii) Relevance and

iv) Manner
Levinson (1983) brings out the significance of these maxims by stating that ‘These maxims specify what participants have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, co-operative way: they should speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly while providing information’ (p. 102).

**The maxim of Quality** states that we must not say what we believe to be false and also we must not say things for which we lack adequate proof or evidence. For example, if someone asks us for an address, we must give only the right information. There is no point in saying ‘John was in St.George Park’ if a park with this name does not exist at all.

**The maxim of Quantity** suggests that we must make our contribution as informative as is required and we must not make our contribution more informative than is required. For example, if speaker A asks speaker B for a particular address, and if speaker B replies by saying ‘Take 234 steps to the right, then take 54 steps to the left, walk 52 steps straight…..etc’, Speaker B would be violating the maxim of quantity. For successful communication, it is necessary to give only as much information as is required, neither more, nor less.

**The maxim of relevance** states that speakers are assumed to be saying something that is relevant to what has been said before. For example,

Speaker A: Do you have vacation these days?

Speaker B: They are playing Cricket.

In this example, Speaker B violates the maxim of relevance, as speaker B’s response is not relevant with respect to the question asked by Speaker A.

**The Maxim of manner** states that we must avoid obscurity, ambiguity and vagueness in the process of communication. In other words, it is necessary to maintain clarity in communication. For example, if a person says a sentence like ‘He loves his cat more than his wife’, he is violating the maxim of manner as this simple sentence carries two meanings, one meaning is that his love for the cat is more than his wife’s love for the cat, where as the second meaning is that his love for the cat is more than his love for his wife’.

According to Grice these maxims should be considered as ‘reference points’. It means that all these maxims are not followed in each and every situation. For example, in the court, both the parties claim that they will speak the truth, but in reality there is a contradiction. However, these maxims are extremely useful as guidelines in the process of communication. Thus, Grice did not assume that all people should constantly follow these maxims. Instead he found it interesting when these maxims were ‘flouted’ or ‘violated’ by speakers, which could imply, some other, hidden meaning.

The co-operative principle can offer a valuable framework in which literary texts can be fruitfully analyzed. It can be an interesting task to see whether the characters in a particular play follow or violate the maxims of the co-operative principle, and also try to find out the reasons behind the same.
The differences between dramatic dialogues and ordinary conversations –

Dramatic dialogues cannot be identical with everyday conversations. There has to be some difference. They cannot be totally different because if this is so, they would be so artificial that people will think that nobody speaks like this in day to day conversation. The difference between them should create the illusion of the reality. This is called verisimilitude. Dramatic dialogues should be successful in creating this illusion of reality. Even if it is imaginary, you should be able to feel that it is reality. It should be convincing to that extent. Some differences are as under:

1. Dramatic dialogues are better ordered and they are semantically more coherent. That is sequence is controlled by the dramatist.

5.4.1 Dramatic Text and Performance Text

Dramatic text should be performable; if it is not performable then something is wrong in that text. For performance, you require the quality of jesturality. You should be able to use gestures. Ability to convert that dramatic text into gestures is jesturality.

5.4.2 Use of Proximal Deixis in drama

In general, proximal deixis is very frequent in drama. It is a marked pattern. Normal function of deixis is to point out distant things but special function is to point out close things. Because of deixis, imaginary world becomes actual because things are happening before your eyes.

5.3 and 5.4 Check your Progress
1. Choose the correct alternative.
   1. Parallelism is called as
      a. foregrounded regularity
      b. foregrounded irregularity
      c. irregularity
      d. regularity

2. Ability to convert that dramatic text into gestures is ..............
   a. jesturality.
   b. foregrounded regularity
   c. parallelism
   d. none of the above.

3. ..................states that we must avoid obscurity, ambiguity and vagueness in the process of communication.
   a. the maxim of relevance
   b. the maxim of manner
   c. the maxim of quality
   d. the maxim of quantity
4. states that speakers are assumed to be saying something that is relevant to what has been said before.
   a. the maxim of relevance
   b. the maxim of manner
   c. the maxim of quantity
   d. the maxim of quantity

5. suggests that we must make our contribution as informative as is required and we must not make our contribution more informative than is required.
   a. the maxim of relevance
   b. the maxim of quality
   c. the maxim of quantity
   d. the maxim of manner

6. states that we must not say what we believe to be false and also we must not say things for which we lack adequate proof or evidence.
   a. the maxim of manner
   b. the maxim of relevance
   c. the maxim of quality
   d. the maxim of quantity

7. principle was proposed by Grice in the essay ‘Logic and Conversation’ in 1975.
   a. Cooperative Principle
   b. Politeness Principle.

