L'Arbi Ben M'hidi University- Oum El Bouaghi
Department of English
Course Title: LINGUISTICS
Level: First Year
Teacher: Boulmaiz Djallel

Initiation and Introduction to Linguistics

<u>Semester Two:</u>

❖ **Linguistics as a science**
  ➢ The scientific study of language

  ➢ Dichotomous terms: -Synchrony vs Diachrony

      -Prescriptivism vs Descriptivism

      - Theoretical vs Applied linguistics

      - Micro vs Macro-linguistics

  ➢ The domains of linguistics:- Phonology

      - Morphology

      - Syntax

      - Semantics

Linguistics as a Science

I.   What Is Linguistics?

Linguistics is the scientific study of human language. Linguistics is scientific in the sense that the study of language must be subjected to the scientific processes of observation, data collection, formulation of hypothesis, analysis of data and formulation of theory based on the structure of the language.

II.   Criteria of a Scientific Study

In order to assure a purely scientific and systematic approach to language study, a linguist or researcher has to respect the following methodological norms and criteria:

1. Objectivity: (opposite to subjectivity) all that should matter are the facts and nothing else than the facts. The linguist or investigator should not be influenced by personal opinion, political or religious belief, or feelings.

2. Explicitness: A statement should be clearly enunciated so as it leaves no room to ambiguity, i.e. use of clear definitions and clear terminology.

3. Consistency: It is the absence of or avoidance of contradiction between the different parts of the overall statement. A linguist should not approve something then disapprove it at the end of his theory.

4. Economy: It implies that the investigator's style has to be scientific and his terminology appropriate so as it saves time and energy and eases up the understanding of the phenomena under study.

5. Exhaustiveness: It refers to the adequate treatment of all relevant material.

6. Systematicness: This is one of the most important criteria especially in the field of linguistics. To be systematic means to keep on the same line of the basic principles and never deviate. Accordingly, systematicness refers to the need of imposing some organization on the process of language study.

Dichotomous Terms

The content of linguistics may be divided in terms of four dichotomies: descriptive vs. prescriptive, synchronic vs. diachronic, theoretical vs. applied, and micro-linguistics vs. macro-linguistics.

1. Prescriptive vs. Descriptive Linguistics:

1.1. Prescriptivism: The view that certain linguistic forms and usages (of native speakers) are good and should be encouraged, while others are bad and should be stamped out.

A famous example concerns the so-called split infinitive. For generations, virtually all English-speakers have spontaneously said things like "*She decided to gradually get rid of this bad habit*". Here the sequence ***to gradually get rid of*** is the 'split infinitive'. Many prescriptivists have condemned this usage, on the supposed ground that ***to get*** is a single verb-form, the 'infinitive', and therefore 'logically' cannot be split up. Such people typically insist instead on something like "She decided gradually to get rid of…" . But this is all wrong.

➢ First, the proposed 'correction' is badly misleading: it suggests that it is the decision which is gradual, rather than the disposal.

➢ Second, the sequence *to get* is not an infinitive. The true infinitive here is *get*, while *to* is nothing but a linking particle. The adverb *gradually* logically belongs next to *get rid of*, and that's where native speakers normally put it.

1.2. Descriptivism: The policy of describing languages as they are found to exist. In a descriptivist approach, we try to describe the facts of linguistic behaviour exactly as we find them, and we refrain from making value judgements about the speech of native speakers.

Since the very first requirement in any scholarly investigation is to get the facts right, descriptivism is a central tenet of what we regard as a scientific approach to the study of language. So, modern linguists (except in certain educational contexts) utterly reject prescriptivism, and their investigations are based instead upon descriptivism.

2. Synchronic vs. Diachronic Studies:

It was the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, in the early twentieth century, who first emphasized the fundamental difference between synchrony and diachrony in the study of language.

2.1. Synchrony: In a synchronic approach to describing a language, we focus on that language at one moment in time and describe it as we find it at that moment (a sort of 'snapshot' of the state of the language). This need not be the present moment: we can equally construct a description of present-day English or of Shakespeare's English.

2.2. Diachrony: The diachronic study of language may be approached by comparing one or more languages at different stages in their histories.

3. Theoretical vs. Applied Linguistics:

3.1. Theoretical Linguistics: The goal of theoretical linguistics is the construction of a general theory of the structure of language or of a general theoretical framework for the description of languages.

3.2. Applied Linguistics is the application of the concepts and methods of linguistics to any of various practical problems involving language. There are many subjects that are dealt with under the umbrella of applied linguistics, for example:

- Language Teaching.

- Language Planning & Policy.

- Translation Studies.

- Graphology , or handwriting analysis, as it is often called, is the science of revealing personality traits from someone's handwriting.

- Clinical linguistics: It is the application of the linguistic sciences to the study of language disability in all its forms. (For eg. -Dyslexia: A slight disorder of the brain that causes difficulty in reading and spelling, for example, but does not affect intelligence.

  -Aphasia: The loss of the ability to understand or produce speech, because of brain damage).

4. Micro-linguistics vs. Macro-linguistics:

4.1. Micro-linguistics: Microlinguistics is generally considered as core linguistics since it is concerned with the basic components of language (sound, form, and meaning). In a microlinguistic study, language is viewed as a system in itself, within itself, and for itself independently of any other consideration of non-linguistic or extra-linguistic factors.

