

PREFACE

In the curricular structure introduced by the University for the students of Post Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue post Graduate course in a subject is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation. I am happy to note that this University has been recently accredited by National Assessment and Accreditation Council of India (NAAC) with grade 'A'.

Keeping this in view, the study materials of the Post Graduate level in different subjects are prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis.

The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholarship is indispensable for a work on this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of a proper layout of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an all-out involvement in layout of the materials and an involvement in 'invisible teaching', as well. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other.

The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier will it be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms throughout the counseling sessions regularly available at the network of study centers set up by the University.

Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts is still experimental-in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned.

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**PGELT 04
Core Course**

Course Code: PGEL-O4 (Core Course)

Course Title: Introduction to Linguistics

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PGEL-O4
Introduction to Linguistics

Module 1 : Principles of Language and Linguistics as Science-1

Unit 1 □ What is Language?

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Language- How did it come into existence
- 1.4 Language and Speech
- 1.5 Language as a system
- 1.6 Functions of Language
- 1.7 Definitions of Language
- 1.8 Language Use
- 1.9 Summary
- 1.10 Review Questions
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1.1 Introduction

Language is a finished product of organized combination of sounds in relation to the kind of object they refer to in a given situation. These sound systems and their combination, to produce a word or set of words into a phrase or a sentence, vary from one language to another. Humans possess certain physical features that have enabled them develop the capacity for speech, unlike, apes and/or other primates, who have social calls and grunts but, cannot produce speech. Human speech is unique to the species Homo sapiens.

1.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit the learners would be able to

- ❖ Understand the nature of language
- ❖ Compare and contrast the various forms of language
- ❖ Analyse a context and identify the purpose of language use
- ❖ Apply acquired knowledge in their own situations

1.3 Language : How did it came into existence?

Looking at the following images what idea/s strikes you?



<https://images.app.goo.gl/jpPWGnHTJpkdP1k6>

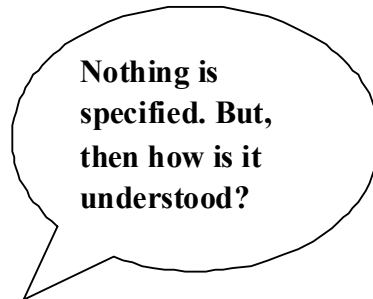
Fig 1.0



<http://images.app.goo.gl/TxN9PepsiQ6CCTxJ9>

Fig: 1.1

You have guessed it right. But, how did you get the things right or even how do others get a feel of your answers as acceptable one? Nothing is mentioned thereof yet, while communication took place. Figure 1.0 indicates that some exchange of information and/or ideas is going between two persons and that, they take place face-to-face. Nothing has been specified but some meanings are created. Figure 1.1 is indicative of a civilization that existed at a particular age and time. Even without the knowledge of the particularity of the civilization one can assume that the figure talks of some civilization that existed in some remote past. Thus, these figures are symbols and a sign which creates meaning to a reader and becomes a language of communication.



Ordering of speech sounds in an acceptable order gives rise to form phrases which further create a synergy to construct a final sentence. Language at this is the creation of an abstract system at the surface structure until it becomes a text and reaches to a reader when some interaction with the system takes place and meaning and/or interpretations are created; interpretations may vary from reader to reader which may not be or perhaps, will not be, alike to that of the original work (or ideas) of the writer. We then understand that there is a play of certain factors and their interrelation enables one to understand that an amount of information has been shared between people, or that conveyed by images. This conveying of information is what we generally term as the role of language in the creation of meaning from the exchanges of information between two or more people or the respective meaning created and/or interpreted from any image by individuals in a given context.

Task 1: How would it have been if there was no communication and hence, no language at all?

Pause and think :

1. Do you think language has a role in the progress of human civilization? Support your view.

Your views:

Ask any professional speaker or a writer, and they will confirm that language matters. Even in our day-to-day life we understand the relevance of language through various effects that it leaves on us at many crossroads of life. Vast stores of memorable lines from great speakers, orators and writers have left an indelible mark in our lives and/or guide us in many cases. Look at the following quotes:

"Education is the manifestation of perfection already in man." Swami Vivekananda

"The only thing we have to fear is fear itself." Franklin Delano Roosevelt

How was the meaning created from the words which were mere signs and how did their philosophies influence us? Think of the famous speech by Swami Vivekananda that moulded the people of all religions gathered in Chicago or think of any speeches that may have influenced your action. Such is the effect of language on us.

According to most religious beliefs, there appears to be a divine source that provides human with the gift of language to express themselves. On the other hand, studies reveal that spoken language developed between 100,000 and 50,000 years ago, much before the written language came into existence (5000 years ago). They remain, however, speculations. No direct evidence or artefacts can be found in relation to the origins of human speech of our distant ancestors.

A quite interesting view of the beginnings of language could be traced back to the use of natural sounds by our ancestors to communicate with each other. Originally, they moved in smaller groups and supposedly, required limited number of signals (through sounds) for communication. These sounds may have represented various kinds of emotion and presumably, interjections like Ah!, Ooh!, Yuck! etc. or making a caw-caw sound looking at a flying creature, may have been the root cause of speech production in courses of time.

1.4 Language and Speech

Before we proceed further, we need to make our understanding clear in relation to the use of the terms "language" and "speech". "Language" is the method to use the words in a structured way to create meaning from the interactions that take place between two or more people or between a person and the environment (or object) at a given place, and certain point of time. It is a human phenomenon that includes the entire human potential for speech and writing, both at mental and physical levels. Dictionary defines "Speech" as the ability to express thoughts and feelings by articulating sounds by using certain body mechanisms. It is the ability to speak and express one's thoughts.

With the increase of groups their needs and activities also increased and thus, gradually the system of sounds (signals) became more complex. The need for vocal signals and man's instinctive response to external stimuli was realized. There are several speculations about the origin of language though, much could not be known about the origin of human language because of the absence of direct physical evidence.

1.5 Language as a system

Scientists have pointed out that language is connected with human brain. All the physical parts that enable sound production are in control of the human brain. The brain is divided into two parts - right and left hemispheres. Each of the two hemispheres have specialized functions. Functions that control motor movements in activities like speaking or using tools are largely left-hemisphere function. Language is a product of the process of evolution of a child's linguistic ability irrespective of whether the child is acquiring Bengali, Hindi or English language system. 'Bengali', 'Hindi' or 'English' are the various labels used to refer to abstractions. The actual manifestation of language that we see or hear in terms of individual utterances (or speaking) is called parole. And, the abstract system behind the manifestation shared by people in a society is called the langue. The abstract system does not exist all by itself but, is rather constructed from its manifestations. These manifestations take place through signs that could be spoken or written. Language as a system is exhibited by two types of relationships - linear arrangement or syntagmatic and vertical or paradigmatic arrangement.

Syntagmatic arrangement is the single horizontal arrangement of sounds, letters, words, phrases, sentences. Paradigmatic arrangement is the vertical arrangement of sounds, letters, words etc. Word-classes like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs form paradigms. However, it is not just a logical system but is also a psychological and social phenomenon. And, the meanings of an utterance (sentence, clause, phrase, word) do not depend entirely on its form but also on its function in a setting or context. The nature of this functioning in a setting is crucial in our understanding of language and its use. Various factors influence the use of language and its creation of meaning applicable in the concept of 'setting' for language use. 'Setting' in this sense could imply:

- ❖ Relationship of participants -between the speaker/s and the hearer/s, occupation, gender and the societal hierarchy associated with relationships,
- ❖ Participation mode - face-to-face, telephone, interview, group or individual, group type and group size,
- ❖ Role of participants,
- ❖ Location or setting - office, classroom, home, social event or gathering,
- ❖ Medium - spoken or written,

- ❖ Kind of discourse - political speech, reporting, conversation,
- ❖ Socio-cultural background,
- ❖ Individual differences - beliefs, world knowledge,
- ❖ Linguistic abilities - for comprehension and understanding of heard sentences or reading the written ones,
- ❖ Psychological factors.

The concept of language embeds in itself:

- ❖ A purpose,
- ❖ Takes place in a given situation,
- ❖ Two or more people participate,
- ❖ Could be sign languages (Verbal/Non-verbal),
- ❖ Could be images,
- ❖ 'What' of language (language content),
- ❖ 'How' of language (way of articulation).

1.6 Functions of Language

We will now quickly take a look through the basic functions of language. According to Geoffrey Leech (1974), there are five main functions of Language. These functions are:

- ❖ Informal functions, i.e., deliver messages, provide new information to the listeners, describe things,
- ❖ Expressive functions, i.e., expresses desires and feelings but do not give any new information,
- ❖ Directive functions, i.e., induce actions and reactions,
- ❖ Affective functions, i.e., power to influence others, and
- ❖ Phatic functions, i.e., maintain social relationships, begin or continue a conversation (desire to talk).

The question that now arises is how meanings are assigned to words that are used in a language. To answer this, let us derive it deductively. Words consist of sounds (used orally in activities like speaking) and shapes (or signs and symbols) used in writing and the agreed-upon interdependence create meanings based in concepts,

ideas. Again, this creation of meaning could be at two levels - denotative and connotative. Here, on a brief note, denotative means specific meaning associated with a word. E.g. the word 'evidence' has a meaning of its own. It means available facts or information which may be true or false. It does not signify any array of meanings. And, the term connotative means an idea suggested by or associated with a word. For example; the word 'class' can evoke many other ideas. It can reflect an array of signifiers, viz. a classroom, or social stratum, set or category and so on. In the context of post-structuralism, creation of meaning is not the sole jurisdiction of the speaker or the writer. The speaker or the writer arranges the signs and shapes and composes from their perspective and understanding of a situation while those who listen or read are significantly important in the creation of meaning of the piece of written text or verbal positioning of words.

Language finds its expression in different ways: oral, written, audio-visual, non-verbal or Para language expressions and so on. Based on public or private setting meaning is created and/or derived. It thus talks of socio-cultural backdrop against which the language comes into play and exists. Sociolinguistics and Sociology of language are two different concepts in this regard. The focus of the two is different. The former is defined as the study of language in relation to society and the latter is defined as the study of society in relation to language.

