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Department of Distance Education

**The Structure of  
Modern English**  
E-104

**Notes**

**M. A. English – Part 1**

## INTRODUCTION

The scope of the Distance Education System is unlimited. It has opened avenues of higher education for those who had been denied the opportunity. In the present era when constant updating is the need of the hour, Distance Education is doing wonders with the fast developing communication technology. Although the students are at distance, a complete learning experience is provided to them through the Self Learning Material, developed by our expert faculty.

It is our great pleasure to hand over to you the learning material of M.A. - English Part I. This year you will be studying English Drama, English Poetry and English Fiction with the help of literary creations of few authors and poets. Along with these areas of English literature you will also make an enquiry into the structure of modern English.

We are sure that, even those of you who might be studying M.A. for a material purpose, with the help of this kind of syllabus and learning material, will develop academic interest in all forms of English literature.

We take this opportunity to express our gratitude towards Hon'ble Vice-chancellor Dr. Deepak Tilak, Dean - Faculty of Distance Education Shri. Ratnakar Chandekar and the Registrar Dr. Umesh Keskar for encouragement, support and guidance provided by them.

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Wish you all the best!

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## **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 and pragmatics. 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.

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.

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 endeavour.

Authors

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## CHAPTER 1

### ORIENTATION

#### Language and communication-

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 organisations 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.

## **TYPES OF COMMUNICATION**

### **Verbal and Nonverbal Communication-**

Communication can take place in different ways. For example, it is possible to communicate with the use of language, and at the same time it is possible to communicate with the help of gestures, facial expressions, signs, pictures, etc.

### **Verbal Communication**

Although we can express things nonverbally, there are limits to what we can communicate without the help of language. Verbal communication consists of words arranged in meaningful patterns. It is defined as the oral or written use of words and is often termed as 'linguistic communication'. If we wish to discuss past events or future events, it is not possible to discuss everything with the help of gestures and facial expressions, and this tells us that language plays a very significant role in the process of communication. Verbal communication has mainly two manifestations, that is speech and writing. Speech is primary, where as writing is considered to be secondary as in the history of mankind speech came first and then writing developed.

### **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 'hm' 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.

### **Principles of communication**

The following are the five components in the process of communication.

**The sender**- The sender is the individual who initiates the communication. This person is sometimes called the 'encoder'. Encoding is the process of selecting and formulating the information to be conveyed.

**The Message**- It is the information that has to be transmitted and it includes both the verbal and nonverbal data.

**The Channel**- It is the means used to convey the message

**The Receiver**- He is an individual to whom the message is directed. The receiver decodes the message. When a set of symbols or signs is understood by the receiver, it is termed as decoding.

**The Feedback**- It is the receiver's response to a message.

Thus, at least two persons are involved in the process of communication, they are the transmitter (the sender) and the receiver.

In the process of communication, **the code** must be shared by the sender and the receiver. In other words, the sender and the receiver must use a common language.

### **Encoding and Decoding in Communication**

Communication starts or originates in the form of thoughts in the sender's mind and ends in the form of the thoughts being received by the mind of the receiver. When a message is sent out in a code, we call the process encoding and when the set of signs and symbols is understood by the receiver, we call it decoding. Both encoding and decoding are considered essential aspects of communication.

The Principles of Effective Communication are as follows.

### **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.

### **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.

### **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.

### **Proper Message**

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

### **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.

### **Removal of Barriers**

For effective communication, an attempt must be made to overcome the barriers in communication.

### **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 organise 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 favourably. , but if the information is contrary to our views and opinions, we do not react in a favourable way.

It is believed that even if the speaker and the listener are powerful, cent per cent 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.

### **Characteristics of language-**

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

### **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.

### **Language is a Rule Governed Behaviour-**

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 number 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.

### **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 specialities 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, where as 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'.

## **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', where as human language enables us to go beyond.

## **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

- 1) Phonology- It deals with the sound system of a particular language.
- 2) Syntax- It deals with the principles of sentence structure.
- 3) 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.

## **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 recognise them at all.

### **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.

### **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 organisation 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.

### **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.

### **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 organisation 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.

**Sources and Recommended Reading**

Doctor, A. and Doctor, R. (2000), *PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION*, Sheth Publishers Private Limited, Mumbai.

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Pal, R. and Korlahalli, J.S. (2000), *ESSENTIALS OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION*, Sultan Chand and sons, New Delhi.

Wales, K. (1989), *A DICTIONARY OF STYLISTICS*, Longman, London.

**Answer the following questions**

- 1) Define the term 'communication'. Discuss any two barriers to communication.
- 2) Bring out the distinction between verbal and non-verbal communication.
- 3) What do you understand by the term 'displacement'?
- 4) In what sense is language arbitrary?
- 5) Discuss any three principles effective communication.