4.2. Macro-linguistics: According to the macro-linguistic view, languages should be analyzed with reference to their social function, to the manner in which they are acquired by children, to the psychological mechanisms that underlie the production and reception of speech, to the literary and the aesthetic or communicative function of language, and so on.

Various areas within macro-linguistics have been given terminological recognition:

• Psycholinguistics : Psycholinguistics is the study of the psychological and neurobiological

factors that enable humans to acquire, use, and understand language.

• Sociolinguistics: The branch of linguistics which studies the relation between language and society.

• Pragmatics: The branch of linguistics which studies how utterances communicate meaning in actual use.

• Anthropo-linguistics: The study of the relation between language and culture.

• Semiotics: The study of the social production of meaning from sign systems.

THE DOMAINS OF LINGUISTICS

Phonology

The branch of linguistics which studies the structure and systematic patterning of sounds in human language.

Because **phonology** is often confused with **phonetics,** a distinction must be drawn between the two terms:

➢ On the one hand, general phonetics gives an account of the total resources of sound available to the human being who wishes to communicate by speech. In its essence, it is thus independent of particular languages. Phonology, on the other hand, gives an account of, among other things, the specific choices made by a particular speaker within this range of possibilities.

➢ Whereas phonetics is chiefly concerned with the physical nature of speech sounds, phonology studies them on a rather more abstract level (the function and patterning of speech sounds).

Phonetics is often described as the 'scientific study of speech production' with regard to the following processes: (a) articulatory-genetic sound production **(articulatory phonetics);** (b) structure of the acoustic flow **(acoustic phonetics);** and (c) neurological-psychological processes involved in perception **(auditory phonetics)**.

➢ **<u>The phoneme and the Allophone:</u>**

The phoneme is one of the basic sound units of a language.

Every spoken language possesses a smallish set of basic abstract sound units, both consonants and vowels, and every word in that language must consist of a permitted sequence of those basic sound units which are called phonemes.

The allophone is the concretely realized variant of a **phoneme** (*poor* and *spin*).

It is important to notice that sounds which are allophones of the same phoneme in one language may in other languages operate as distinct phonemes. In Russian, for example, sounds very similar to clear [l] and dark [l] can make a difference in meaning: /mɔl/ 'moth' v. /mɔɫ/ 'pier'.

I.1.Minimal Pairs

Minimal pairs are pairs of words with different meanings and exactly one sound difference. For example, "cat" and "bat" are minimal pairs because only the first sound is different ([k] vs [b]).However, "cat" and "flat" are not minimal pairs because there are two sound differences: ([k] vs[f] and [l].)

The reason we look for minimal pairs is to identify a *contrast* between two sounds. If two different sounds, placed in the same exact environment, produce different words with different meanings, then those sounds really are different *phonemes*.

Remember, the restrictions on minimal pairs are:

- The two words have different meanings.
- Only one sound is different.
- The words have the same number of sounds.
- The sound that is different is in the same place in both words.

2.Phonemes vs. Allophones

There are two types of speech sounds: *phonemes* and *allophones*.

Phoneme: A speech sound that is distinct from other sounds in the language. Changing a phoneme changes the meaning of a word.

Allophone: A speech sound that is a variation of some phoneme in a language. An allophone of a phoneme is a version of that phoneme which is always found in some particular environment.

There is a lot of variation in the way that sounds are produced. For example, someone with a very high voice saying [k] creates quite a different sound wave than someone with a very lowvoice saying [k]. Yet, we still recognize the two different sounds as being the same; they are the same phoneme. There is any number of individual or random variations that affect the quality ofthe sound, but which do not affect us as listeners and perceivers of language. We are wired toprocess phonemes and string them into meaningful words in our minds, without noticingunimportant differences in how they sound from one speaker or moment to the next. Whatdifferences count as unimportant? Well, it depends on the language.

[s] and [ʃ]: Phonemes in English, allophones in Korean

Consider the difference between [s] and [ʃ].In English, we consider the distinction to be an important one:[s] and [ʃ] are different phonemes. One way to tell is that minimal pairs like "soot" and "shoot" have different meanings. Take a word, change the [s] sound to a [ʃ] sound,

and you have got eithera different word ("sop" becomes "shop") or meaningless nonsense ("soap" becomes "shoap").

So, [s] and [ʃ] are definitely different phonemes in English, but that is not so in all languages. For example, in Korean, [s] and [ʃ] are allophones of the same phoneme. Changing [s] to [ʃ] does not change the meaning of the word; it just sounds a little strange.

[p] and [p]: Allophones in English, phonemes in Thai

Consider the difference between words like "pot" and "spot". Say them, and really pay attention to how they sound, and how they feel. Can you tell the difference between the [p] in "pot" and in "spot"? Try really overemphasizing them. If you are still not sure, try holding a piece of paper in front of your mouth, or speaking at a lit candle. The paper, or the flame, should movewhen you say a word-initial [p] ("pa, pa, pa, pa") and stay still when you say [p] after [s] ("spa, spa, spa, spa"). The two kinds of [p] are really different sounds: one has anadditional puff of air, which is called *aspiration*. Aspirated [p] like you find at the beginning of aword is written as [p], whereas the unaspirated [p] like you find in "spot" is written just asregular old [p]. You can find aspiration with every voiceless stop in English (so, [t] and [k] also). The candle trick also works with "stop" and "top," or "cab" and "scab," for example.)