1.7 Definitions of Language

To define language in concrete terms would, perhaps, be a folly. The concept of language is a composite of many inbuilt sub-domains like signs, symbols, syntactic structures, semantic notions, words or gestures or the psychological, cultural perspectives and so on. It cannot be confined to a single definition nor could all the inherent domains be distinctly capsulated in a single definition. Language could be implying vocal or auditory or para-lingual or written means of expression of human behaviour. Language has life and is in a state of flux. It is in a state of continuous growth because the form of language or the response to a language that existed so long preceded the establishment of a new direction of thought and action. Expectantly, the future of the language form that exists today will likewise have newer dimensions.

Consider the following epoch-making definitions of language in the context of their era:

Aristotle's (384 BC) definition of language in the words of Richard McKeon (1946, 193-206),

"...on the background of these considerations of language as natural phenomenon and language as rational instrument, Aristotle analyses the arts of language in terms of symbolic properties and linguistic structures. Logic, rhetoric and poetic are none of them purely "verbal arts" in Aristotle's philosophy; are based on the natural properties of words, which are determined by physiological organs and physical medium, as well as on the conventional meanings which are determined by human reason and desire. They take into account the purposes for which men use language as reflected in the intentions of the speaker, the susceptibilities of the audience addressed, and the nature of the communications for which it serves as medium, and they treat. Finally, of discourse in its various forms and relative to its proper parts. Language, as a natural phenomenon, is part of the subject matter of the sciences - theoretic, practical and productive."

Noam Chomsky's definition of language (20th C)

Language as conceived of by Chomsky is "a finite set with infinite possibilities" (Chomsky 1957:13). As he further claims, this holds true for all-natural languages since they have "a finite number of phonemes (or letters in its alphabet) and each sentence is representable as a finite sequence of these phonemes (or letters)" (ibid, 13). Thus, a grammar of a language should be thought of as "a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis" (ibid, 13).

Saussure's definition of language (19th C)

Saussure defines language as a structured system of signs and examines the relationship between speech and evolution of language because language, as he says, is the social manifestation of speech and it evolves from the activity of speech. Language is considered to be a connecting link between human thought and sound and is expressed (spoken language) by means of sound. In order to be expressed in an organized pattern sounds have to be articulated for the language to occur and this requires the patterning of sounds in terms of some structure. This structure could be constituted as an abstract system of rules called *langue* and the expressions of thought or speech acts (the activity of speaking) or articulation of signs by writing called *parole*.

Saussure further contended that language must be considered as a social phenomenon, a structured system that can be viewed synchronically (as it exists at any particular time) and diachronically (as it changes in the course of time). Further, language is not only a logical system: it is as much psychological as social because it operates in a situation at a given point of time to effectuate a purpose. It is thus context bound. In our next section we will take a quick look through the concept that language is context bound.

Task 2

In this unit, we briefly discussed the notions of language and some definitions by linguists and scholars followed by a conceptual framework on language and context.

1. Look at the definitions of language in section 1.7. What differences do you notice in the definitions of language provided by the linguists and scholars?
2. Based on your understanding of the definitions covered in this unit, can you write the definition of language of your own and language functioning in a context?

Your response:

1.8 Language Use

Language is context bound

Can you think of some situations or contexts where you use the language as in the:

I. Scope of formal or semi-formal approach

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

II. Scope of informal approach

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Now, having identified the situations above can you analyse the reasons that made you use the same language in different ways (formal or informal) and what is the need for doing so? State at least three reasons for your choices made above (for both I and II) in the space given below:

Reasons for formal or semi-formal approach

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

Reasons for informal approach

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

We, now, fairly understand that language does not exist on its own. It needs a context or a situation to function as a form or as a response to the situation under which it operates. In this, it needs to be mentioned that the concept of language and its process of creation of meaning have also been changing with the changing time and civilization and its needs. What do we understand by 'context' of a language then? Let us therefore examine in some more detail how the notion of context of a language has been used. Language is the medium to express one's thoughts and feelings in a situation within a society and its agreed norms where the language would function. The very notion of 'context' suggests its relation to text, discourse and language use. Again, the 'context' could also refer to the 'linguistic context' also known as 'co-text', the 'physical context' or the 'social context' of the word, the sentences or the symbols used in a text or a discourse. The communicative and symbolic functions of language variation and use are fundamental to the understanding of human linguistic production and comprehension.

Think of the word 'bank'. It is a homonym with more than one meaning:

- a) the land alongside or sloping down to a river or lake (as noun).
- b) heap (a substance) into a mass or mound (as verb).
- c) tilt or cause to tilt sideways in making a turn (as verb)

It is, thus, the linguistic context (co-text) of the word. What then is the physical context and how do we interpret or make meaning out of the sign or word?

If the same word 'bank' is written on the wall of a building, the physical location will influence our interpretation. The relevant context is our mental representation of those aspects of a thing which exists physically and that which we use in deriving a meaning or interpreting it. This becomes the physical context of a word. And, social

context is the situation, at a particular time and place and with reference to the cultural belief, traditions and acceptable code of a specific community where we encounter linguistic expressions. Compare the concepts of Karnataka Bank to that of Bank of Maharashtra. They abide by RBI rules no doubt but, 'Maharashtra' and 'Karnataka' have some of their associated images which get involved in our interpretations.

While trying to understand the notion of 'context' a brief focus on the much prided theory of context; Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) founded by M. A. K. Halliday is also essential. SFL studies language through its meaning or its function. For Halliday, language is not to be studied in terms of deep structure but, according to the actual sentences used for functional purposes. He was more interested in understanding the (writer's) purpose in writing the sentence. Contrarily, Chomsky was way ahead and was more interested into why the structure of a language exists the way it is. In short, Chomsky considered form (structure) as independent of function and meaning, whereas, Halliday believed that function and meaning helps shape the form (structure) of a language. In the other case, i.e. in oral communication, there are aspects of meaning that depend more on context and the communicative intentions used by speakers which shapes the form of the content. It is not solely based on the words or context but, also on the body language used (or produced) during (oral) communication. Our understanding of what we read or hear could also have a bearing of some pre-existing knowledge of the sign that the writer/speaker intends to communicate or be communicated from their reading or listening of the sign/s or word/s. Thus, we can understand the influence of 'context' and functioning of language in a context.

1.9 Summary

Humankind is blessed with the gift of expressing through language and all other species also have their ways of communication. This leads us to the ideation of how are these two terms related to each other or, are they inclusive or exclusive of each other? Does language/communication function only through spoken medium? There are myriads of such age-old questions and curiosities to understand if the expression of language is a biological process or psychological or social. Associated with it are investigations on how and when were language and/or communication initiated on earth. All of these are cooperation networks and how do they function in a given society and how are meanings and responses created or have sustained through the ages or will they continue doing so? The unit attempts to look into some of these

aspects with an analytical perspective and understand their functioning vis-à-vis-à-vis related determinants. As a reader you can pause and think on your own while reading, understand in your respective situation/s in accordance to your experiences gathered and actively participate in further development of ideas and raise questions that research aims at.

1.10 Review Questions

Look at the following images and think critically on the questions that follow:



(A)(B)

Discussion Topics:

1. What does the sign (A) mean?
 - i. You may park your heated attendant here.
 - ii. Parking will be carried out by an attendant who has been heated.
 - iii. The garage is heated and parking is available.
 - iv. Heated area with attendant.
 - v. You may park here, an attendant is available and the parking garage is heated.
2. The meaning (sense) of a word is:
 - i. What it refers to?
 - ii. What it sounds like?

- iii. What it connotes?
- iv. What it co-occurs with?
- v. None of the above.
3. What are your views on how language originated?
4. Why do languages have different words in different languages for the same object?
5. What are the problems one faces in defining a language?
6. What are different aspects of language?
7. How do we understand Parole and Langue as opposed to Competence and Performance?
8. What are language functions?
9. What are other possible means of communication without using language?
10. Do you believe language is a divine gift to the human beings?

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Unit 2 □ Origin and Development of Language

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Objectives

2.3 Origin of Language

2.3.1 Nature and Natural Sounds

2.3.2 Neanderthal

2.3.3 Adaptations

2.4 Human Speech Mechanism

2.4.1 Air-stream Mechanisms

2.5 Speech Sounds in English Language

2.6 Segmentals and Supra-segmentals

2.7 Summary

2.8 Review Questions

2.9 References and Reading List

2.1 Introduction

In the previous unit, we saw how the concepts of language have evolved over the years. In this unit, we will know about the origin of language and how it has shaped human civilization based on our knowledge of the surroundings. In this unit, we will also learn some concepts used in language learning and language use.

2.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit learners would be able to

- ❖ Understand the probable sources of origin of human speech production,
- ❖ Develop an understanding of human speech mechanism to identify the process,
- ❖ Be familiar with the basic terms associated in the study of actual speech utterance,
- ❖ Enable the learners to estimate the need for the teaching of correct pronunciation.

2.3 Origin of Language

Human beings, unlike the other species, have the ability to use language for the purpose of communication in the society. In this it would be interesting to know how the human capacity for speech originated. Speech is a set of sound signals used via a language (the whole system) of a speech community.

Peter F MacNeilage of the Department of Psychology in the University of Texas (1988), in one of his research works, has mentioned the mammalian activities like chewing, licking and sucking. In this unit, we will consider some of those speculations about the sources of human speech.

2.3.1 Nature and the natural sounds

As we all know, human civilization goes back to two million years when the primitive humans lived only on hunting and gathering. They could not speak or write at that time. But, how did they communicate then, specially, when these nomadic tribes shared spaces with other predators and larger animals. The suggestion is that the primitive men could have created alerts or tried to communicate with each other by means of imitating the sounds that they possibly heard in and around their surroundings. For example, the sounds created by the birds that flew or the snakes or the animals that existed at that point of time to refer to that kind of object. These were the naturally occurring sounds which the primitive men tried to echo and used it to refer to the thing (creature/animal) associated with the sound. This fact that 'all modern languages are production of combination of sounds' seems to support the above theory. This type of view has been called the 'Bow-Wow' theory (of origin of speech). Or, maybe so, it is true that the onomatopoeic words (word that phonetically imitates, resembles, or suggests the sound that it describes) simply echoed natural sounds. On a similar note, from the 'Yo-he-ho' theory we find human noises as another probable source of the origin of human speech. The idea is that in situations that involved several people and it required coordination, say, in lifting and carrying large logs of trees and so on, human sounds that were produced might have had some principled use as they were used within their social life (context) may have developed the capacity for speech.