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## CHAPTER 2

### PHYSIOLOGY OF SPEECH

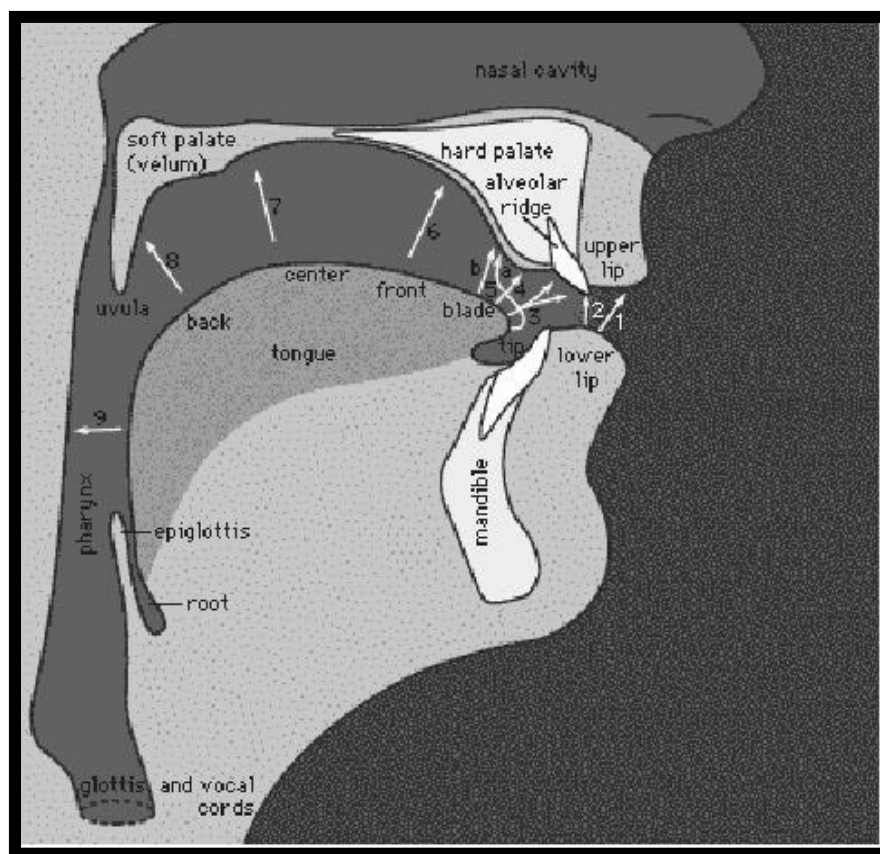
#### **Phonetics-**

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  
 (6) Palatal (7) Velar (8) Uvular (9) Pharyngeal.

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.

### **Phoneme:**

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.

### **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.

### **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.

### **Phonemic transcription:**

There is no perfect one-to-one correspondence between spelling and pronunciation in English. One sound may be represented by more than one letter of alphabet. For instance, the consonant /k/ is represented by the letter 'k' in 'kite', by the letters 'ch' in 'chemistry', by the letters 'ck' in 'back' and by the letters 'cc' in 'occasion'. On the other hand, one letter of alphabet may represent more than one sound of the language. For example, the letters 'ch' stand for /tʃ/ in 'change', for /k/ in 'ache' and for /ʃ/ in 'chef'. Therefore, the spelling of a word does not always help the speaker to find out what the pronunciation of the word is. This is especially a problem for second language learners and foreign language learners of English. Therefore, the phonemic transcription of every word that is given in a dictionary is helpful for the speakers and learners. The phonemic transcription of a word represents the exact phonemes that are articulated in the word. A set of transcription symbols is used for this. One symbol represents only one phoneme and one phoneme is represented by only one symbol. In the list of vowels and consonants of British R.P. given below, such transcription symbols are used. However, it should be noted that a transcription symbol used in the phonemic transcription of a word represents the *phoneme* that occurs in the word, and not the allophone of the phoneme. The phonemic transcriptions given below in order to illustrate the vowels and consonants of British R.P. are examples of phonemic transcription.

### **Oral and nasal sounds:**

There are no nasalised 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/, /f/, /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	/wi:k/
	heal	/hi:l/
/ɪ/ as in	sit	/sɪt/
	hill	/hɪl/
	kick	/kɪk/
/e/ as in	get	/get/
	tell	/tel/
	neck	/nek/
/æ/ as in	cap	/kæp/
	mad	/mæd/
	sack	/sæk/

/ʌ/ as in	cup	/kʌp/
	dust	/dʌst/
	rush	/rʌʃ/
/ɑ:/ as in	far	/fɑ:/
	pass	/pɑ:s/
	last	/lɑ:st/
/ɒ/ as in	hot	/hɒt/
	lock	/lɒk/
	box	/bɒks/
/ɔ:/ as in	all	/ɔ:l/
	horse	/hɔ:s/
	course	/kɔ:s/
/ʊ/ as in	put	/pʊt/
	look	/lʊk/
	good	/gʊd/
/u:/	true	/tru:/
	smooth	/smu:θ/
	cool	/ku:l/
/ɜ:/ as in	earth	/ɜ:θ/
	learn	/lɜ:n/
	word	/wɜ:d/
/ə/ as in	about	/əbaʊt/
	away	/ə'weɪ/
	attend	/ə'tend/

## Diphthongs

/eɪ/ as in	late	/leɪt/
	say	/seɪ/
	name	/neɪm/
/aɪ/ as in	right	/raɪt/
	life	/laɪf/
	high	/haɪ/
/ɔɪ/ as in	oil	/ɔɪl/
	noise	/nɔɪz/
	moist	/mɔɪst/
/əʊ/ as in	go	/gəʊ/
	rose	/rəʊz/
	hope	/həʊp/
/aʊ/ as in	now	/naʊ/
	crowd	/kraʊd/
	loud	/laʊd/
/ɪə/ as in	here	/hɪə/
	appear	/əˈpiə/
	ear	/ɪə/
/ɛə/ as in	care	/kɛə/
	air	/ɛə/
	bear	/bɛə/
/ʊə/ as in	poor	/pʊə/
	tour	/tʊə/
	sure	/ʃʊə/