Now, in English, these are not different phonemes. If you really try, you can get aspiration on a voiceless stop after [s] (try saying [stɒp]) or produce an unaspirated word-initial voiceless stop(try saying [tɒp])—it sounds weird to native speakers, but it does not change the meaning of the word.

There are some languages in which aspiration *is* a phonemic difference, though. For example, the Thai words pai("to go") and pai("danger") constitute a minimal pair which contrasts aspirated and unaspirated [p]. Since the meaning of the word changes depending on which [p] is used, aspiration is a phonemic difference in Thai.

3.Complementary and Contrastive Distribution

Environment: The environment is simply the sounds before and after the ones we are looking at.

Contrastive Distribution: Sounds that are in contrastive distribution can be found in the same environment. The sounds *constrast,* and therefore they are different phonemes.

Complementary Distribution: Sounds that are in complementary distribution are always found in different environments. The two sounds *complement* each other—that is, between them, they cover all possible environments. They are allophones of the same phoneme.

We know that different phonemes can appear in the same surrounding word and create different meanings (minimal pairs). We also know that when there are different allophone variants of a phoneme, the environment determines which one appears (for example, in standard English, [pH] is always pronounced at the beginning of a word, never [p]). We can use this knowledge to determine whether the difference between a pair of sounds is phonemic or allophonic in a given language. If the two sounds can appear in the same environment (that is, with the same surrounding sounds), then they are in *constrastive distribution* and they are different phonemes.On the other hand, if the two sounds *always* appear in different environments—if there is a systematic way to tell when to use one sound and when to use the other—then they are in*complementary distribution* and they are allophones of the same phoneme.

3.**Homonyms**

Homonymy is a type of lexical ambiguity involving two or more different words: Homonymous expressions are phonologically **(homophony)** and orthographically **(homography)** identical but have different meanings and often distinct etymological origins, e.g. *found* ('establish' or 'cast'). Occasionally, homonyms have a common etymological origin, e.g. *meter* ('unit of length' or 'instrument used to measure').

5.**Homophones**

In Greek, the term 'homo' means 'same' and 'phone' means 'sound'. The term 'homophones' is used to designate words which are spelt differently but pronounced alike and which are different in meaning. We have examples of such words in 'red' (colour) and 'read' /red/ (the past tense of the verb 'read' /ri:d/); 'right' and 'write'; 'site' and 'sight'; 'road' and 'rode'; 'flower' and 'flour' and 'led' and 'lead' (metal). The homophones are kept apart by their difference in spelling and there cannot be any ambiguity in the use of homophones in writing.

6.**Homographs**

Sometimes, it is seen that certain forms have more than one meaning and can be understood in more than one way. This leads to ambiguity in language. We have examples of such words in English as 'bank', 'bat' and 'tear' with single spelling and two or more meanings. Such words are generally called homographs.

7.**Syllable**

The syllable is a unit of speech which is at a level higher than the speech sound or phoneme. A word is made up of one or more syllables. In every word made up of one or of more than a

single sound, at least one of the sounds is more prominent than the neighboring sounds. If there is only one prominent sound, such a word consists of only one syllable.

Monosyllabic words:

A word having only one syllable is called mono-syllabic word. Thestructure of monosyllabic words can be as follows:

i. Mono syllabic words having only the vowel (v)   **e.g.** 'I' /ai/ 'eye' /ai/

ii. Monosyllabic words with a vowel+ consonant (v c)   **e.g.** 'Am' / æm /   'up' / ʌp/

iii. Monosyllabic words with consonant + vowel (c v)   **e.g.** 'be' /bi:/'he' /hi:/

iv. Monosyllabic words with consonant + vowel + consonant (c v c)   **e.g.** 'pen /pen/   'come' /kʌm/

Disyllabic words:

Words having two syllables are called disyllabic words.   **e.g.** kindly /kaindli/'pocket' /pɒkit/'market' /ma: kit/

Trisyllabic words:

Words having three syllables are called trisyllabic words.   **e.g.** 'furniture' /fɜ:niʧə/'dictionary' /dikʃənri/'minister' /ministə/

Polysyllabic words:

Words with more than three syllables are called polysyllabic words.   **e.g.** 'examination' /igzæmineiʃn/'Linguistics' /liŋgwistiks/

A syllabic division is marked with a hyphen as follows:

Examination /ig-zæm-i-nei-ʃn/

A syllable can be analyzed in terms of vowels and consonants that constitute it. In the word eye /ai/, there is only a single syllable, and it is a vowel and it constitutes the nucleus of the syllable. In words having both consonants and vowel, usually, the vowel or diphthong is more prominent or sonorous. They are the peaks. The number of syllables are decided by the number of prominence. The most prominent sound in a syllable is said to be syllabic and it is called the nucleus. In the word 'calmer'/ka:mə/, there are two syllables/ka: -mə/. Each syllable in this word begins with a consonant. The consonant with whichthe syllable begins is

called the releasing consonant or onset. The consonant with which the syllable ends is called the arresting consonant or coda. In the word 'bet' there is only one syllable which begins with a consonant /b/ and ends with the consonant /t/. The structure of the syllable is C V C. It begins with a consonant followed by a nucleus /e/ which is a vowel and ends with a consonant. The nucleus which is usually a vowel or a diphthong is the central obligatory element in a syllable. When a syllable does not have a final consonant and ends with a vowel as in 'bee' /bi:/ and 'tea' /ti:/, it is called an open syllable. When a syllable ends in a consonant, it is called a closed syllable.