2.3.2 Neanderthal

A speculative theory that states human language emerged from instinctive noises made by humans during physical exertion or while involved in collective rhythmic

labour. They are archaic humans or 'archetypal caveman' with physical features distinct from other creatures that lived in Asia and Africa and were replaced, perhaps, around 24,000 years ago by early modern human population. The name Neanderthal is derived from the German Neanderthal or Neander Valley where the fossils of archaic humans were first found. They were characterised by a transition to an upright posture, reconstructed vocal tract, bi-pedal locomotion which are best thought of as partial adaptations and could be thought of as clues that a creature with the features mentioned above has the capacity for speech or may appear to be relevant for speech. However, these do not justify with cent percent accuracy that, they have led to speech production.

Again, the positioning of human teeth, unlike those of apes, are better adapted for grinding and chewing and are helpful in making fricative sounds. Likewise, the closeness of the upper and lower lips and the resulting sounds so produced from their stricture are the bilabial sounds. Smaller, thicker or more muscular tongue or lips and upright positioning of teeth are used to shape a variety of sounds inside the oral cavity in the course of human speech production.

Similarly, the larynx or human 'voice box' differ significantly from other primates like monkeys. It is considered advantageous in getting extra vocal power. The upright posture of humans moved the head above the spinal cord which led to the lowering of the larynx and creation of a greater cavity called pharynx, above the vocal cords, which enables increased range and clarity of sounds that are produced via the larynx. The human brain is lateralized and is specialized into two hemispheres - left and right - of which the motor movements that are involved in speaking or writing are largely activated by the left hemisphere in most cases. Human brain which is larger than human body is potentially involved in sound production. Language in any of its forms, including the sign language, requires combining and organizing of sounds or signs in specific order or arrangement which is done by the human brain, unlike other primates. A part of our brain could be developed and/or utilized in making these combinations and arrangements. Thus, in our understanding of the evolution of speech production, we find that these physical features might have proved potentially advantageous.

2.3.3. Adaptations

The stages of physical development of a baby and the changes that take place both physically and in accordance, mentally have led the scholars over time to look beyond the physical adaptations of speech production. The first year of a child shows physical developments at a much faster rate. Physical development leads to the development of motor skills and the brain that helps babies learn to take control of

their body movements like grasping object, holding hands, standing or sitting or roll over or see and recognize faces of its mother and/or people around it. The baby gradually starts babbling. The changes - biological, psychological, and social, occurring at this time (as well as throughout the rest of the life span) are interrelated. All these seem to point that the origin of speech production or the language capacity could be hard-wired in the new born, in human genetics because it is only the human offspring that are born with a special capacity for learning language.

Task 1 Match the two columns

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 1. All modern languages are production of combination of sounds. | a) Adaptations |
| 2. Human offsprings are born with a special capacity for learning language. | b) Bow-Wow Theory |
| 3. Human language emerged from instinctive noises made by humans during physical exertion. | c) Yo-he-ho Theory |
| 4. Human sounds used within their social life (context) developed the capacity for speech. | d) Speculative Theory |

Your answer:

We will now take a look through the speech process and its different stages or mechanisms that will enable you to become familiarize with human speech mechanism. Let us revise on a few topics from Paper 3.

2.4 Human speech mechanism

For the purpose of speech production, head to abdomen work in coordination. Three groups of bodily organs are used for the purpose and are categorised under three systems:

1. Respiratory system - organs used in this system lies in the trunk viz. lungs, trachea (wind pipe), and the bronchial tubes.
2. Phonatory system - organ group used in this system lies in the throat viz. larynx (voice box), the front part of which can be seen in adult males as the Adam's apple. The larynx contains the vocal cords and the vocal folds. The opening of the vocal folds is known as the glottis. The vocal cords by dint of their action can cause to

happen a number of different states of glottis viz. Open state (voiceless sounds like /p/, /t/, /k/ are created at this state), Vibration state (produces voiced sounds like /b/, /d/, /g/ /z/, /m/, /n/, /r/ etc.), Closed state (produces sounds called 'glottal stop' for example, that occur for hiccups, coughs) and Narrowed state (produces soft hissing noise or whispering sounds).

3. Articulatory system - organ group used in this system lies in the head and controlled by the central nervous system viz. nose, lips, mouth (teeth, tongue) and ears as receptors.

These three systems work together as a unified whole to produce speech. It includes a complicated series of events that take place. First, the speaker formulates a concept or idea in the brain (Psychological stage), the idea is then transmitted to the nervous system that transmits the concept (message) to the "the organs of speech" (see the figure below) of the speaker. This initiates some movements to produce sound patterns (Articulatory or physiological stage). This movement of organs of speech creates a commotion or disturbances in the air (Physical or acoustic stage) and leads to the end processes. The listener at this stage perceives vibrations in the air in their ear drum (Auditing) and final cognition of the message or concept formulated by the speaker (Decoding of the sounds).

Task 2

Complete the following sentences.

- a) A concept or an idea is formulated in the stage.
- b) The movements initiating sound patterns are in stage.
- c) Commotion or disturbances in the air occur in stage.

Thus, we find that air plays an important role in the production of speech because it either pushes out or pulls in air to produce sound. And, speech is the phonetic combination of vowel and consonant sounds and sounds are produced by vibrations caused in the air. We will now learn about air-stream mechanisms that are used in human speech production.

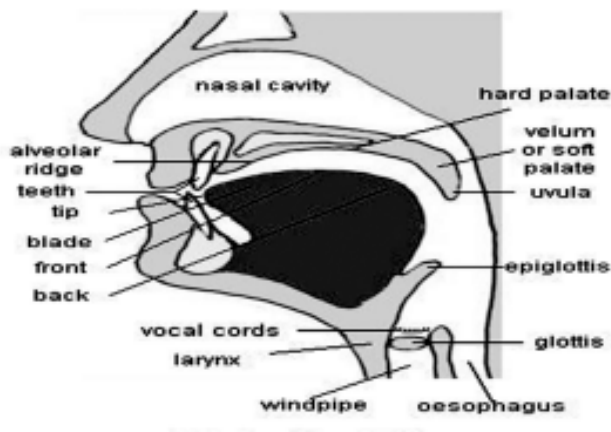


Figure 1

Organs of speech

[Source: English Phonetics; ilovephonetics.blogspot.com]

2.4.1 Air-stream mechanisms

Three main types of air-streams are in use in human speech production. All three are used to push air out (egressive mechanism) or pull in air (ingressive mechanism). The three air stream mechanisms are:

1. Pulmonic air-stream mechanism - it consists of the lungs and respiratory muscles that move the walls of the lungs so that air is either drawn into the lungs or pushed out. To utter the sounds of English it is the pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism which is used.
2. Glottalic air-stream mechanism - the larynx, with the glottis firmly closed, is the initiator of ingressive or egressive air-stream. In Sindhi language some sounds are produced with the help of glottalic air-stream.
3. Velaric air-stream mechanism - The back part of the tongue is the initiator which is lifted up so that it comes in contact with the soft palate (velum). The Zulu language of Africa uses this velaric air-stream mechanism to produce sounds referred as 'clicks'. This air-stream mechanism is also used in smoking.

2.5 Speech Sounds in English Language

There are a variety of differences in the way we use English both in terms of rules of grammar and its usage. Again, English is spoken as a native language, or as a

foreign language or as a second language across the world. Here, we would confine our understandings in the context of use of English as a second language within India. Well, for your knowledge, English is used as a first (native) language in the U K, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand whereas, in India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan or Nigeria English is used as a second language. Here, again it is to be understood that English has a variety of spoken versions. Not that it is possible to know and speak in all the versions. Hence, one such version has been accepted as the standard parameter in non-native English-speaking countries and the phonetic codes could be easily available in dictionaries, books and internet. This accepted standard of English is the one spoken by the British speakers in the South of England. The pronunciation standard and phonetic code used in this part is called the Received Pronunciation (RP). By “pronunciation”, it refers to the sound system, word accent, rhythm and intonation. In our further discussions and descriptions, we would consider RP as the model for the purpose of our understanding of phonetics or learning and teaching of English. Let me propose to describe this variety in some detail.

To transcribe English (RP), there is no one-to-one correspondence between the sounds and the letters of the English alphabet. For the purpose mentioned, we will follow the symbols explained in The Principles of International Phonetic Association. These symbols are known to us as the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) where one symbol represents only one sound and it can be used to transcribe the sounds of any language. Contrarily, the Hindi language is written in the same way it is pronounced. According to the IPA, 26 letters of English alphabet represent 44 sounds or phonemes in the Received Pronunciation (South of England). However, it is to be noted that, in the present situation, the use of English is not confined to RP and its standards; instead, 'world Englishes' has found its way in the regular mode and usage of communication.

Note:

Transcriptions could be phonemic or broad and phonetic or narrow. E.g.: Phonemic transcription of the word 'lot' is /lɒt/- i.e. the interpretation of sounds; and a phonetic transcription is [lɒwt] - i.e. how sounds are pronounced.