**The consonants of British R.P.:** The following are the consonants of British R.P.

/p/ as in	pay	/peɪ/
	spin	/spɪn/
	top	/tɒp/
/b/ as in	bite	/baɪt/
	above	/ə'baʊv/
	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	/geɪm/
	begin	/brɪɡɪn/
	bag	/bæg/
/tʃ/ as in	child	/tʃaɪld/
	teacher	/'ti:tʃə/
	rich	/rɪtʃ/
/dʒ/ as in	gel	/dʒel/
	adjust	/ə'dʒʌst/
	badge	/bædʒ/
/f/ as in	fast	/fa:st/
	after	/'a:ftə/
	rough	/rʌf/

/v/ as in	very	/'veri/
	revise	/rɪ'vaɪz/
	give	/gɪv/
/θ/ as in	think	/θɪŋk/
	author	/'ɔ:θə/
	path	/pɑ:θ/
/ð/ as in	this	/ðɪs/
	other	/'ʌðə/
	breathe	/bri:ð/
/s/ as in	sing	/sɪŋ/
	message	/'mesɪdʒ/
	pass	/pɑ:s/
/z/ as in	zoo	/zu:/
	buzzer	/'bʌzə/
	wise	/waɪz/
/ʃ/ as in	shake	/ʃeɪk/
	cushion	/'kʊʃn/
	rush	/rʌʃ/
/ʒ/ as in	pleasure	/'pleʒə/
	leisure	/'leɪʒə/
	decision	/dɪ'sɪʒn/
/h/ as in	hat	/hæt/
	hill	/hɪl/
	behave	/bɪ'heɪv/
/m/ as in	mud	/mʌd/
	hammer	/'hæmə/
	bomb	/bɒm/



/n/ as in	need	/ni:d/
	banner	/'bænə/
	gain	/geɪn/
/ŋ/ as in	sink	/sɪŋk/
	hanger	/'hæŋə/
	gang	/gæŋ/
/l/ as in	look	/lʊk/
	believe	/'brli:v/
	settle	/'setl/
/j/ as in	yes	/jes/
	beauty	/'bju:tɪ/
	new	/nju: /
/w/ as in	well	/wel/
	when	/wen/
	aware	/ə'weɪə/
/r/ as in	wrong	/rɒŋ/
	arrest	/ə'rest/
	arrow	/'ærəʊ/

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 allophonic transcription can show the specific allophone of the phoneme that is pronounced in that context. The following are some examples.

pen	[p <sup>h</sup> en]
point	[p <sup>h</sup> ɔɪnt]

poor	[p <sup>h</sup> uə]
take	[t <sup>h</sup> eɪk]
until	[ʌn't <sup>h</sup> ɪl]
turn	[t <sup>h</sup> ɜ:n]
care	['k <sup>h</sup> εə]
account	[ə'k <sup>h</sup> əʊnt]
cake	[k <sup>h</sup> eɪk]

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/'.

### **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 – /'ɪŋlɪʃ/. 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' ( / 'æktə/ ), 'simple' ( / 'sɪmpl/ ), 'matter' ( / 'mætə/ ), 'building' ( / 'bɪldɪŋ/ ) and 'drama' ( / 'drɑ:mə/ ), the stress is on the first syllable. In some words, such as 'appear' ( / ə'pɪə/ ), 'revenge' ( / rɪ'vendʒ/ ), 'about' ( / ə'baʊt/ ), 'away' ( / ə'weɪ/ ) 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' ( / ʌndə'stænd/ ), 'intermission' ( / ɪntə'mɪʃn/ ), and 'disappoint' ( / dɪsə'pɔɪnt/ ).

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'nɒmɪk/ ).

### **Sentence stress:**

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.

### **Rhythm:**

The main principle of rhythm in an English sentence is that the gap of time between every two consecutive stressed syllables is approximately the same. Stressed syllables occur after regular intervals of time in a sentence. This is what is called the stress-timed rhythm of the English language. For instance, in the following sentence, the gap of time between every two consecutive stresses should be roughly the same. "A 'book is a 'student's 'friend." There are three syllables between the first stressed syllable ('book') and the second stressed syllable (which is the first syllable in the word 'student's), there are two syllables between the second stressed syllable and the third ('friend'). But, the gap of time between them has to be approximately the same. As a result, that part in which there are more syllables between two stresses is spoken faster and that part in which there are less syllables between two stresses is spoken more slowly. This is the reason why weak forms of unstressed words are used in that part which is spoken faster.

Native speakers of English, such as the British and non-native speakers of English, such Indian speakers, often find their speech in English a little unintelligible. The reason is that Indian languages, such as Marathi and Hindi, are syllable-timed. Therefore, the rhythm of an English sentence spoken by an Indian is also like that in a Marathi or Hindi sentence. As stress is not a prominent feature in Indian languages, the rhythm of a sentence in Indian English is based on the length of syllables, not on stress.