Syllabic Consonant:

Usually a syllable consists of vowels and consonants. The nucleus of the syllable is normally a vowel or diphthong and the consonants are only marginal elements in a syllable.But there are some syllables in which the consonants function as nucleus. If the consonant in a syllable is a nucleus, it is called a syllabic consonant.

e.g. bottle /bɒtl/cattle /kætl/little /litl/mutton /mʌtn/sudden /sʌdn/

In each of these words the second syllable is a consonant with no vowel and this consonant functions as nucleus in the syllable. The English consonants /l, m, n, r, / sometimes function as syllabic consonants.

II. Supra Segmentals (Prosodic Features)

1.Stress

In words of more than one syllable, all the syllables are not articulated with the same force. Some are uttered with more prominence than others. Those that are uttered with greater force or breath effort and muscular energy are said to be the stressed or accented syllables.

Generally, two stresses are marked: loud or primary and medium or secondary. Syllables which receive the primary stress are marked with a vertical bar ['] above and before the syllable that is stressed. Syllables which receive the secondary stress are marked with a vertical bar [,] below and before the syllable that is stressed e.g.: examination/ig,zæmi'neiʃən /, resignation / ,rezig'neiʃn/.

There are no rules for determining which syllable in a word is to be stressed. Unlike native speakers, it is especially difficult for a non-native speaker to determine the accent on the correct syllable. This is due to the fact that in English words, the accent is both free and fixed. It is free in the sense that it is not associated with a particular syllable in many of the words of English. For e.g.: there are disyllable words in English with accent on the first syllable. There are also disyllable words with accent on the second syllable.

Examples:

Disyllabic words with stress on the first syllable

Lady /'leidi/Enter /'entə(r)/Father/'fɑːðə(r)/Letter /'letə(r)/Pleasure /'pleʒə(r)/

Disyllabic words with stress on the second syllable

Depend /di'pend/About / ə'baut/Forgive /fə'giv/Escape /i'skeip/

Trisyllabic words with stress on the first syllable

Customer /'kʌstəmə(r)/Anywhere /'eniweə(r)/Calculate /'kælkjuleit/

Trisyllabic words with stress on the second syllable

Magnetic/mæg'netik/Recorder /ri'kɔːdə(r)/

Polysyllabic words with different stress patterns

Examination /igzæmi'neiʃn/Establishment /i'stæbliʃmənt/

1.1.Stress Shift in Derivatives

Another difficulty about English word accent is due to shift in the accent, common

in derivatives. There are a number of words in which there is no stress shift in the derivation.

E.g.: Agree / ə'griː/Agreement/ ə'griːmənt/

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

in pronunciation.

Photograph /'f əutəgrɑːf/Photographer/fə'tɒgrəfə(r)/

Politics/'pɒlətiks/Political/pə'litikl/Politician/pɒlə'tiʃn/

Examine /ig'zæmin/Examination/igzæmi'neiʃn /

1.2.Stress in Compound Words

The words which are composed of two or more separate words are called compound words. In

most compound words in English, the primary accent falls on one of the two elements, usually

the first, others have double stress.

e.g.a. Primary syllable on the first.

Tea party /'tiːpɑːti/Birthday /'bɜːθdei/

      b. Primary accent on the second syllable.

[Compound words with ever and self as second element]

Himself /him'self/Whatever /wɒt'evə(r)/

c. Compound words in which both the elements are stressed but primary stress fallson the

second element.

Absent minded /ˌæbsənt'maindid/Bad debt /ˌbæd'det/

There are a number of disyllabic words in English in which word stress depends upon whether

the words are used as nouns, adjectives or verbs. If the words are used as nouns or adjectives,

their stress is on the first syllable and if these are used as verb, the stress is on the second syllable.

Examples:

Word	Noun/Adjective	Verb
Export	/'ekspɔːt/	/iks'pɔːt/
Conduct	/'kɒndʌkt/	/kən'dʌkt/
Contact	/'kɒntækt/	/kɒn'tækt/
Import	/'impɔːt/	/im'pɔːt/
Absent	/'æbsənt/	/æb'sənt/
Perfect	/'pɜːfikt/	/pə'fekt/

Object / 'ɒbdʒikt/ /əb'dʒekt/

1.3.<u>Sentence Stress</u>

Where the word stress is the accent on one syllable in a word, sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence. In English speech, not all words are uttered alike. Some words are stressed, whereas others are not stressed. There is no set rule for determining which word in a sentence is stressed. However as a general rule, words in a sentence are stressed on the basis of whether they are lexical words (content words) or structure words (grammatical words). Lexical words are stressed. Structure words or grammatical words, on the other hand, are semantically insignificant but they indicate grammatical relationship. These words are not usually stressed.

Examples:

'This is the 'house that 'Jack 'built.