8. There are maxims of the politeness principle.
   a. five
   b. two
c. three

d. eight

2. **Fill in the blanks with suitable option.**

1. ....................... suggests that greater sympathy for the listener shows greater politeness and less sympathy for the listener shows less politeness. (cost-benefit maxim, sympathy maxim)

2. .......................suggests that the greater benefit to the listener means greater politeness and greater benefit to the speaker indicates less politeness. (the sympathy maxim, the benefit maxim)

3. ....................... refers to the aspect of performance. (drama, theatre)

4. ....................... suggests that the more tactful we are in the process of communication, we are more polite. (tact maxim, cost-benefit maxim).

5. ....................... suggests that greater benefit to the listener indicates greater politeness and greater benefit to the speaker indicates less politeness. (generosity maxim, tact maxim).

5.5 The Stylistics of Fiction

As far as the term **fiction** is concerned, it is a literary term. As far as the term ‘Discourse’ is concerned, it is a pragmatic term. Participants in a fiction may not necessarily be participants in a discourse. Fictional point of view is like reporting. In discoursal point of view, participants directly express their thoughts. E.g.in the novel ‘Wuthering heights’ ‘Mr. Lockwood’ is reporting the whole thing.

**Different types of narration –**

There are different types of narrations used in a given text. They are as follows:

1. 1st Person / I narration e.g. ‘Wuthering Heights’ by Emily Bronte
2. 3rd Person/ author – omnipresent/ omniscient e.g. ‘Tristram Shandy’ by
3. Mixture of 1st Person and 3rd Person narration e.g. ‘Bleak House’ by Charles Dickens

**Salient Features:**

1. ‘I’ narration has an extremely embedded structure. E.g. Wuthering Heights (Page. 263)

2. There is always a possibility of collapsing of the addressee’s side. E.g. David Copperfield

   - Dickens → Reader
   - I D → IR
   - (Adult) David → Readers
   - (Child) David → Pegotty (mother)
3. There can be series of narrators and interlocutors. E.g. Wuthering Heights

4. There is a possibility in 1st person narration that readers may sympathize with narrator. E.g. Jane Eyre and there is also possibility of so many ‘I’ narrators. This may be in epistolary novel e.g. Pamela by Richardson.

5. 3rd Person narration is impersonal. There is no ‘I’; naturally there is no ‘you’. There is no middle person. It is a direct discourse/communication between writer and reader. There is a collapsing of author’s side. Author and implied author may merge with each other.

6. Many times authorial voice is interfering. Author as a narrator appears actually on the scene. There is a direct address to the readers. E.g. Tristram Shandy. Writer can interfere by asking especially rhetorical type of questions. E.g. Middle March by George Eliot. She is commenting on people’s judgment on other people.

5.5.1 Irony, Mind Style

Irony – There is a clash between denotations and connotations. From the literary point of view, it is a critical phenomenon, from a linguistic point of view; it is a lexical phenomenon in which a deviant use of lexical sets is made. There is an element of surprise, shock. There is a clash between what is obviously said and what is suggested. A secret communion between author and reader is a basis of irony. E.g. in the novel, ‘Pride and Prejudice’, we are not supposed to read its first sentence at its face value. We are expected to get its ironic implications. Irony is a double significance which arises from the contrast in values associated with two different points of view. Irony can be local or it can be cumulative. E.g. in the novel, ‘Gulliver’s Travels’, throughout this book, implied readers are expected to understand ironic significance of utterances.

Mind style – It is author’s characteristic conceptualization of the world. It is the perception of reality. It is a sort of extension of point of view. Expression of philosophy, ideology is known as mind style. Basic assumption behind this is that writer’s perspective is reflected in the language that he uses. We can understand a vision by analyzing or deconstructing a linguistic pattern. Mind style is a semantic phenomenon. Hence, we, as a reader should always try to get the deeper meaning which is encoded in language. Idea in author’s mind is encoded in language and decoded by readers. An author manipulates the language in a particular way. If linguistic patterns are aptly decoded by author then ideology, philosophy is shared by readers. There are two types of Mind Style –

1. Author’s mind style – if his point of view is presented in the novel.
2. Character’s mind style – if his point of view is presented in the novel.
Mind Style is a sort of deviation because author’s way of looking at reality may be different from common way of looking at reality. Absolute objectivity is impossible. Even if style seems to be simple, personality of the writer is reflected in style. Halliday in his book entitled ‘Functional Systemic Grammar’ expresses his views regarding this. According to him, language is not merely a form but it develops in response to the requirements of community and society. Language acts as a means of communication. He regards language as a socio-linguistic phenomenon. He defines language in terms of its functions i.e. linguistic and social. According to him, language is a tripartite system. There are three levels in this. They are as follows –

Ideational, interpersonal, Textual

Ideational/Referential – something is represented. It is related to the subject matter. In this, world, idea, feelings, experiences are presented. There is a presentation of reality as it appears to the writer and this can differ from person to person. There can be different mind styles and they are reflected by using different linguistic patterns. Reality is made up of processes, happenings or intentionally performed by participants in their circumstantial environment or circumstances.