### **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.

<b>Word</b>	<b>Strong form</b>	<b>Weak form</b>
'a'	/eɪ/	/ə/
'an'	/æn/	/ən/

'the'	/ði:/	/ðI/ (before a vowel sound) /ðə/ (before a consonant sound)
'am'	/æm/	/əm, m/
'are'	/a:/	/ə/
'has'	/hæz/	/həz, əz, z, s/
'have'	/hæv/	/həv, əv, v/
'had'	/hæd/	/həd, əd, d/
'is'	/Iz/	/z, s/
'shall'	/ʃæl/	/ʃl/
'was'	/wɒz/	/wəz/
'were'	/wɛə/	/wə/
'will'	/wɪl/	/l/
'can'	/kæn/	/kən/
'and'	/ænd/	/ənd, ən, n/
'as'	/æz/	/əz/
'than'	/ðæn/	/ðən/
'that'	/ðæt/	/ðət/
'at'	/æt/	/ət/
'of'	/ɒv/	/əv/

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.

### **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 your ,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.

### **Indian English:**

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 recognised 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 /ɜ:/ as in 'learn' and /ʌ/ as in 'cup'. In British R.P., these two words are pronounced as /lɜ:n/ and /kʌp/ respectively. These vowels are replaced by /ə/. Therefore, most Indian speakers of English would pronounce these words as /lərn/ and /kəp/ respectively.

- 2) In Indian English, very often no distinction is made between short and long vowels, such as /ɪ/ as in 'sit' and /i:/ as in 'seat', /ʊ/ 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 /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ by single vowels /e:/ and /o:/. The words 'take' and 'road' are pronounced as /teɪk/ and /rəʊd/ 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 [p<sup>h</sup>, t<sup>h</sup> and k<sup>h</sup>] 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 – [t<sup>h</sup>] and [d] respectively.
- 8) Many Indian speakers of English use the consonants [p<sup>h</sup>] 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.

### **American English:**

General American English is also different from British R.P. The following are some of the major differences between British and American English, as far as phonology is concerned.

1) In British English, the vowel /ɒ/ appears in a word like 'box' ( /bɒks/ ), whereas in the place of that vowel American speakers use the vowel /ɑ:/ ( /ba:ks/ ). The following are some more examples. In each example, the first in the pair is the British pronunciation and the second one is the American pronunciation. 'Hot' - /hɒt/, /ha:t/; 'soft' - /sɒft/, /sa:ft/; 'rock' - /rɒk/, /ra:k/.

2) Where the vowel /ɑ:/ appears before the consonants /f/, /θ/ and /s/ in British English, the vowel /æ/ is used in American English. For example, 'laugh' - /la:f/, /læf/; 'bath' - /ba:θ/; 'pass' - /pa:s/, /pæs/.

3) The consonant /r/ is silent in British English when it appears in the final position and between a vowel and a consonant, as mentioned earlier. In American English, /r/ is not silent. It is pronounced in all positions in which it appears.

4) In British English, the consonant /t/ has two variants (i.e. allophones). In a stressed position, it is pronounced as [t<sup>h</sup>], whereas it is pronounced as [t] in an unstressed position. In American English, it is pronounced as [t<sup>h</sup>] in a stressed position, but it is close to /d/ in an unstressed position.

### **Sources and recommended reading**

- Bansal, R.K., and Harrison, J.B. (1972), *Spoken English*, Orient Longman, Mumbai.
- Gimson, A.C. (1962), *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English*, Arnold, London.
- Jones, D. (2006), *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
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- Yule, G. (1985), *The Study of Language*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

### **Answer the following questions**

- 1) What is phonetics? What are the branches of phonetics and what do they study?
- 2) Explain the difference between vowels and consonants.
- 3) What is a phoneme? Explain the difference between phonemes and allophones with examples.
- 4) What are the vowels of R.P.? Give examples.
- 5) What are the consonants of R.P.? Give examples.
- 6) Bring out the difference between the phonology of British R.P. and Indian English.
- 7) Explain the difference between the phonology of British R.P. and American English.
- 8) What are weak forms? Give examples.
- 9) What are the types of intonation? Explain their uses.
- 10) Transcribe the following words and mark stress on the appropriate syllables.
  - i) explain
  - ii) happy
  - iii) eagle
  - iv) desire
  - v) college
  - vi) behave

- vii) rainy
- viii) manage
- ix) people
- x) disgusting
- xi) career
- xii) difficult
- xiii) quite
- xiv) quiet
- xv) final

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**CHAPTER III**  
**THE MORPHOLOGY OF ENGLISH**

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.

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.

Prefix	Word class of free morpheme	Word class of created word
hyper-	tension (N)	hypertension (N)
be-	devil (N)	bedevil (V)
re-	style (V)	restyle (V)

## Suffixes

Suffixes usually, but not always, change the class of the free morpheme to which they are attached:

Word class of free morpheme	Suffix	Word class of created word
exploit (V)	-ation	exploitation (N)
joy (N)	-ful	joyful (Adj)
friend (N)	-ship	friendship (N)

### 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, . dramatise, democratise, 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

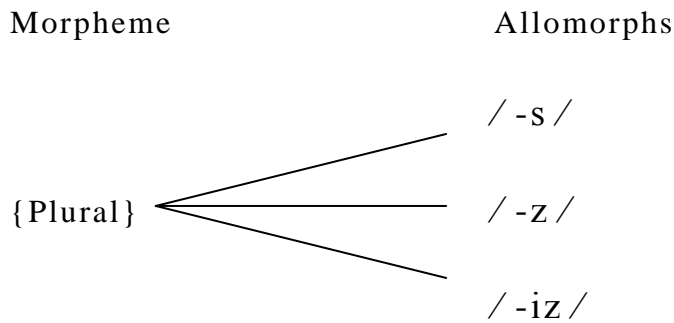
Inflectional affixes modify a word's form (without changing the meaning) and change the grammatical subclass of the word. For example, in the case of English nouns, inflection marks the plural subclass by adding the affix ‘-s’. in the case of verbs, the suffix ‘-ed’ is added to indicate the past tense.