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

'Mary 'bought a 'new 'pen.

'Time and 'tide 'waits for no 'man.

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

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

2.<u>Rhythm</u>

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

E.g. This is the dress I like.

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

3.Juncture

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

Other Examples:

/aiskri:m/-> I scream /ai/ / skri:m/ ; ice cream /ais/ /kri:m/

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

4.Pitch and Intonation

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

Intonation refers to significant changes of pitch and stress pertaining to sentences. Falling and rising are the two basic intonation patterns.

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

The pitch moves from high to low [pitch falls]

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

e.g. one, two, three

In listing the items, the last one has fall.

"One, two and three"

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

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

The same sequence of words, for instance, "The lady is beautiful" can be uttered with any of the three intonation patterns. If it is uttered with a falling intonation, the speaker makes a statement. If on the other hand, it is uttered with a rising intonation it becomes as good as questioning the attitude of another person. However, if the same sentence is uttered with a

rising- falling intonation the implication is that there is something wrong about the lady though she is beautiful.

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

[   ] before the syllable on which the pitch of the voice rises.

Functions of Intonation

- **The falling tone:** the falling tone is used in the following contexts.

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

I went to the   party.

I have a lot of   friends.

It is   raining.

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

"He won the prize // as his performance was good"

a)W.H questions take a falling tone when uttered in the normal way i.e. expecting

some information in the reply and sometimes in a cold unfriendly way:

Why are you   late? Where

do you   live? How did you

doit?

b)Commands take a falling tone

'open your   books

'Do as I say

c)Exclamations also take the falling tone

'What a lovely   sight!

'What a fine   day!

d)In tag questions which imply that the speaker is certain about what he/she and justexpects the listener to confirmwhat is said.

Heis well // isn't he //

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

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

- **The Rising tone**

The rising tone is generally used in the following contexts:

16

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

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

b)In listing the items, we use, a rise for each expect the last one as in :

One// two // three // four //

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

Similarly

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

c)In declaration sentences used as questions.

"We will go for a walk?"

You are ready for the test?

d) In "yes/no" questions as in:

Are you dreaming?

Has your friend come?

Have you read the book?

e) In polite requests as in:

Please pass the salt

Please open the door

Will you help me?

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

Why are you late?

Where did you go?

g) In tag questions where the speaker wants the listener to answer the question andgive information.

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

You are coming //aren't you?

- **Fall rise tone**

The use of the fall rise tone indicates that the speaker implies things which arenot explicitly expressed. A fall rise tone gives the impression that the listener shouldunderstand more than a literal interpretation of the words or more than what is said.

For example the sentence "the girl is pretty" is uttered with a fall rise tone as in "theˇgirl is pretty", it implies that she is pretty but she is stupid or there is somethingmorally wrong about her.

5. Assimilation

Assimilation may be defined as the process by which one speech sound is changed to a second, under the influence of a third.

For example in the word income tax /iŋkəmtæks/, the alveolar /n/ changes to the velar /ŋ/ under the influence of the following velar /k/. Leonard Bloom field in his book "Language" points out that in assimilation , the position of the speech agents for the production of one sound is altered to a position more like that of a neighboring sound. The change of /n/ to /ŋ/ in income tax is an example. Here the second syllable of 'income' is reduced in stress so that it becomes /ə/ in /kəm/ instead of /kʌm/. Another example is newsprint /nju:z + print/ becomes /nju:sprint/.

Assimilation may be of three types:

- Progressive
- Regressive
- Reciprocal

a) If the assimilation is the result of a preceding sound influencing the following sound, we have progressive assimilation.

E.g. cats /kæts/;   lamps /læmps/

Dogs /dɒgz/; bags /bægz/

In these examples the plural phoneme 's' or 'es' is manifested as |s| or |z| depending on whether the preceding phoneme is voiced or voiceless.

If the preceding phoneme is voiceless, as the plural phoneme is also manifested as

voiceless i.e. |s| as in lamps /læmps/. If on the other hand, the preceding phoneme is voiced, the plural phoneme is also manifested as voiced i.e. /z/ as in bags.

b) Regressive assimilation is the result of the following sound influencing the preceding one as in ink /Iŋk/. In this word, the alveolar, /n/ is replaced by the velar / ŋ /

under the influence of the following velar sound /k/.

c) In reciprocal assimilation the two sounds influence each other and combine to produce a third sound which is a sort of compromise between the two. The British pronunciation of issue /isju/ is difficult for most Americans and they habitually use the assimilated /iʃu/.

6. Elision

In order to maintain the rhythm of English we have to pronounce the unaccented syllables rapidly and, in doing so, certain sounds, syllables or even words are omitted in continuous speech. The term elision refers to such omissions. Thus the word 'them' which is pronounced

/ðem/ in isolation may be heard as /ðm/ in connected speech. In other words, thevowel in this gets elided.

Other examples:

Cup o' tea (elision of /f/)

After a while /a:ftrəwail/ (elision of /ə /)

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

IPA is a system of phonetic notation composed of symbols and letters. It was devised by the International Phonetic Associationestablished by a group of European Phoneticians to promote the study of phonetics.