Of the 44 sounds, 24 are consonant sounds, 12 are vowel sounds and 8 are diphthongs (combination of two vowel sounds where one vowel sound glide into another). Take a look at the following phonemic chart:

I: SEE	I SIT	ʊ BOOK	u: TOO	Iə HERE	eɪ DAY		
e MEN	ə AMERICA	ɜ: WORD	ɔ: SOFT	ʊə TOUR	ɔɪ BOY	əʊ OO	
æ CAT	ʌ BUT	ɑ: PART	ɒ NOT	eə WEAR	aɪ MY	aʊ HOW	
p PIG	b BED	t TIME	d DO	tʃ CHURCH	dʒ JUDGE	k KILO	g GO
f FIVE	v VERY	θ THINK	ð THE	s SIX	z ZOO	ʃ SHORT	ʒ CASUAL
m MILK	n NO	ŋ SING	h HELLO	l LIVE	r READ	w WINDOW	j YES

[Source: <https://www.esl-lounge.com/student/extra/phonetic-chart.php>]

The branch of linguistics that deals with the study of speech sounds is called Phonetics, which could be sub-divided into articulatory phonetics (speech production), acoustics phonetics (sound waves and transmission) and auditory phonetics (reception and perception of sounds). Now, the next thought that, desirably, should guide us is which are the speech organs that help in articulation? Well, we need to understand that certain parts of speech organs play their respective roles to enable the process of articulation. These parts are distinctly classified as under:

- ❖ Resonating cavities or chambers - oral, nasal and pharyngeal chambers,
- ❖ Articulators - the lower lip, the tongue, the uvula and the lower jaw,
- ❖ Points of articulation - the upper lip, the upper teeth, the alveolar ridge, the palate and the velum.

Furthermore, we can classify the articulators as active articulators and passive articulators. The lips, the various parts of the tongue and the vocal cords are the active articulators whereas, the upper front teeth, parts of mouth (like hard palate, soft palate) are considered as the passive articulators. However, in some cases, the soft palate could also function as an active articulator.

Task 3: Write the IPA symbol for the word initial consonant or vowel sound.

- a. illuminate
- b. tender
- c. cat
- d. city

- e. auto
- f. other
- g. eight
- h. thanks

Your answer:

2.6 Segmentals and Supra-segmentals

In phonetics, we come across these two terms called Segmentals and Supra-segmentals. These are speech features imposed on utterance of speech. Vowels, Consonants and Diphthongs are considered as the segments of speech that together enable the utterance. The features like word stress, intonation, juncture, rhythm that occur in a continuous speech occurrence are termed as the supra-segmental features or the prosodic features.

2.7 Summary

Humankind is gifted with a system called language through which they express themselves. Non-humans also have their ways of communication. It arouses our natural curiosity to dig into the sources from historical records and other evidences as to how and when this system called 'language' originated or, the process of communication begun. It is to be remembered here that language and communication, though embedded, are not same and similar concepts. It is equally interesting to understand how the system ('language') works through the biological functioning wings to enable the process a proper and desired outcome. The present unit has attempted to have a basic understanding on these parameters so mentioned. It also undertakes to provide an insight into the various features associated in the process and how language and sound connect (or, disconnect) in effectuating speech mechanism, which is different in different (Bengali/Hindi/English/Tamil etc.) language systems. The unit also urges its readers to study them in details from other sources for better and more refined understanding.

2.8 Review Questions

1. From your reading of the text, what kind of evidence do you think is used to support the idea that language originated from certain natural sounds?
2. What is your understanding of the need for air stream mechanism in human speech production?
3. What is meant by a standard or an accepted code in using a language?
4. What are the differences between the concepts 'native language' and a 'non-

native language'?

Would that make any influence/s in the learning and teaching of a language?

5. Do you agree if it is said that various shades of meaning are created and/or conveyed by intonation? Suffice with examples from your experiences.
6. Can you think of a few sentences in two different systems (or, languages) of your choice and identify the different features and their positions in the sentence? Find out how the communication would vary if the positions are changed in the two different systems?
7. Identify the sound differences while uttering a word in English language and check the vernacular influence in your respective case. Verify the native sound uttered for the word.
8. Let us look at our names. Identify the sounds involved in the name - vowel sound, consonant sound or a diphthong as the case may be.
9. By now you have identified the sounds in your name. Can you transcribe them by using the respective symbol of the sound/s involved?
10. How do you think society and language relate to each other? Pen them from your experiences in a classroom situation or any professional set-up.

2.9 References and Reading List

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Unit 3 □ Language Design Features

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Objectives

3.3 Language - the system of communication

3.4 Features of Language

3.4.1 Arbitrariness

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3.7.8 Productivity

3.4.9 Vocal-Auditory Channel

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3.4.11 Broadcast transmission and Directional reception

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3.4.13 Total Feedback

3.5 Human Language

3.6 Uniqueness of Human Language

3.7 Summary

3.8 Review Questions

3.9 References and Reading List

3.1 Introduction

In the previous unit we have discussed nature of language, its origin and speech mechanisms. There are many perceived notions on the nature of language. In this unit, we will discuss some more features of the language. To be more specific, this

unit will deal with the feature analysis of language as conducted by Charles Francis Hockett, the linguist and anthropologist, in 1960.

3.2 Objectives

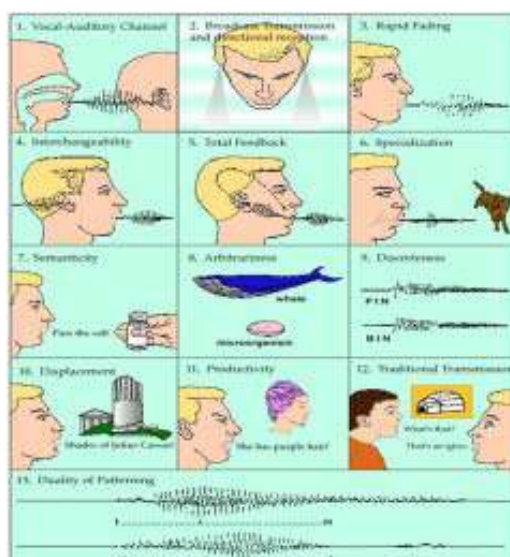
To enable you to

- ❖ Understand the unique features of human language
- ❖ Compare and relate the acquired knowledge in practical situations
- ❖ Encourage further thoughtful insights from their understanding of the newly gained knowledge

3.3 Language- The system of communication

We understand that language is a distinguished capacity of communication uniquely associated with human beings to express complexity of ideas. Numerous studies have been conducted and is a continuum to understand the system of communication and its coding, encoding or decoding concepts expressed either through sound (speech), gestures or signs and symbols (written). The understanding of human communication is as complex as the process itself that led to the dissection of the system into its various components in order to understand the cosmic power of language and/or its expressions.

Study the following chart. This is on the properties of language.



Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hockett%27s_design_features#/media/File:Dfl.jpg

At the outset, we need to know a little background of the development of the design features as provided by Hockett. Until the first half of twentieth century, the socio-behavioural context of understanding language study was predominant. In the second half of the twentieth century (Bechtel et al., 1998¹) the development of cognitive science along with the growing interest in evolutionary sciences led to an upsurge of studying the origin of language. (Christiansen and Kirby, 2003²). It was Noam Chomsky's concept of 'universal grammar' that led Hockett to oppose the concept and develop the model of design features of language as suggestive of the nature of human language which, according to Hockett's beliefs, can be compared and contrasted with animal language. However, it needs mention here, that, the model has also been under scanner particularly, in the context of modern language evolution researches. Hockett described his model as "method modelled on that of the zoologist"³ which means that all human languages 'look alike' if viewed from the perspective of a zoologist.

In his model of design features, Hockett has listed 13 features that he felt share commonalities across the human languages that exist. Moreover, he adds, that these features are distinct from animal communication. While elaborating the idea of design features Hockett suggested that some of the features may appear 'trivial' but, "become worthy of mention only when it is realized that certain animal systems-and certain human systems other than language-lack them" (1960)⁴. It is to be mentioned here, that Hockett originally did not use the term 'design features' in his book *A Course in Modern Linguistics* that was meant for college students. Instead, he termed them "the key properties of language". The discussions on these features could be categorized under three distinct phases:

- I. The initial statement that occurred between 1958-1959 deals with a comparative approach to define language.
- II. The second phase as in "The Origin of Speech" and "Logical considerations in the study of animal communication" which deals with the thirteen 'properties' of human language.
- III. The later publications where he added three more features to the list of thirteen and in which his attention is more focused on the systematic 'properties' of language.

Let us now look at the features of human language that are distinct from animal communication with a briefing on them.

3.4 Features of Language

3.4.1 Arbitrariness

The relationship that exists between a linguistic form and the meaning assigned to it is arbitrary. There is no natural connection or any obviousness between them unlike, animal communication. It may not be a real object or bear any 'iconic' resemblance to the object or the linguistic form (word) that it denotes. Or, for that matter, take any word or a sign in any language which may or may not be the same meaning in other languages. Even, the games that a child plays are shown to fit in the activity they indicate but, in actuality, it is only the arbitrariness of the meaning which is emphasized in human language use.

The exceptions in this arbitrary use are the onomatopoeic sounds that replicate its meaning, or mimics the thing described. E.g., the booming sound, high speed bumps echo the sounds of their respective objects. However, in animal communication this does not hold good possibly, because of the finite communication structure unlike, human communication which is infinite and unlimited. In addition, animal communication takes place only at certain situations and not always. In human language the communication occurs at various levels - verbal, non-verbal and at random and at every situation. In human language, the meanings are assigned and conveyed by conventions.



Think: Can you bring in here the concept of semiotics as propounded by Saussure?

3.4.2 Turn-taking or Inter-changeability

Have you noticed the undercurrent during a conversation between one speaker and another?

We have noticed that formal lectures and/or speeches are characterized by uninterrupted monologues or elaborate social discussions. Whatever the case be, these are clearly marked by turn takings maybe frequent or change in turns or single-turn

in intervals. There are clear indications of beginnings, middle or end. In cases of single-turn there may be indications of an active listener. These do not demand preparations to be involved in language use. Hockett, thus, calls this as another unique feature in human language.

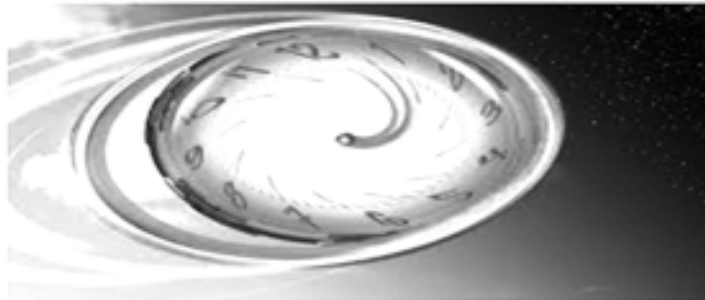
You must have noticed that these turn takings could also be visible in the babies who may have just begun to use single or double words or even in infants who take their turns by making noises. A mother and her baby interact by the use of sounds or simple words yet, exchange of information and/or meanings take place.