## Morphological Analysis

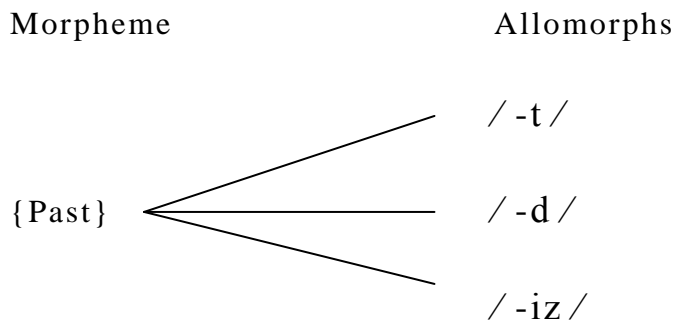
Phonology is concerned with the relation between phonemes and their allophones while morphology is concerned with the relation between morphemes and their allomorphs. For example, The plural morpheme ‘-s’ or ‘-es’ has three allomorphs: ‘-s’, ‘-z’ and ‘-iz’. Like allophones, allomorphs also occur in mutually 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 [k æt-s]).
- ii. ‘-z’ is always preceded by a voiced sound other than / z/, / ʒ/ and /dʒ/ (as in [dog-z]).

- iii. '-iz' is always preceded by /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/ or /dʒ/ (as in [hʌpɪ:-iz]).
- iv. Morphemes are generally represented within curly brackets while allomorphs are represented with slant lines.



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



## **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 :

1. Prefixation: the addition of a prefix in front of a base, eg. 'impossible'.
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

Prefix	Base Word	New Word
Im-	Mortal	Immortal
In-	Evitable	Inevitable
	Sensitive	Insensitive
Un-	Stable	Unstable
a-	Theist	Atheist
	Moral	Amoral
Non-	Entity	Non-entity
	Violence	Non-violence
Dis-	Passionate	Dispassionate
	Service	Disservice
Il-	Logical	Illogical
Ir-	Rational	Irrational
	Relevant	Irrelevant
	Frost	Defrost

De-	Forestation	Deforestation
Mis-	Interpret	Misinterpret
	Represent	Misrepresent
Pseudo-	Secular	Pseudosecular
	Religious	Pseudoreligious

b. Prefixes of number

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

c. Prefixes of time and order

Re-	Evaluate	Re-evaluate
	Examine	Re-examine
Ante-	Chamber	Antechamber
Fore-	Knowledge	Fore-knowledge
	Tell	Foretell
Pre-	Natal	Prenatal
	Mature	Premature
Post	War	Post-war
	Dated	Post-dated
Ex-	Principal	Ex-principal
Super	Structure	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
	Natural	Supernatural
Out-	Run	Outrun
	Live	Outlive
Under-	State	Understate
	Cooked	Undercooked
Hyper-	Active	Hyperactive
Ultra-	Modern	Ultramodern
	Simple	Ultrasimple
Mini- (midi-/maxi-)	Bus	Minibus
	Skirt	Miniskirt
Over-	Active	Overactive
	Smart	Oversmart
Sub-	Human	Subhuman
	Zero	Subzero
	Standard	Substandard
Arch-	Bishop	Archbishop
	Angel	Archangel

f. Prefixes of attitude

Pro-	Congress	Pro-congress
	Democracy	Pro-democracy
Anti-	Social	Anti-social
	Operate	Co-operate

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:

Prefix	Word	Class	New Word	Class
Be-	Head	Noun	Behead	Verb
	Friend	Noun	Befriend	Verb
En-	Able	Adjective	Enable	Verb
	Trust	Noun	Entrust	Verb
a-	Float	Verb	Afloat	Adjective
	Head	Noun	Ahead	Adjective
	Form	Noun	Deform	Verb

## 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

Suffix	Word	Class	New Word	Class
-ship	Friend	Noun	Friendship	Noun
-hood	Boy	Noun	Boyhood	Noun
-ite	Hindu	Adjective	Hinduite	Adjective
-er	London	Noun	Londoner	Noun
-ess	Tiger	Noun	Tigress	Noun
-dom	King	Noun	Kingdom	Noun
-ery	Machine	Noun	Machinery	Noun

ii. Class-changing suffixes

Noun to Adjective

-ian	India	Noun	Indian	Adjective
-ese	China	Noun	Chinese	Adjective
-ful	Beauty	Noun	Beautiful	Adjective
-less	Harm	Noun	Harmless	Adjective
-ly	Friend	Noun	Friendly	Adjective
-like	Child	Noun	Childlike	Noun
-ish	Child	Noun	Childish	Noun
-al	Accident	Noun	Accidental	Noun
-ous	Virtue	Noun	Virtuous	Adjective