In phonetic transcription, each letter represents one sound only. There are two maintypes of phonetic transcription:

i. Phonemic or broad transcription

ii. Phonetic or narrow transcription

In phonemic transcription, allophonic forms are not taken into considerations. Onlythe units which account for meaning difference are considered. For instance, the /p/ in 'pin'is aspirated whereas it is unaspirated in 'spin'. But in phonemic transcription, both arerepresented alike. The allophonic variation is not considered. Oblique lines // enclose phonemic transcription.

In phonetic transcription, allophonic variations, and all the suprasegmental featuressuch as stress and intonation are indicated. Square brackets [ ] enclose phonetictranscription.

Morphology

Morphology is the branch of linguistics which studies the internal structure of words. Words typically have internal structure, and in particular they consist of smaller units called morphemes. For example, the verb-form *takes* consists of two morphemes: the verb-stem *take* and the grammatical ending *-s*. Similarly, the noun *textbook* consists of the morphemes *text* and *book*, and the adverb *slowly* consists of the morphemes *slow* and *-ly*.

➢ **The Morpheme and the Allomorph:**

The morpheme is the smallest theoretical meaningful element in structural language analysis.

The allomorph is the concretely realized variant of a **morpheme**. For example: [s], [z], and [iz] are considered allomorphs of the plural morpheme.(sleeps, grabs, wishes)

If the phonetic form of the allomorph is determined by the phonetic environment then it is a phonologically conditioned allomorph, e.g. in English the past tense marker *-ed* is realized as [d] *(said)* and [t] *(wished).* If, however, there are no phonetic conditions for allomorphic variation, then the allomorphs are morphologically conditioned, e.g. [swɪm] *(swim)* vs [swæm] *(swam).*

Morphology: The Analysis of Word Structure

1. Words and Word Structure: Of all the units of linguistic analysis, the word is the most familiar. As literate speaker of English, we rarely have difficulty segmenting a stream of speech sounds into words or deciding where to leave spaces when writing a sentence. What, though, is a word?

The most reliable defining property of words is that they are the smallest **free forms** found in language. A free form is an element that can occur in isolation and/or whose position with respect to neighbouring elements is not entirely fixed.

2. Morphemes: Like sentences, words have an internal structure consisting of smaller units organized with each other in a particular way. The most important component of word structure is the morpheme, the smallest unit of language that carries information about meaning or function.

➢ Simple / Complex Words: **Simple** words are those which consist of a single morpheme and, therefore, cannot be divided into smaller parts. **Complex** words, however, contain two or more morphemes.

Table 1: Words consisting of one or more morphemes

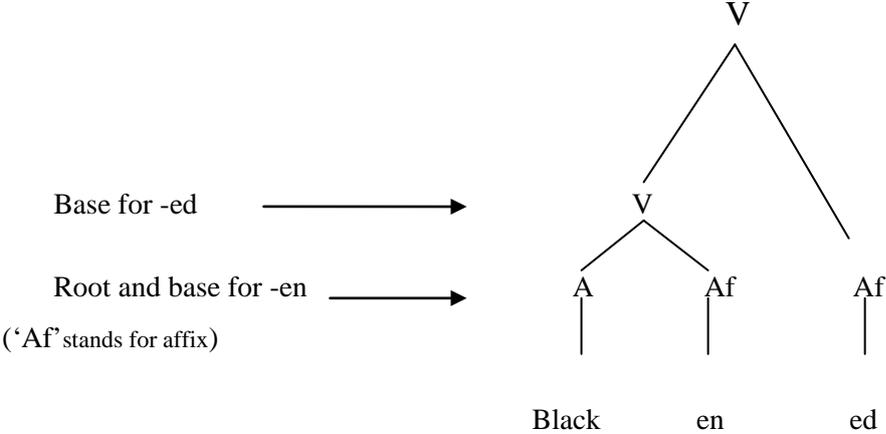| One	Two	Three	More than three
and			
boy	boy-s		
hunt	hunt-er	hunt-er-s	
act	act-ive	act-iv-ate	re-act-iv-ate
man	gentle-man	gentle-man-ly	gentle-man-li-ness

3. Free and Bound Morphemes: A morpheme that can be a word by itself is called **free** while a morpheme that must be attached to another element is said to be **bound**.

In order to represent the internal structure of words, it is necessary not only to identify each of the component morphemes but also to classify these elements in terms of their contribution to the meaning and function of the larger word.

4. Roots and Affixes: Complex words typically consist of a **root** and one or more **affixes**. The root morpheme carries the major component of the word's meaning and belongs to a **lexical category**- noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A), or preposition (P). For now it suffices to note that nouns typically refer to concrete and abstract 'things' (tree, *treatment*) while verbs (*treat*, *teach*) tend to denote actions, adjectives usually name properties (*kind*, *red*), and prepositions (*in*, *near*) encode spatial relations.

Unlike roots, affixes do not belong to a lexical category and are always bound morphemes. A straightforward illustration of this contrast is found I the word *teacher*, which consists of the root *teach*, a verb, and the affix –*er*, a bound morpheme that combines with the root and gives a noun with the meaning 'one who teaches'.