3.4.3 Rapid Fading or Transitoriness

It is surprising that language signals are temporary and fade out the moment they are communicated. There is no trail of the communication made. It is when the speech sounds are required to be made the signals are sent and received (both by the speaker and the listener) at the time of the utterance but, there could be no recovery of the signals once transmitted. In this sense, it is transitory. It disappears instantly or fades out immediately once the utterance is over.

3.4.4 Displacement

It suggests that human language use is not limited or bound by time and place (or space).



<https://www.ellenfinkelstein.com/pptblog/present-theres-time-prepare/>

It can go beyond present and talk about an incident that happened in the past or is likely to take place in the future which is not possible in animal communication. This is because human language can refer to past and present tense or can calculate a time in future. There are time markers in any language not restricted to English alone, every language has time markers be it Bengali, Hindi and so on.

For example: They went to the zoo (yesterday). Even without the use of yesterday

the word 'went' is suggestive of past (tense marker). Or, They will go to the zoo (tomorrow). 'Will go' is the future time marker which by itself is sufficient to convey the sense of future and 'tomorrow' is not required.

Let us take another example: They have come from Japan or they will go to Japan. Here, the word (or the preposition) 'from' or 'to' suggests beyond here and now. It is understood that, they do not belong to that place but, another place.

Again, for instance: They will meet us at 6.00 pm on 31 January 2022. It embeds one concept of time into another (at 6p.m. (on 31 January 2022)). It also allows the users of human language to talk about things and places which are not real but, imaginary; e.g. Heaven, hell, fairies, angels, superman, batman, Santa Claus and so on. Thus, displacement in any utterances refers to language use that does not correspond with reality or may not be temporarily or physically present at the time of communication. Any human language has this displacement unlike animal communication because they cannot refer to things or events beyond the present moment.

3.4.5 Dual Structure (Duality of patterning)

We have studied what is meant by language? Language receives its name as and when we assign some sound, signs and symbols, syntactic structure and so on that pertain to some language community say, English, Hindi, Bengali etc. Even, if you look at the word 'language' itself you will see that the sounds /l/, /g/ etc arranged in some order. Only then the word 'language' gets its shape. All these indicate that, all the discrete units are arranged in some pattern and they combine to create some meaning through their interrelation.

Now, the question is how do they combine? This combination takes place at two levels - sound level and word level. At the sound level, the smallest unit of sound in a particular language is called a phoneme. Each phoneme (or sound) does not carry meaning in themselves (except 'I' which is the shortest possible word consisting of a single phoneme). For example, /p/, /i/, /n/ are individual phonemes at the sound level.



<https://etestinc.com/acoustic.htm>

The word level, individual phonemes combine to form words which again combine to form phrases and larger grammatical units as in sentence structure. Example given, /p/, /i/, /n/ combines to form [pin]. This combination enables to create infinite set of words and phrases and the words/phrases combine to create infinite number of sentence structures with meanings of their own. These combinations can take place in a number of ways depending upon the purpose of sentence creation.

3.4.6 Discreteness

Every language has its own set of sounds and signs. We know sounds (phonemes) combine to form words. Thus, words composed of several sounds combine in a particular order and create a different meaning. Each of these sounds is different from the rest and combines in different ways to form altogether different meaning.

For example, the sounds /g/, / d / combine to form God which bears a particular meaning but, the same sounds when combine in dog has a completely different meaning. In this case, you can also make an observation that the same sounds were repeated but, combined differently to form a new meaning. Similarly, the sounds in 'but' and 'tub' are juxtaposed to form two different meanings. Thus, exchanging the discrete (separate) units in a language can form different meanings in that language use. This explains why infinite sentences (infinite thoughts) can be formed with limited linguistic symbols or signs. Moreover, language is context bound and as a result, the same sentence can differ widely in different contexts. Discreteness in human language use, thus works at various levels.

Discreteness suggests boundary or segmentation between each linguistic symbol in a language. The linguistic symbols are discrete or separate from one another. Take an example: she has come. It states a fact. The discrete units can be segmented part by part into 'she' (subject), 'has' (auxiliary verb) and 'come' (main verb). But the same discrete units when placed interchangeably 'Has she come' become a question instead of a statement. The meaning in the latter case is totally different than the former. Again, the sounds in human language can be syncopated and used repeatedly unlike the animal communication which are continuous sounds and cannot be syncopated.

3.4.7 Semanticity

Semantics, as the word suggests, signifies meanings ascribed to linguistic forms - words and/or sentences. The words are the signs and the meanings associated to them are 'relatively fixed'. It is to be understood here, that a single object can significantly vary in its meanings in the target language as much as it may vary in target language

(say, English) to that of any other human language (say, French). For example, 'bank' could signify bank of a river or a financial institution; 'mole' could mean a mark on skin or a small animal. In the same (target) language, here, English, a word meaning varies considerably. Contrarily, the word 'mutton' in English has a different connotation than it has in its French origin; or, for that matter, in Indian context too, it signifies the meat of a sheep whereas, in some other language (outside US) it signifies living animal. Thus, we find that Semantics is again arbitrarily or conventionally assigned. The use of the word 'school' is immediately associated with some ideas and related thoughts. Semantics is the relationship between the real object (the school building) or the element and the arbitrary symbol expressed through words (morphemes or phonemes) or ideas (here, school suggests a place where education takes place, teacher, student, and so on). The associated ideas with a school assign a meaning to the linguistic form 'school'.



<https://www.iaspaper.net/school-life-short-essay-children/my-school-essay/>

Food for thought: Can you jot down the ideas that you get associated looking at this image?

3.4.8 Productivity

Creativity or openness are other terms associated with productivity. It is the capacity to produce the utterances or the ability to use the language and produce infinite number of newer utterances. It is this capacity that enables the development of utterances from simple to complex forms, or, using single vowels, double vowels, or, monosyllabic word to disyllabic word and so on through the various stages of child's growth and development. And every linguistic sign carries in themselves an array of associated or disjointed concepts. For example: the word 'book'. It could refer to a law book or Cantos of a poem or could also mean book a ticket. As meanings are arbitrarily assigned, infinite references can be made.

Would you mind taking a quick look through:

Speech development stages - babbling, cooing.

It might be an aid to your understanding of the process of speech mechanism. You will learn on these in detail in the next semester.



<https://fr.dreamstime.com/illustration/id%C3%A9e.html>

3.4.9 Vocal-Auditory Channel

Human communication involves a speaker and a receiver. And, communication could be verbal or non-verbal or visual or written. Verbal communication involves speaker - one who speaks and a receiver - one who receives. The speaker uses vocal cords and other speech organs to produce patterns of sound or speech waves and the receiver (listener) receives the speech waves through the auditory channel (ear), and processes the speech waves to interpret the sound produced. The production of speech depends upon or is the result of a combined series of function of the respiratory system, the Phonatory system and the articulatory system which is not applicable in case of animal communication. e.g., Traffic signal does not come to us to tell what to do; it only signals a particular sign that we interpret it in accordance to the context. Likewise, a mother signals by calling the name of her child (say, Sita) and Sita receives the sound waves of the phonemes /s/, /i:/, /t/, /a/ through the auditory channel (ears) to understand that she has been called by her mother and acts accordingly.

3.4.10 Specialization

It is the wonder of human language use that it is solely used for the purpose of utterance and/or communication and not for any other biological functions like eating, sleeping and so on. We may express other activities through the language use but, language use is solely for communication. Eating, sleeping are other aspects or reciprocation of human behaviour. The specialization of human behaviour lies in the fact that, though there is no direct link of sound waves with human behaviour yet,

human behaviour is the result of transfer of sound waves or signals between the sender and receiver.

3.4.11 Broadcast transmission and Directional reception

Have you ever witnessed a child or yourself trying to throw laser light in the sky but, it is scattered all around in the space and lost into oblivion? Likewise, have you ever thought the sound waves during a verbal communication come from a speaker as waveforms which too might be scattered in all directions yet, the listener responds? It is because of the fact that, human communication system broadcast sound waves and signals are transmitted in all directions of 'auditory space' through the transmission point or the mouth. The listener receives the waves and tries to locate the point of origin of the sound waves as emanating from a specific direction. The linguistic signals so transmitted could be picked up by anyone in the range of the wave signals.

3.4.12 Cultural transmission

Apart from the innate ability to learn language and produce infinite sentences, humans can also transfer the linguistic system as specific to one's community to the succeeding generations as part of their culture. Language is not learnt in isolation (example, the famous case of Genie) but in a context and thus naturally inherited by the users of that language because the child lives and grows in a particular speech community. It may be in one's native community or could be non-native but lives in a society where it acquires the linguistic symbols in which it grows and listen the sounds constantly specific to the language in use. Language, here, the mother tongue, is transmitted from one generation to the succeeding. As offspring we acquire our first language in such transmissions.

3.4.13 Total feedback

Have you ever noticed that whatever we say we hear it ourselves along with the listener? But, do we see the signals that come from our body movements? The answer is no. We do not see the signals that the various parts of our body sends time to time, that is to say, we receive the signals that we send (sender and receiver). We can thus monitor the output communication as and when we communicate. Thus, the cycle of communication becomes complete (total) with the feedback.

3.5 Human Language

To these features, Hockett in his later works adds three more features as unique to human language and different from animal communication. These are: Prevarication, Reflexiveness and Learnability.

Prevarication: it is the capacity of human language to falsify the linguistic message or prove it untrue (simply meaning 'lie).

Reflexiveness: it is the capacity to reflect on a language by using one's language. In the process, newer adoptions in meaning may/may not take place in the use of same or new words. Hence, the communication that occurs is reflexive or spontaneous.

Learnability: it is the capacity of humans to learn a language be it their native language and/or other non-native languages. The sooner the language learning takes place better is the acquisition rate.

3.6 Uniqueness of Human Language

In this context, the following features have also been discussed by the linguists that talk of uniqueness of human language in comparison to those of animal communication.