5.5.2 Narrative Strategies –

There are different types of narrations used in a given text. They are as follows:

4. 1st Person / I narration e.g. ‘Wuthering Heights’ by Emily Bronte
5. 3rd Person/ author – omnipresent/ omniscient e.g. ‘Tristram Shandy’ by
6. Mixture of 1st Person and 3rd Person narration e.g. ‘Bleak House’ by Charles Dickens

Salient Features:

1. ‘I’ narration has an extremely embedded structure. E.g. Wuthering Heights (Page. 263)
2. There is always a possibility of collapsing of the addressee’s side. E.g. David Copperfield
   Dickens Reader
   I D IR
   (Adult) David Readers
   (Child) David Pegotty (mother)
   (Addresser) Murdstone
   (Child) David Readers
3. There can be series of narrators and interlocutors. E.g. Wuthering Heights
4. There is a possibility in 1st person narration that readers may sympathize with narrator. E.g. Jane Eyre and there is also possibility of so many ‘I’ narrators. This may be in epistolary novel e.g. Pamela by Richardson.

5. 3rd Person narration is impersonal. There is no ‘I’; naturally there is no ‘you’. There is no middle person. It is a direct discourse/ communication between writer and reader. There is a collapsing of author’s side. Author and implied author may merge with each other.

6. Many times authorial voice is interfering. Author as a narrator appears actually on the scene. There is a direct address to the readers. E.g. Tristram Shandy. Writer can interfere by asking especially rhetorical type of questions. E.g. Middle March by George Eliot. She is commenting on people’s judgment on other people.

5.5.3 Point of View

Point of view is nothing but writer’s own perception of reality. It can be either Spatio-temporal or it can be ideological. Perspective/ point of view are the orientation of the viewer by the artist.

i) Spatio – temporal – time, place of the event, use of deictics, adverbials. There are such linguistic means to suggest spatio-temporal context.

ii) Psychological/Ideological – they can merge with each other. Psychological point of view is nothing but mind-set, mind style of the addresser (character/author). Ideological point of view includes some kind of ideology. E.g. Animal Farm by George Orwell presents a particular view of totalitarian dictatorship.

iii) Fictional – it is reality as apprehended by a particular participant / set of participants in the fiction.

iv) Discoursal – it is the relationship expressed through discourse structure between the implied author or any other addressee and the fiction. It is the telling of the story through words or thoughts of a particular person.

In fictional discourse, there are many contexts/structures embedded into each other. There is a communication between author and reader. You cannot always say that writer of novel is the same person. We cannot identify between these two things. In every novel, there is a narrator. He/she can be a 3rd person narrator. Many times, it is a writer himself. He describes as if he knows everything about characters, actions, events, psychological world, material world presented in the novel. There can be a first person narrator. The novel is written from the point of view of some character/narrator so in that case, narrator is addressee and implied reader is an addressee or it can be another character. E.g. Wuthering Heights (Nelly-Lookwood, Lookwood-Lockwood, implied author – implied reader, author to reader).

5.5.4 Universe of discourse –

Language is a discourse. In other words, it is an act of communication in a specific social situation. Text is considered as an utterance. Nature and meaning of utterance are decided by
context in which it is used. Deeper meaning is significance and it is determined by context. Literature is a discourse means it involves transmission and reception of message.

5.5 Check Your Progress

Odd one out.

1. Language is --------------
   a. discourse
   b. utterance
   c. text
   d. none of them.

2. Mind Style is
   a. author’s characteristic conceptualization of the world.
   b. It is the perception of reality.
   c. It is a sort of extension of point of view.
   d. utterance

5.6 Summary

Dear students, in this chapter we learnt the relationship between literary criticism and stylistics. We also learnt the nature, scope of stylistics. We came to know that reading, evaluation and interpretation are three important stages in stylistic analysis. We also understood the fact that there are certain strengths and certain limitations to stylistics. One by one, we tried to explore the stylistics of poetry, drama and fiction. In the meanwhile, we also tried to understand the creativity in the use of language, use of deixis in the drama. We tried to differentiate between dramatic text and performance text. We learnt that dramatic text is different than performance text. We also came to understand the concepts of dramatic discourse, universe of discourse. While studying the stylistics of fiction, we learnt the concepts like ‘Mind Style’, ‘Point of View’ etc. Mind style is nothing but the writer’s perspective / sometimes character’s perspective that is reflected in the novel.