5. Bases: A **base** is the form to which an affix is added. In many cases, the base is also the root. In *books*, for example, the element to which the affix –*s* is added corresponds to the word's root. In other cases, however, an affix can be added to a unit larger than a root. This happens in words such as *blackened*, in which the past tense affix –*ed* is added to the verbal base *blacken* –a unit consisting of the root morpheme *black* and the suffix –*en*.

```
                              V
                             / \
                            /   \
                           /     \
           Base for -ed → V       \
                         / \       \
 Root and base for -en →A   Af      Af
('Af' stands for affix)  |   |       |
                         |   |       |
                       Black en      ed
```

- <u>Problematic cases:</u> Because the vast majority of complex words in English are built from roots (that are free morphemes in that they can be used in other contexts as independent words) English is said to be **word-based**. This notwithstanding, English contains a significant number of words in which the root is not free. For example, *unkempt* seems to consist of the prefix *un-* (with the meaning 'not') and the root *kempt* (meaning 'groomed'), even though *kempt*

22

cannot be used as an independent word. We will assign morphemes such as *kempt* to the special category '**bound root**', which we will reserve for root morphemes that cannot be used as words and therefore do not belong to a conventional lexical category such as noun or verb.

The origin of most bound roots in words such as this is the result of specific events in the history of English. For example, there was once a word *kempt* in English (with the meaning 'combed'), and it was to this base that the affix *un-* was originally attached. At a later point, however, *kempt* disappeared from the language, leaving behind the word *unkempt* in which an affix appears with a bound root.

6. Some Common Morphological Phenomena: Human language makes use of a variety of operations or processes that can modify the structure of a word, either by adding some element to it or by making an internal change in order to express a new meaning or to mark a grammatical contrast (such as past vs. non-past, N vs. V, and so on).

A/ Affixation: The addition of an affix, a process known as **affixation**, is an extremely common morphological process in language. Normally, linguists distinguish among three types of affixes:

➢ An affix that is attached to the front of its base is called a **prefix**. ⎤
➢ An affix that is attached to the end of its base is termed as **suffix**. ⎦ Both types of affix occur in English

➢ An affix that occurs within a base is called an **infix**. A very special type of infixing is found in Arabic, in which a typical root consists simply of three consonants. Affixes consisting of two vowels are then inserted into this root in a manner that

intersperses the vowels among the consonants. (In the examples that follow, the segments of the root are written in bold face.)

Ka**t**a**b**   **k**u**t**i**b**

'write'   'have been written'

B/ Internal Change: Internal change is a process that substitutes one non-morphemic segment for another.

C/ Cliticization: Some words are unable to stand alone as independent forms for phonological reasons. Such elements, called **clitics**, must be attached to another word in the sentence. A good example of this can be found in English, where certain verb forms have reduced variants (*'m* for *am*, *'s* for *is*, and *re* for *are*) that cannot stand alone since they no longer constitute a syllable –a word must minimally contain at least one syllable. Cliticization occurs, attaching these elements to the preceding word.

Clitics that attach to the end of a preceding word are called **enclitics**; those that attach to the beginning of a following word are known as **proclitics**.
The effects of cliticization can bear a superficial resemblance to affixation since in both cases an element that cannot stand alone is attached to a base. The key difference is that –unlike affixes- all the clitics discussed so far are members of a lexical category.

D/ Suppletion: Internal change must also be distinguished from **suppletion**, a morphological process whereby a root morpheme is replaced by a phonologically unrelated form in order to indicate a grammatical contrast. A simple example of this

phenomenon in English is the use of *went* as the past tense form of the verb *go* or *was* as the past tens of *be*.

In some cases, it is hard to distinguish between suppletion and internal change. For example, are the past tenses of think (thought) and seek (sought) the result of suppletion or internal change? Because the initial phoneme of these verbs remains unchanged, we will consider this alternation to involve an extreme form of internal change rather than true suppletion. (However, the term partial suppletion is used by some linguists for these cases.)

E/ Stress and Tone Placement: Sometimes, a base can undergo a change in the placement of stress or tone to reflect a change in its category. In English, for example there are pairs of words in which the verb has stress on the final syllable while the corresponding noun is stressed on the first syllable.

In the language Mono-Bili (spoken in the African country of Zaïre), tone is used to make the distinction between past and future tense. (A high tone is marked by ´ and a low tone is marked by `).

Past		Future	
dá	"spanked"	dà	"will spank"
zí	"ate"	zì	"will eat"
wó	"killed"	wò	"will kill"

As can easily be observed here, high tone is associated with the past tense and low tone with the future.

F/ Reduplication: Yet another common morphological process in certain languages (but not English) is **reduplication**, which duplicates all or part of the base to which it applies to mark a grammatical or semantic contrast. **Full reduplication** is the repetition of the entire word, as in the data from Turkish and Indonesian, respectively:

Base		Reduplicated form	
Turkish			
t abuk	"quickly"	t abuk t abuk	"very quickly"
java	"slowly"	java java	"very slowly"
iji	"well"	iji iji	"very well"
Indonesian			
ora	"man"	ora ora	"all sorts of men"
anak	"child"	anak anak	"all sorts of children"

In contrast, **partial reduplication** copies only part of the word. In the following data from Tagalog, for instance, reduplication affects only the first consonant-vowel sequence of the base.

Base		Reduplicated form	
takbuh	"run"	Tatakbuh	"will run"
lakad	"walk"	lalakad	"will walk"
pili	"choose"	pipili	"will choose"

G/ Compounding: Still another common morphological process in human language involves **compounding**, the combination of lexical categories (nouns, adjectives, verbs, or prepositions) to create a larger word.