Redundancy

Dictionary defines it as that which is no longer in use or is needed. In language use too this could be implied. We understand that language use also has certain shortfalls. For example, in some cases, human tends to use more words and information than that is actually required. This involves more time and space to remember or make effective communication happen.

In such cases it is worthwhile to cut short or trim the extra words or information that is not required. This is what we term redundancy in language use. In some other cases, we tend to repeat words that are not necessary; for e.g. repeat again, repeat in itself is suggestive of to be said more than once; or, take for instance, 'ask question', ask itself suggests to pose a question. Hence, using 'question' is superfluous. We often say, ATM machine where machine is inbuilt in the acronym ATM (automated teller machine). Here, machine becomes redundant. It only creates confusion to a reader in the creation of meaning and the superfluous words so used is an unnecessary attempt to pump in more sense but, it ultimately does not help.

"If it is possible to cut a word out, always cut it out."- George Orwell

Again, consider for example 'I am'. Although 'I' and 'am' have synonymous meaning yet, abiding by the grammar rules in English, we cannot say 'am Suman' because it doesn't allow dropping pronoun. But, the same could be said in Italian (Sono Suman). This again becomes a case of redundancy. It is to be understood here, that it is not only in the use of English language but, all languages have instances of redundancy.

Spontaneous use

Just as it is, sometimes, tough to stop humans from using language because that is spontaneous likewise, in some other cases, humans learn the use of language spontaneously from their environment. Not that always they are forced to use language or taught forcibly. It could be noticed in the teachers or the parents trying desperately to make their students/children stop talking continuously (here, the children are talking naturally and in spontaneous flow and not forced to use language) or vice versa, where children are pissed off with their adults speaking on and on.

Have you come across a situation in some social gatherings where it is extremely noisy and/or chaotic because people are deeply engrossed in spontaneous conversations maybe needless? These are the cases of spontaneous language use. Also think of situations where the language is acquired and learnt spontaneously. They are not forced to acquire but, it happens spontaneously from their interaction with the environment they are exposed to.

Hockett terms these as 'Spontaneous use' and 'Spontaneous acquisition' respectively.



<http://me.hse.ru/knowledgebase/2018/04/19/how-to-have-more-fun-learning/>

However, it is also to be understood that in spite of the fact, that, Hockett's concept of properties of human language have spearheaded and notably contributed to research in this field, yet, it is not beyond criticism. Hockett's concept has been criticized on grounds that it revolves around similarities/dissimilarities at the surface level; and, secondly, it deals with the uniqueness of human language based on assumed perspectives of the understandings of language and its aspects.

3.7 Summary

This unit has focussed on the features of human language as propounded by Charles Hockett and the nitty-gritty of their contexts under which a language function. The module has also highlighted the development and/or the ideational process of designing the features of human language. It is imperative on the part of the learners to understand the background for conceptual development. It is also strongly recommended that while understanding the concepts the learners too attempt a critical observation on them and reflect their own perspectives and nurture an inquisitive mind. The questions that are distributed through the unit intend to enable develop the critical thinking skills and a reasoning mind.

3.8 Review Questions

1. Can you think of situations where language is culturally transmitted?
2. Can you name the property of the language that enables us to think of future contexts?
3. Take a short quiz⁵
 - i. What is language?
 - a. A species specific system of calls
 - b. Something that stands for something else
 - c. A system of arbitrary symbols used to communicate
 - d. Transfer of information from one person to another
 - e. A system of speech patterns
 - ii. Which of Charles Hockett's sixteen design features of language refers to the ability to talk about absent or nonexistent objects?
 - a. Arbitrariness
 - b. Displacement
 - c. Openness
 - d. Semanticity
 - e. Prevarication
 - iii. What is meant by the duality of patterning (i.e., what are the two levels at which language is patterned?)
 - a. Sound and grammar
 - b. Sound and meaning

- c. Grammar and meaning
 - d. Phonetics and syntax
 - e. Phonemes and morphemes
- iv. The study of language in the context of its use is called
- a. Phonology
 - b. Morphology
 - c. Syntax
 - d. Semantics
 - e. Pragmatics
4. From your reading of Unit III, think of your language use and/or utterances in a given situation and see if any new feature could be traced from your understanding. Jot it in your notebook.

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Notes

- 1 & 2 <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12304-014-9203-2>
- 3 <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12304-014-9203-2>
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Unit 4 □ Language Variety—Dialects, Sociolects, Idiolects

- 4.1 Introduction**
- 4.2 Objectives**
- 4.3 Language Variety**
- 4.4 Dialects**
- 4.5 Sociolects**
- 4.6 Registers**
- 4.7 Summary**
- 4.8 Review Questions**
- 4.9 References and Reading List**

4.1 Introduction

In the previous units we have learnt about language, its various perspectives and the different sounds that are produced in English. We also learnt about how language is related to a given context. We know language functions in a given situation and does not exist outside a society which is based on human interaction. From your reading of this unit, you will know the various connotations of language.

4.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit the learners will be able to

- ❖ Understand the concepts in language use
- ❖ Apply the acquired knowledge
- ❖ Know about the concepts in language variety

4.3 Language Variety

Language is socio-cultural phenomenon and it cannot exist outside a social context in isolation. Language use is very much a human predominance and privilege. We talk about Bengali, Hindi, English, Tamil, Urdu and other languages. But, these are just the labels used to refer to a system of systems, abstraction of abstractions. In other

words, each of them has a chain of varieties, that is to say, varieties of English, Tamil, Bengali or Hindi, etc. Language variety differs in accordance to the geographical region in which it is used, the context and the situation where it is to be used.

Task 1: Take a little time to find out the total number of districts in West Bengal at present.

Your answer:

Almost, each district has a distinct variety of Bengali, perhaps, that is spoken. Think in your contexts; we talk of Bihari Hindi, Khariboli Hindi, and Bhojpuri Hindi. Likewise, we talk of British English, American English, Australian English, Canadian English, Indian English, and Singaporean English and so on.

Human language, according to Ferdinand-de-Saussure, is composed of two aspects viz. *Langue* and *parole*. *Langue* is the abstract system of words, phrases, pronunciation, and a system specific to any language community in all its forms and manifestations but, not the speech performance. *Parole* is the actual speech performance or the actual act of speaking/performance. It is the set of all the systems put together to make the utterance happen in actuality. *Parole* is thus, the spoken part and *langue* is the composite of all the linguistic components. *Langue* is more a social phenomenon as it represents social manifestations appropriate to a particular social community. For example, the manifestations of language in Chinese would differ widely from that of the Japanese and so on.

Langue (System)	Parole (Actual utterance)
Code	Encoding of the message
Social	Individual adoptions
Fixed	Free
Psychological	Psycho-physical

Source: R L Varshney and S K Verma

As we have just mentioned, language (say English) is a sum of varieties of (English) languages available. Thus, it varies in terms of its patterns of formation in accordance to its geographical location. Variety of language in the words of Ferguson,

Anybody of speech patterns which is sufficiently homogeneous to be analysed by available large repertory of elements and their arrangements or processes with broad enough semantic scope to function in all formal contexts of communication

Thus, from this we can understand, that, a language indicates a speaker's origin and social identifiers like class, caste in some cases, religion, ethnicity and sense of decorum through the choice of words. Let us now take a look through the various concepts associated with language.

4.4 Dialects

It refers to language variation and a single language is a combination of many dialects. When people in a particular community share same ways (what and how) of speaking it is called a dialect of that community. There are sentences spoken in American or British English that share the same meaning and may also look same in structure. Such may be an instance of using a standard form of English although may have different accent in speaking.

For example, in both American and British English the sentence structure and meaning of 'How are you?' may be alike though, would differ in respective pronunciations. But, there could also be cases when sentences share the same meaning but, differ in structure as the case may be among different dialects of English or Bengali language. There could be differences in terms of pronunciation, or vocabulary or an altogether different grammatical structure. This is a case of one dialect of English (or, Bengali) language specific to a particular region. Let us take some examples of dialects of Bengali language:

Sentence in Bangla	Translation in English	Cholit bhasha (Colloquial or the standard dialect of Bengali language)	Eastern Dialect (East Bengal) – case of geographical variety	Burdwan District (Manbhumi dialect of Bangla) -- case of regional variety	Malda District (Varendri dialect of Bangla) – case of regional variety
Kothay jachcho / jachchen?	Where are you going?	Kothay jachcho / jachchen?	Tumi koi zao Or, Zaitaso koi Or, Aapne koi zaan /zaiben Or, Aapne koi zaiteasen	-----	-----
Apni ki korchhen?	What are you doing?	Apni ki korchhen?	Apni ki kortasen?	-----	-----
æk jon loker duṭo chele chhilo	A man had two sons	æk jon loker duṭo chele chhilo		gote loker duita toka thiol	æk jôn manuser duṭa bēṭaa chhilô
Look at the change in vocabulary		The meaning remains unchanged but the structure varies		Distinct registers in the field of pronouns depend on the formal or informal usage	

From your understanding of the table above, you may now, perhaps, relate to similar variations of dialects in English language. Dialects in English language too, may vary in structure, vocabulary or pronunciation because of regional variations although meaning may remain the same. This happens because of the specificity of a particular region or a geographical area. Let us also take a look through the variations in English language.

American English -case of geographical variation	British English - case of geographical Variation	Regional dialects of English in England	Regional dialects of English in the Great lakes region of America
1 You missed the show. It just ended.	You've missed the show. It has just ended.	1. Yorkshire (dialectal variants could also be found in Yorkshire region in itself) 2. Received Pronunciation (RP) 3. Lancashire 4. Kentish 5. Sussex	The Great lakes region of America includes: Eight U.S. states of Illinois , Indiana , Michigan , Minnesota , NewYork , Ohio , Pennsylvania and Wisconsin as well as the Canadian province of Ontario . Each of these states have their specific variations of dialects of English being spoken in North America.
2 I already visited that place.	I have already visited that place.	-----	-----
3 Joy feels tired, he ate too much.	Joy feels tired, he has eaten too much.	-----	-----

Dialects could be regional or social. Let us understand these from our existing conceptions that we already have in our respective situations. For example, Khariboli is spoken in central India (Delhi, UP, Southern Uttara Khand) and Braj Bhasha of North-Central (Bihar, Gujarat, MP, WB) India are regional dialects of Hindi. Dialects are also classified or segmented based on rural and urban users. Or, to say, Hindi spoken in Benares and in Bihar are regional varieties. Again, dialects are also stratified on the basis of caste and class divisions of a society. In many cases, social stratification is identified or recognised by the use of vocabulary, accent and sentence structure. A dialect so based on social influences and stratification of a society is called Sociolect.