### Adjective to Noun

Ity	Able	Adjective	Ability	Noun
-ness	Happy	Adjective	Happiness	Noun
-ry	Brave	Adjective	Bravery	Noun

### Noun to Verb

-ify	Fort	Noun	Fortify	Verb
-en	Length	Noun	Lengthen	Verb
-le	Top	Noun	Topple	Verb

### Verb to Noun

-er	Drive	Verb	Driver	Noun
-ment	Govern	Verb	Government	Noun
-age	Drain	Verb	Drainage	Noun
-ant	Pollute	Verb	Pollutant	Noun
-ee	Pay	Verb	Payee	Noun
-ation	Condemn	Verb	Condemnation	Noun
-al	Withdraw	Verb	Withdrawal	Noun
-or	Act	Verb	Actor	Noun

### Verb to Adverb

-ily	Sleep	Verb	Sleepily	Adverb
------	-------	------	----------	--------

-fully	Play	Verb	Playfully	Adverb
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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

Hair breadth

Teargas

Goldfish

Girl-friend

Television fan

Bread-piece

Block-head

Fire-engine

Pot-belly

Paper-back

2. Noun + Adjective

Trustworthy

Home sick

Duty free

Beauty conscious

Brickred

Sea-green

### 3. Adjective + Noun

Pale face

Fathead

Yellow press

Red light

Greenhorn

### 4. Compounds with Verbs / Adverbials / Verbal Nouns

Sight-seeing

Birth-control

Record-player

Brain-washing

Walking-stick

Man-eating

Heart-breaking

Easy-going

Baby-sitting

Lip-read

## Reduplication

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

### Examples

Criss-cross	Pooh-pooh	Hush-hush
Doodle-doo	Kit-kat	See-saw
Wishy-washy	Tip-top	Hurry-worry
Trin-trin	Hanky-panky	Sing-song
Walkie-talkie	Humdrum	Goody-goody

## 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

Shortened Word	Full Word
Photo	Photograph
Plane	Aeroplane
Pram	Perambulator
Bus	Omnibus
Flu	Influenza
Phone	Telephone
Hanky	Handkerchief
Lab	Laboratory

## Acronyms

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

Examples

Acronyms	Full form
UN	United Nations
AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
TV	Television
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation

## **4. 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

## 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

## 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)
dame	(from French)

## 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.

## Echoism

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

Examples

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

### **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'.



## **Sources and Recommended Reading**

Christophersen, P. and Sandved, A.O. (1969), *AN ADVANCED ENGLISH GRAMMAR*, Macmillan, London.

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Leech, G. and Svavrik, J. A. (1975), *A COMMUNICATIVE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH*, Longman, London.

Quirk R. (1962), *THE USE OF ENGLISH*, Longman, London.

Quirk, R. and Greenbaum S. (1973), *A UNIVERSITY GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH*, Pearson Education Limited, Essex.

**Answer the following questions**

1. What is morphology? What do you understand by the term morpheme? How does it differ from the word phoneme?
2. Give some examples of words which are (a) determinate and (b) indeterminate with respect to segmentation.
3. Define the terms 'morph', 'morpheme' and 'allomorph'. Give examples.
4. What are free and bound morphemes? Give examples.
5. What are inflectional and derivational affixes? Explain with examples.
6. What are the different ways of word formation? Explain with examples.
7. What do you understand by affixation? Illustrate with examples.
8. Write a detailed note on the use of prefixes in the formation of words in English.
9. Write short notes on the following:-
  - a. Acronyms
  - b. Difference between phoneme and morpheme
  - c. Suffixes
  - d. Free and bound morphemes

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## **CHAPTER 4**

### **Language and Style**

This unit could be divided into two parts. The first part deals with the varieties of English like dialects, accents, registers and styles. The second part includes two important systems of language - semantics and syntax.

#### **Part I Varieties of English according to user, use and social relations**

As language varies from one individual to another, it also varies from one social group (family, village, town) 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.

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

- **Varieties according to user – Accents and Dialects**
- **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.

- **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.

#### 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 (nearness 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, mawpin, bogle 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 /he:m/, Liverpool /o:m/, Norwich /Um/, London /æUm/.

### **Social dialects**

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 does 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/ where as non-Brahmins pronounce it as /ayti/.

- **Registers - Varieties according to use**

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, 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.

### **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 every day life we find adult speakers using a small number of styles.

Martin Joos (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!

## **Part II**

### **Levels of Linguistic Analysis**

The study of a language mainly deals with the manner in which sounds of that language are pronounced (phonological system), the ways in which sentences are constructed and the meanings (semantic system) and the ways of word-formation. These inter-connected aspects are studied in linguistics separately as phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. These are the levels of linguistic analysis. All these systems are linked with one another, hence language is known as system of systems.

- i) Phonology is a system which deals with the study of organization of sound units of a particular language.
- ii) Morphology is the system which studies the formation of words.
- iii) Syntax is the system which studies the combination of words into phrases, clauses and sentences.
- iv) Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences.
- v) Pragmatics deals with the contextual aspects of meaning in a particular situation.

In this section let's go through two important systems of language - semantics and syntax.

- **Semantics**

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. It is the level at which one attempts to analyse 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'.

**Types of 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.

### **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, 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 /led/r= metal; lead/ li:d/ = 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.

## **Syntax**

We have just seen one of the major levels of linguistic analysis called semantics. 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 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.