Check Your Progress – Answers
5.3 and 5.4
1.
1. b. foregrounded irregularity
2. a. jesturality.
3. b. the maxim of manner
4. a. the maxim of relevance
5. c. the maxim of quantity
6. c. the maxim of quality
7. a. Cooperative Principle
8. d. eight

2.
1. The sympathy maxim
2. The benefit maxim
3. ‘Theatre’
4. The tact maxim
5. The generosity maxim

5.5
1. c. text
2. d. utterance

Field Work
Read the stylistic analysis of any poem/drama/fiction you come across in the library.
Question Bank

Section A

1. Explain the concept of Communication
2. Describe the characteristics of Communication
3. Describe the barriers to Communication
4. Explain the concept of Non-verbal Communication
5. Elaborate essential Categories of Non-verbal Communication
6. Describe the principles of Effective Communication
7. Explain the concept of “Phonology”. Deep study of this chapter would enable you to
8. Explain phonemes and Sounds of English.
9. Explain the place and manner of articulation.
10. Describe the Vowels and Consonants in English.
11. Distinguish between phonemes and allophones.
12. Explain the concept of “Morphology”. Deep study of this chapter would enable you to
13. Explain the concepts of “morphemes” and “Allomorphs”
14. Describe the types of morphemes in English
15. Describe the processes of word formation.
16. Discuss the elements of grammar in detail.
17. Describe Nouns, Pronouns and the basic concept of NP
18. Describe Adjective and Adverb in detail.
19. Discuss Preposition and Prepositional Phrase in detail.
20. Discuss the concept of Simple Sentence in detail.
21. Explain the concept of “Semantics”
22. Explain the concept of “Meaning”
23. Describe the lexical relations.

Write Short Notes on -

1. Structure of English sentence
2. Dialect and accent
3. Principles of communication
4. Functions of language
5. Vowels
6. Consonants
7. Weak forms
8. Intonation
9. Acronyms
10. Suffixes
11. Free and bound morphemes
Section B

1. Describe the relation between the language and society
2. Explain Language Variation
3. Explain Regional Variation/Dialects
4. Explain Social Variation/Sociolects
5. Explain Individual Variation/Idiolects
6. Describe the concept of Language Contact
7. Describe the concepts of Code Switching and Code Mixing
8. Describe “Pidgins” and “Creoles”
9. Describe the concept of “Borrowing”.
10. Explain some concepts related to varieties of English.
11. Describe the distinctive features of British, American and Indian English.
12. Explain the phonological features of British, American and Indian English.
13. Explain the Syntactic features of British, American and Indian English.
14. Explain the features of Vocabulary of the British, American and Indian English.
15. Explain the spelling conventions of the British, American and Indian English.
16. Explain the basic concepts of “Pragmatics”
17. Explain the concept of Speech Acts in Pragmatics
18. Discuss the “Situation and Speech Event” in Pragmatics
19. Elaborate the concept of “Deixis”
20. Discuss the concepts of “Presupposition” and “Implicatures”
21. Explain the concept of “Discourse”
22. Discuss the principles of “Cohesion” and “Coherence”
23. Describe the concepts of “Turn Taking” and “Adjacency Pairs”
24. Discuss the “Conversational Principles” in detail
25. Explain the observation and violation of C.P. and P.P in conversation.
26. Explain the concept “Stylistics” in general.
27. Discuss the relationship between “Linguistics” and “Stylistics”.
28. Discuss the relationship between “Practical Criticism” and “Stylistics”.
29. Explain the nature and scope of Stylistics in general.
30. Explain the stages in linguistic analysis.
31. Discuss the strengths and limitations of Stylistics.
32. Elaborate the Stylistics of Poetry.
33. Explain the concept of Poetic Diction.
34. Explain the creativity in the use of language.
35. Elaborate the Stylistics of Drama.
36. Describe the relation between “Theatre” and “Drama”.
37. Elaborate the concepts of “Dramatic Text” and “Performance Text”.
38. Explain the use of Proximal Deixis in drama.
39. Elaborate the Stylistics of Fiction
40. Explain the Fiction as a narrative form of discourse
41. Describe the Narrative Strategies
42. Explain the concept of “Point of View”
43. Explain “Universe of Discourse”

Write short notes on –

1. Spellings in American English
2. Indian English
3. Difference between semantics and pragmatics
4. Deixis
5. Point of view
6. Poetic diction
7. Narrative strategies
8. Universe of discourse
Reference Books


2. Thorat Ashok, (2008), Discourse Analysis, CUP.