Bengali too has its dialects. Suniti Kumar Chatterjee and Sukumar Sen have contributed substantially to the field of Bengali phonological study. According to their classification, Bengali dialects have been categorised into six main types: Rarhi, Bangali, Varendri, Manbhumi, Rajbanshi, Sundarbani dialects based on geographical regions where they are spoken -West Central dialects, Eastern dialects, South Bengal dialects, North Bengal dialects or Western border dialects.

Likewise, the variety of English spoken in Yorkshire to that of English spoken in Scotland are the regional dialects of English. Scottish English, Irish English, English spoken in England, Wales are the regional dialects of English in Europe, or, say, English spoken in Canada, USA are the regional variations in North America. The English spoken in India, Singapore, and Bangladesh are the varieties of English spoken in Asia.

Dialects are also classified on the basis of social standards like, in many communities the upper-class dialect of the Brahmins differ from those in the bottom-line or margins. Similarly, we talk about English being spoken by the educated speakers of England, Queen's English, and BBC English as the prestige dialects based on socio-political factors. These prestige dialects acquire the status of 'standard language'. The social stratification matters that some varieties become more prestigious. The political or the cultural milieu leads to the frequency of its use. It needs to be understood that none of the dialects could be compared to designate 'better' than the other. They are different from one another in linguistic terms.

From the social point of view, dialects flourish also on the basis of its frequency of its use - spoken or literary. For example, we talk of 'cholit bhasha' (that which is in current use or colloquial) and 'sadhu bhasha' (prestigious use in written texts) but, not much in use now as we find language has taken many inclusions from day-to-day usages.

A dialect differs from an idiolect in the sense that, each speaker of a dialect differs from other speakers of the same dialect in their individual way of pronouncing. The characteristic features of speaking vary from one person to another using the same dialect. This is called the idiolect of an individual. The study of dialects is known as dialectology. A dialect is identified accordingly.

Task 2: Reflect on what you have understood: Answer the following questions:

1. How would you differentiate dialect from an idiolect?
2. From your understanding of social dialect and regional dialect can you justify the following statement?

"If children move to an area before the age of nine, they are able to 'pick up' the local dialect which their parents cannot."

Your answer:

4.5 Sociolects

The dialect spoken by the members of a particular class or a particular group is called Sociolect. It is otherwise known as social dialect. The formation of these dialects is governed by social factors like, socio-economic divisions, or divisions on the basis of religion. It clearly demarcates the members belonging to the strata of society. For example, English spoken by 'upper', 'middle' and 'lower' class in London are clearly stratified, just as, in our context we see such dialectal division by the Tamil speakers based on social stratification. The use of the verb "ain't" is more common with the working-class speech than in middle-class speech. It thus functions as a social marker. Another such marker could be dropping 'h' sound in certain class utterances. This is particularly noticed when the sound /h/ occurs in the initial position.

It is an indication of educational level, profession and ethnicity of the respective class. The social dialects differ in terms of phonology, phonetics, morphology and syntax. A sociolect is directly linked with the speaker's social background. In this context, 'class' becomes a social variable and the pronunciation or the word becomes a 'linguistic variable'.

The individuals who study sociolects are known as sociolinguists. Such studies enable a close analysis of social psychology, identifies attitudes and perceptions.

4.6 Registers

We have learnt that dialects are based on language users. Likewise, registers are based on language use or the stylistic yet, functional varieties. On a narrow note, registers could be referred to as jargons used in respective domains that is appropriate in a specific context e.g., sports, fishing, linguistic, religious, legal, medical, advertising and other professions. There are registers that are associated with specific work or interest related to technical field e.g. engineering. Let us look at some of the registers associated with different types of profession and education:

	Word/lexical item	Register
1	Slogan, commercials, buzz	Advertising
2	Blood pressure, stethoscope, heartbeat, pulse rate, prescription	Medical
3	Orthodox, pious, theist, atheist, prayer, worship	Religion

4	Athletics, coach, club, dodge ball, referee, practice, victory, loser	Sports
5	Books, teacher, student, attendance, class	Education
6	Justice, adjournment, affidavit, appeal, court	Legal

Task 3: Can you now prepare a list of registers from fields of your choice and present understanding?

Lexical items

Register

- 1
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Again, the special use of words in a language as registers of that profession is different from the way the same word is used in general understanding. Like, the word mouse as a technical term is the register of Computer whereas the same word in general means a rodent, which is a pest. Halliday has pointed out that, three variables together make up a register. These are field, tenor and mode. Field is the subject matter of the text; tenor is defined as the relationship between the communicators and the mode is the medium of communication. If, English Language Teaching is the field then, student-teacher relationship is the tenor and the pedagogical styles or the way/s of interaction in constructing the communication is the mode.

A register may also be determined on the basis of speech and written use that is to say, the medium of expression. In this, we again find distinct differences in the usage of terms in respective cases of the medium of speech to that of writing. For example, in cases of formal and informal speech, conversation, talk, debate, and discussion they have particular registers associated to each of them. Likewise, in writing, we have different types of official letters, business letters, biography or an autobiography, a poem or an interview or a report. The text markers would differ from each other in accordance to their medium of expression as applicable. Consider the salutation in an official letter Dear Sir or the closing Yours sincerely to that of Hi Swati or Lovingly in a friendly letter. Or, in a speech occasion Hi Guys to that of Hello everyone. Thus, in the words of J Ellis:

"By register, itself a linguistic, not situational category, is meant a division of

idiolect, or what is common to dialects, distinguished by formal (and possibly substantial) features and correlated with types of situations of utterance (these distinguished by such components as those here enumerated)."[On Contextual Meaning, p. 83]

Task 4: Identify texts of different domains and this may include real life conversations and/or reading of texts, advertisements. Take a copy of them or a cut out. Then locate the registers in each domain. You may think to repeat the same activity with your students in their respective context.

4.7 Summary

The present unit of Paper 4 focussed on the proper usage of terminologies as applicable and needed to be understood as a language learner and facilitator. The subtle demarcations between the language registers would enable to grasp the concepts in a better way in relation to language learning. Linguistically, it enables to communicate in one's speech communities using same registers and thereby, the sociological perspective and basis also gains further importance. It functions as social identity markers and also, as unique features of a language spoken and/used in a particular region. Alongside, the cultural elements too connect globally.

4.8 Review Questions

1. Can you identify some dialects (or, language variations) in the language that you use?
2. Discuss how dialects differ from one another.
3. Give five reasons from your understanding of the concept/s in the present module on the importance of knowing about dialects.
4. Explain your considerations on any three social factors of your choice in the creation of social significance of a language.
5. Rethink on your considerations for answer to question number (4) and justify the basis of prioritising them (the three factors that you have chosen).
6. Attempt a critical appreciation of your own understanding of the concepts as read in this module as in how do they influence language learning. Do add your own perspectives.
7. What is an idiolect? Cite five examples from a language that you speak.

8. Discuss field, tenor and mode. Illustrate with examples.
9. Cite two examples of registers from advertising.
10. Cite examples of the dialects of British English.

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Module 2 : Principles of Language and Linguistics as Science-2

Unit 5 □ Linguistics : An Introduction

- 2.1 Introduction**
- 2.2 Objectives**
- 2.3 Origin of Language**
 - 2.3.1 Nature and Natural Sounds**
 - 2.3.2 Neanderthal**
 - 2.3.3 Adaptations**
- 5.1 Introduction**
- 5.2 Objectives**
- 5.3 What is Linguistics?**
- 5.4 What is Language?**
- 5.5 The Origins of Language**
 - 5.5.1 Characteristics of Language**
 - 5.5.2 How does language work?**
- 5.6 The Design Features of Language**
- 5.7 Linguistic Knowledge**
 - 5.7.1 Arbitrary Relation of Form and Meaning**
 - 5.7.2 Knowledge of the Sound System**
- 5.8 The goal of Linguistics**
- 5.9 Structural Notions in Linguistics**
 - 5.9.1 Characteristics of open vs closed classes**
 - 5.9.2 Talking about language and linguistic data**
 - 5.9.3 The grammatical core**
- 5.10 Areas of Linguistics**
- 5.11 Summary**
- 5.12 Review Questions**
- 5.13 References and Reading List**

5.1 Introduction

In this unit, we will introduce you to the notions of linguistics i.e. language and linguistic sign, the approach is to look at human languages with salient examples. We have used examples from Bangla, English, Hindi and other languages as required. The unit ends with a brief overview of various components of linguistics. You will learn more about these components in the next unit.

5.2 Objectives

After going through this unit, you will learn:

- ❖ The basic concepts of linguistics,
- ❖ The prime objectives of Linguistics in understanding the nature of human languages,
- ❖ How to look at linguistic data and understand the metalanguage.

5.3 What is Linguistics?

The first primordial question that comes to our mind is what is Linguistics?

Linguistics, in a nutshell, is the scientific study of languages. This language can be a spoken language or a sign language used by the human beings. Besides, we can also study artificial languages such as Esperanto under linguistics. According to Robins (1993), Linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and human faculties. Let us try and understand the notions of language in terms of linguistics.

5.4 What is Language?

According to Kracht Languages are sets of signs. Signs combine an exponent (a sequence of letters or sounds) with a meaning. As we know a sign comprises of a signifier (the form or the shape) and the signified (the meaning represented by the form or the concept), the idea was originally propagated by Ferdinand D. Saussure in a book posthumously published named 'A Course in General Linguistics'. (Course Generale de la Linguistica) Grammars are essentially considered ways to generate signs from more basic signs. Signs combine a form and a meaning, and they are identical with neither their exponent nor with their meaning.

For example, the word for tree in Bangla is /gach/ which comprises of sounds g,

a, ch and when someone puts them together it evokes an image of a tree but there is nothing inherent about those sounds that they must correspond to a tree all the time. This property is called arbitrariness which is one of the most important components of language.