### **The components studied in syntax**

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 fulfil 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. The adverbs are of following types- manner, means, reason, condition, etc. 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 analyse 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), 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 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 give 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.

### **Relationship between syntax and semantics**

Semantics and syntax are closely related to each other.

If we know the relation between these two levels of linguistic analysis, it is easy to understand the sentences.

Consider the following pair of sentences as an example.

Rajesh gave a book to John.

Rajesh gave John a book.

In the first sentence the emphasis is on the word 'John' and that's why it has been placed at the end. It means a book was given to the person named 'John' and not to any other person (Rajneesh or Divya). The second sentence in the given pair focuses on the word 'book'. It indicates that what was given to John was a book (not magazine or journal).

### **Sources and recommended reading**

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### **Answer the following questions**

1. Identify the style in the following sentences.

- i) Hi Guys! Sorry I'm late.
- ii) Visitors should go up the stairs at once.
- iii) Honey, you must not be so upset!
- iv) Oh, shut up, will you?
- v) would you mind going upstairs right away please?

2. Identify the registers based on the lexical items given in the following sets.

- i) diphthongs, plosives, alveolar ridge, fricatives, allophones
- ii) office assistant, mouse, times new roman, page setup, bullets and numbering
- iii) sift, fry, saucepan, teaspoon, sift, 100g plain flour,

3. Distinguish between the following terms.

a) Dialect and accent

b) Social dialect and regional dialect

4. In the following table list five examples of each category (other than those mentioned in this unit).

Synonyms	Antonyms	Homonyms	Homophones	Collocations

5. Write a note on the structure of English sentence.

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## **CHAPTER 5**

### **Varieties of English**

This unit consists of two parts. In the first part brief introduction has been given to some concepts related to varieties of English like English as an International language, Standard English, Received Pronunciation, General American English, Standard Indian English and varieties within national varieties of English. The second part is a survey of general nature of British, American and Indian English in respect of sounds, vocabulary, usage, word formation and syntax.

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.

#### **Some concepts related to varieties of English.**

##### **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. **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.

### 3. **Received Pronunciation (RP)**

The short form used for the term 'Received Pronunciation' is RP. The word 'received' means 'socially acceptable'. RP is an accent which is not related to any particular region of UK. It 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 a defence personnel.
- iv) RP is a cluster of weakly marked accents.

### 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) )

#### 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)

#### 6. **Varieties within National varieties of English**

##### **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 ‘wives’ 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 /bʌt:ə/
- 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’

### **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.

### **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.

- **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 20<sup>th</sup> 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

- **American English – A native variety of English**

American English is one of the ‘avatars’ of the English language. It has spread world wide 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.

Change in sounds	Word	British English	American English
/ɑ:/ - /æ/	Sample	/sɑ:mpl/	/sæmpl/
/ɑ:/ - /ɜ:/	Clerk	/klɑ:k/	/klɜ:k/
/ɒ/ - /ɑ/	cot	/kɒt/	/kɑt/

Change in sounds	Word	British English	American English
/ɒ/ - /ɔ:/	cloth	/klɒθ /	/klɔ:θ /
/ju:/ - /u:/	duty	/dju:ti/	/du:ti/
/r/	Car	/kɑ:/	/kɑ:r/

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) Lexical features:**

**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.

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

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.

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

	call up	ring up
Words in daily use	calling card flashlight kerosene	visiting card torch paraffin

### 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.

Ways of Word formation	Examples
Acronyms	NASA- National Aeronautics and Space Administration laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation)
Affixation (-suffixes)	-eria – groceteria -burger – cheese-burger
Backformation	to orate (from oration)



	to biograph (from biographer)
Blends	Gasohol (gasoline + alcohol) Sportcast (sport + broadcast)
Clippings	Gasoline – gas Lubricating oil - lube
Euphemisms	gentleman cow (bull) sanitary engineer (plumber)

#### 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.

Source language	Words in American English
American languages	squash, moose, raccoon
French	prairie, mode, depot
German	hamburger, kindergarten
Dutch	bakery, cookie, boss
Spanish	cockroach, ranch, cafeteria
Japanese	tycoon

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

Word	British Meaning	American Meaning
corn	Grain	Maize
Creek	an inlet from the sea	a small fresh water stream
Homely	down to earth	ugly
Bathroom	room with bath or shower and sink	room with toilet only

Surgery	a medical operation room	an office of any doctor
School	educational institution at elementary level	all institutions of education including universities

Coinages - Some of the words invented in the USA are lynch, popcorn, drive-in, sit-in, super-market, gangster, lollipop, etc.

**E) 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 where as 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*.

- **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;
- vi) Scholars participating in seminars, workshops and conferences;
- vii) Professionals like doctors, engineers and lawyers.
- viii) 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

Sounds	British English	Indian English
Consonants	24	23
Vowels	12	11
Diphthongs	08	--
Monophthongs	--	06

- 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) Lexical 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.