The elements making up a compound can all typically occur as independent words elsewhere in the language. In this, compounds differ from words created by either affixation or cliticization.

7- Derivation vs. Inflection:

1/ Derivation: Derivation, which is a type of affixation, forms a word with a meaning and/or category distinct from that of its base through the addition of an affix.

Once formed, derived words become independent lexical items that receive their own entry in a speaker's mental dictionary. As time goes by, they often take on a special sense that is not entirely predictable from the component morphemes: *writer* usually refers to someone who writes for living; *comparable* (with stress on the first syllable) means 'similar' rather than 'able to be compared'; *profession* usually denotes a career rather than the act of professing, and so on.

In the case of *treatment*, for instance, the affix *–ment* combines with the V *treat* to give the N *treatment*. Such an example illustrates an important property of English complex words: the rightmost morpheme is generally the one that determines the category of the entire word. Thus, the word *unkind* is an adjective because *kind* (the rightmost morpheme) is an adjective. In contrast, the word *treatment* is a noun since the rightmost element is the affix –ment, which combines with a V to give an N.

2/ Inflection: Virtually all languages have contrasts such as singular versus plural, and past versus non-past. These contrasts are often marked with the help of **inflection**, the modification of a word's form (through affixation, suppletion, internal change, or one of the other processes described previously) to indicate the grammatical subclass to

which it belongs. (The base to which an inflectional affix is added is sometimes called a **stem**). In the case of English nouns, for example, inflection normally marks the plural subclass by adding the affix –s. In the case of verbs, on the other hand, inflection can mark a distinction between the past and non-past subclasses –usually by adding the suffix –ed to indicate the past tense.

Because inflection applies after the word formation processes discussed before, the plural affix can be added to the output of derivation and compounding, as well as to a simple noun.

Similarly, tense affixes can be attached to the output of derivation and compounding, as well as to simple verbs.

As the preceding examples show, inflection is expressed primarily by means of affixation. Thus, in English the plural is predominantly marked by the suffix –s while the past is generally marked by the suffix –ed.

Because inflection and derivation are both marked by affixation, the distinction between the two can be a subtle one and it is sometimes unclear which function a particular affix has. Three criteria are commonly used to help distinguish between inflectional and derivational affixes:

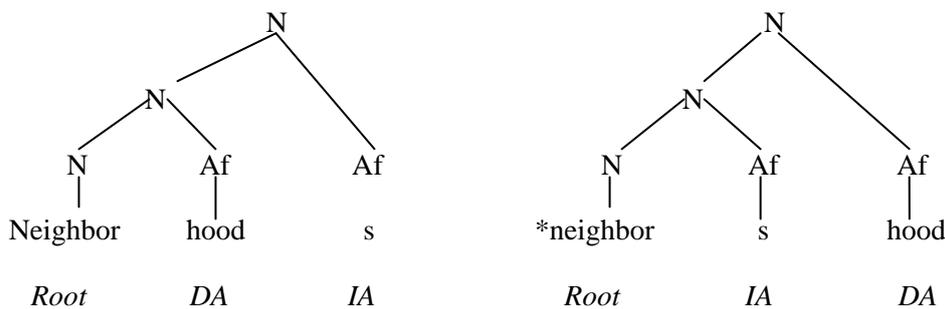> ➤ **Category Change:** First, inflection does not change either the grammatical category or the type of meaning found in the word to which it applies. The form produced by adding the suffix –s (to the N *book*) is still a noun and has the same type of meaning as the base. Even though *books* differs from *book* in referring to several things rather than just one, the type of thing(s) to which it

refers remains the same. Similarly, a past tense suffix such as *–ed* (added to *work*) indicates that the action took place in the past, but it does not change the word's category (which remains a V), nor doesit modify the type of meaning. The verb continues to denote an action regardless of whether the tense is past or non-past.

```
        N                          V
       / \                        / \
      N   Af                     V   Af
      |   |                      |   |
    book  s                    work  ed
```

In contrast, derivational affixes characteristically change the category and/or the type of meaning of the form to which they apply and are therefore said to create a new word.

> **Order:** A second property of inflectional affixes has to do with the order in which they are combined with a base relative to derivational affixes. A derivational affix must combine with the base before an inflectional affix does. (*IA*= inflectional affix; *DA*= derivational affix).

```
              N                                N
            /   \                            /   \
          N      \                         N      \
         / \      \                       / \      \
        N   Af     Af                    N   Af     Af
        |   |      |                     |   |      |
    Neighbor hood   s                *neighbor  s    hood

     Root     DA    IA                 Root     IA    DA
```

> **Productivity:** A third criterion for distinguishing between inflectional and derivational affixes has to do with productivity, the relative freedom with which they can combine with bases of the appropriate category. Inflectional

affixes typically have relatively few exceptions. The suffix –s, for example,

can combine with virtually any noun that allows a plural form (apart from few

exceptions). In contrast, derivational affixes characteristically apply to

restricted classes of bases. Thus, *-ize* can combine with only certain adjectives

to form a verb: modern-ize   *new-ize

                         legal-ize   *lawful-ize

                         priorit-ize   *first-ize