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

### 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)
- vi) 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:

<b>Topic / source</b>	<b>Words in Indian English</b>
Sociology	adivasi, basti, guru, namaskar, rickshaw, tamasha
Mythology	atma, avatar, mantra, Vedas, yoga
Administration	bandobast, lathi-charge, dak, panchayat, sarpanch, tahsil,
Politics	bandh, dharna, hartal, morcha, satyagraha
Titles	Babuji, Mahatma, Sahib, Sardar, Swami
Clothing	churidars, dhoti, dupatta, kurta, pyjama, sari
Food	biryani, dal, pan, papad, puri, tanduri, double-roti
Music	alap, khayal, sarangi, shehnai, tabla

(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

Word	British Meaning	Indian Meaning
Boy(n)	A male child, strictly till puberty, loosely till 19 or 20	Groom (Matrimonials)
Convent(n)	A house in which nuns live	An English medium school, esp. one run by a Christian mission.
Moon(n)	Sign of chastity	Associated with maternal uncle, loveliness of the beloved.

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

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

**E) 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 + .... (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 + ...

IE- When he is coming?

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.

• **Sources and recommended reading**

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• **Answer the following questions**

1. Comment on the relationship between Standard English and Received Pronunciation.
2. Write a brief note on regional variations in Indian English.
3. Write short notes on the following.
  - a) Spellings in American English
  - b) Spelling pronunciation in Indian English
4. Compare the lexical differences between American English and Indian English.
5. Comment on the similarities in the syntactic features of Indian English and American English

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## CHAPTER 6

### PRAGMATICS

#### Introduction-

Linguistics can be defined as the scientific study of language. As discussed in the section 'Language and Style', the various levels of linguistic organisation are phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Whether pragmatics should be considered as a level of linguistic analysis is a debatable issue today.

#### The Distinction between Semantics and Pragmatics-

Semantics as a level of linguistic organisation deals with all those aspects of meaning that are linguistic. Semantics deals with

- i) Lexical Meaning- Meaning conveyed by individual words. For example, the meaning of the word 'beautiful' is different from the meaning of the word 'gorgeous'.
- ii) Grammatical Meaning- Meaning conveyed by the grammatical form and structure. For example, the grammatical meanings of 'Mohan is a manager'( a statement) and 'Is Mohan a manager?' (a question) are different.
- iii) Intonational Meaning- Meaning conveyed by the choice of the intonation pattern. For example, 'thank you' said with a falling tone indicates sincere thanks, where as 'thank you' said with a rising tone indicates that one has said it as a matter of formality.

On the other hand, pragmatics deals with situational or contextual meaning and therefore it can be said that pragmatics deals with non-linguistic aspects of meaning. Pragmatics is the study of all those aspects of meaning not captured in a semantic theory. Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) define pragmatics as 'The study of language in communication, particularly the relationships between sentences and the context and situations in which they are used. It includes the study of

- a) How interpretation and the use of an utterance depends on the knowledge of the real world.
- b) How speakers use and understand speech acts and
- c) How the structure of sentences is influenced by the relations between the speakers and hearers' (p. 225).

Thus, pragmatics is basically concerned with the study of language usage or language in context or situation. It is concerned with the fact that in every conversation more is communicated than what is actually said. Yule (1996) defines 'Pragmatics' as, "The study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). It has consequently, more to do with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves' (p. 1). Pragmatics as a branch of linguistics has developed since 1970's and it is basically concerned with the study of language in its socio-cultural context.

The difference between semantics and pragmatics is that semantics deals with meaning with reference to the users and communicative functions of sentences, where as pragmatics does not do so. Pragmatics takes into consideration the situation or context in which the utterance is used. Thus, the study of what is said directly through words, the coded meaning is the concern of semantics, but the study of what is implied, that is the non-coded meaning is the concern of pragmatics. Semantics is concerned with sentence meaning, where as pragmatics is concerned with the meaning of an utterance. For example, 'It is a great performance' are both a sentence and an utterance; however 'a great performance' is an utterance, but not a sentence.

It must be remembered that Pragmatics as a study of meaning in discourse is an interdisciplinary field. Philosophers, sociologists, linguists and anthropologists from different countries have made their contributions to the emerging field of pragmatics. Some of the important terms discussed in Pragmatics are Presupposition, Speech Event, Speech Situation, Deixis and Implicature. Let us try to understand these terms in brief.

### **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.

### **Speech Event and Speech Situation-**

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 and norms for the use of speech, which may be different in different communities.

### **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. Deixis 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

### **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.

### **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’. 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 analysed. 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 POLITENESS PRINCIPLE**

Language plays a very significant role in establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships. By being polite a person can save himself from face 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’.

There are eight maxims of the politeness principle .They are the maxims of

- i) Cost
- ii) Benefit
- iii) Tact
- iv) Generosity
- v) Approbation
- vi) Modesty
- vii) Agreement and

viii) 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 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.

### **The Relationship between the Cooperative principle and the Politeness Principle**

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.

## **THE SPEECH ACT THEORY**

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 or 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,

Speaker A: 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.

- 1) **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.

- 2) **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.
- 3) **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.
- 4) **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.
- 5) **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.

### **Sources and Recommended Reading**

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**Answer the following questions-**

- 1) In what sense is pragmatics different from semantics?
- 2) Discuss in detail the maxims of the co-operative principle and give suitable examples.
- 3) What are the eight maxims of the politeness principle as discussed by Leech? Do you think it is possible to observe these maxims in each and every situation?
- 4) What is a speech act? Discuss in detail the speech act theory.
- 5) Bring out the difference between direct speech act and indirect speech act by giving suitable examples.
- 6) What are the presuppositions involved in the following utterances?
  - a) My wife is a teacher.
  - b) His children study in the United States.

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