Language is a semiotic system. By that, we simply mean that it is a set of signs. For example, in English, the string /cat/ is a signifier, and its signified is, say, cat, or the set of all cats. Sign systems are largely ubiquitous in the sense consider the objects such as clocks, road signs, pictograms. They all are parts of sign systems. Language differs from them only in its complexity. This explains why language signs have much more internal structure than ordinary signs. Ordinary signs are largely iconic, language can talk about non-iconic entities. Language allows expressing virtually every thought that we possess, and the number of signs that we can produce is literally infinite. Is it not evident that we are able to understand utterances that we have never heard before? Every day, billions of sentences are uttered by speakers of natural languages yet most of these are novel except in case of repetition. This aspect of language is called recursion. Consider the example below which explains that language gives us infinite possibilities to generate sentences-

- i. John eats,
- ii. John eats an apple,
- iii. I know that John eats an apple,
- iv. I know you told me that John eats an apple.

5.5 The origins of language

Modern man has existed for about 200,000 years albeit after 50,000 BC language had developed with all the structural properties, something, which can be considered as a fully developed sign system. Language is largely an evolutionary phenomenon which is adapted to the communicative needs of its speakers. The organs of speech are biologically secondary (for example tongue helps us swallowing the food) but their development has led to a specialized function such as language. It is argued that the flexibility of the tongue or the relatively deep larynx distinguishes humans from higher primates and they have helped in developing human languages.

5.5.1 Characteristics of Language

Linguists vary in their definitions of language. However, all agree that language is a system of vocal signs with an internal structure. It is used for human communication.

Language is a medium for carrying a social message. As we know that the relationship between signs and what is symbolized is arbitrary but fixed by social convention. The system is stimulus-free and non-random. Language demonstrates a duality of structure in having building blocks (phonemes) and units consisting of these (words). A large number of meaningful units can be formulated out of a small number of building blocks.

Languages vary greatly in their form and this has led some linguists to imagine that one's native language determines the way one thinks. The famous Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is a linguistic theory which argues that the semantic structure of a language shapes or limits how a speaker conceptualizes the world. It came about in 1929. The theory is named after the American anthropological linguist Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and his student Benjamin Whorf (1897-1941). It is also known as the theory of linguistic relativity, linguistic relativism.

5.5.2 How does language work?

There is no doubt that we live in a world of languages. We talk to our friends, our associates, our spouses, our lovers, our teachers, our parents, our rivals, and even our enemies. We talk to vendors and total strangers. We talk face-to-face and over the skype, and everyone responds with more talk. Even in our dreams we talk and are talking to. We also talk when there is no one to answer. Some of us talk aloud in our sleep. We talk to our pets and sometimes to ourselves.

The possession of language, perhaps more than any other attribute, distinguishes humans from other animals. We need to understand that language is the source of human life and power. "To some people of Africa, a newborn child is a kintu, a "thing," not yet a muntu, a "person." Only by the act of learning language does the child become a human being. According to this tradition, we all become "human" because we all know at least one language."- (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2011).

5.6 The 'Design Features' of Language

Let us revise on the features we have learnt in Module 1, from a linguists view point. Charles Hockett (1954), proposed a set of 'design features of language'.

I Vocal-auditory channel

It refers to the idea that speaking/hearing is the mode humans use for language. When Hockett first defined this feature, he did not take sign language into account. This feature has since been modified to include other channels of language, such as tactile-visual or chemical-olfactory.

II. Broadcast transmission and directional reception

Sounds get transmitted in all directions usually when humans speak. However, listeners perceive the direction from which the sounds are coming. Similarly, signers broadcast to potentially anyone within the line of sight, while watching who is signing. This is characteristic of most forms of human and animal communication.

III. Transitoriness

It is also defined as rapid fading. Transitoriness refers to the idea of the temporary quality of language. Sounds of human language exist for only a brief period of time, after which they are no longer perceived. Sound waves quickly disappear once the speaker stops speaking. This is also true of signs. In contrast, other forms of communication such as writing are more permanent.

IV. Interchangeability

Interchangeability refers to the idea that humans can give and receive identical linguistic signals; humans are not limited in the types of messages they can say/hear. One can say "I am a man" even if one is a woman. This is not to be confused with lying (prevarication). Not all species possess this feature. For example, in order to communicate their status, queen ants produce chemical scents that no other ants can produce.

V. Total feedback

Speakers of a language can hear their speech. They can control and modify what they are saying as they say it. Similarly, signers see, realize and control their signing.

VI. Specialization

The purpose of linguistic signals is communication. They are not produced for some other biological function like bird calls. When humans speak or sign, it is generally intentional.

VII. Semanticity

Specific sound signals are directly tied to certain meanings. Everyone loves someone - in this example, everyone and someone are quantifiers. Everyone is considered as universal quantifier and someone existential quantifier.

VIII. Arbitrariness

Languages are generally made up of both arbitrary and iconic symbols. In spoken languages, this takes the form of onomatopoeias. In Bangla "tapurtupur", in Mandarin "māo" (cat). In ASL "cup", "me" "up/down", etc. There is no intrinsic or logical

connection between a sound form (signal) and its meaning. This fact is demonstrated by the fact that different languages attribute very different names to the same object.

IX. Discreteness

Linguistic representations can be broken down into small discrete units which combine with each other in rule-governed ways. They are perceived categorically, not continuously. For example, Bangla marks number with the plural morpheme /gulo/, which can be added to the end of any noun. The plural morpheme is perceived categorically, not continuously: we cannot express smaller or larger quantities by varying how loudly we pronounce the /-gulo/.

X. Displacement

The term displacement refers to the idea that humans can talk about things that are not physically present or that do not even exist. Speakers can talk about the past and the future, and can express hopes and dreams. This is certainly one of the features that separate human language from other forms of primate communication.

XI. Productivity

It refers to the idea that language-users can create and understand novel utterances. Utterances they have never heard before. Humans are able to produce an unlimited amount of propositions. Also related to productivity is the concept of grammatical patterning, which facilitates the use and comprehension of language. Language is a dynamic phenomenon. New idioms are created all the time and the meaning of signals can vary depending on the context and situation.

XII. Traditional transmission

It is considered as cultural transmission. While humans are born with innate language capabilities, language is learned after birth in a social setting. Children learn how to speak by interacting with experienced language users. It can be further shaped by cultural settings.

XIII. Duality of patterning

You now realize that meaningful messages are made up of distinct smaller meaningful units (words and morphemes) which themselves are made up of distinct smaller, meaningless units (phonemes).

XIV. Prevarication

This design feature shows the ability to lie or deceive. When using language, humans can make false or meaningless statements.

XV. Reflexiveness

Humans use language to talk about language. Something we have described as a metalanguage in section 5.9.2.

XVI. Learnability

The way speakers learn their first language, the speakers can learn other languages. It is worth noting that young children learn a language with competence and ease; however, language acquisition is constrained by a critical period such that it becomes more difficult once children pass a certain age.

5.7 Linguistic knowledge

What does it mean to "know" a language?

As mentioned previously, knowing the sounds and sound patterns in our language constitutes only a part of our linguistic knowledge. Getting knowledge of a language also indicates knowing that certain sequences of sounds express certain concepts or meanings. Speakers of Bangla know what *kal* means, and that it contrasts with the meaning of /khal/ or /bhejal/. This means when you know a language, you know words in that language, that is, which sequences of sounds are related to specific meanings and which are not.

5.7.1 Arbitrary Relation of Form and Meaning

The moment we set eyes on an object we know what it is. We don't have to think twice; the right name comes out instantly. This goes true for computer or *thakumar jhuli* equally. If you do not know a language, the words (and sentences) of that language will be mainly incomprehensible, because the relationship between speech sounds and the meanings they represent is, for the most part, an arbitrary one. When you are acquiring or learning a language you have to learn that the sounds represented by the letters 'house' signify the concept; if you know French, this same meaning is represented by 'maison'; if you know Russian, by 'dom'; if you know Spanish, by 'casa'. Similarly, Bangla word 'hath' is represented by 'hand' in English, 'main' in French, 'nsa' in Twi, and 'ruka' in Russian.

When you articulate a language (be it a sign or spoken), you can speak and be understood by others who speak the same language. The deaf people produce and understand sign languages just as hearing persons produce and understand spoken languages. The languages of the deaf are equally developed compared to spoken languages, differing only in their modality of expression.

In this world, everyone knows at least one language. Five-year-old children become nearly as proficient at speaking and understanding as their parents. Yet the ability to carry out the simplest conversation requires profound knowledge that most speakers are unaware of. This makes human language unique and species-specific. This is true for speakers of all languages, from Bangla to Zulu. A speaker of Bangla can produce a sentence with a correlative clause without knowing what a correlative clause is, such as

/je lokti kal asbe bole chilo aj se aste pareni/.

However, the fact that we may know something unconsciously is not unique to human language. For example, a child can ride a bicycle without understanding or being able to explain the principles of balance and support or the neurophysiological control mechanisms that permit one to do so.

What, then, do speakers of Chinese or Quechua or Swahili or Bangla or Arabic know? Let's discuss it in more detail here.

5.7.2 Knowledge of the Sound System

When you know a language firstly, you know what sounds (or signs) are in that language and what sounds are not. One way this unconscious knowledge is revealed is by the way speakers of one language pronounce words from another language. If you speak only English, for example, you may substitute an English sound for a non-English sound when pronouncing "foreign" words like Bangla */til/* the word for 'mole'. If you pronounce it as the Bengalis do, you are going to use sounds outside the English sound system.

Bangla people speaking English often pronounce words like 'pen' as phen and 'cat' khaeat as if they were spelt pen and kaet. The English sound represented by the initial letters p in these words is not part of the Bangla sound system.

Knowing the sound system of a language includes more than knowing the inventory of sounds. It means also knowing which sounds may start a word, end a word, and follow each other. For example, English has a word 'school' that begins with a consonant cluster */sk/* but in many Indian languages, this clustering is not present word initially. This is the reason Bangla speakers without the knowledge of English pronounce it as */iskul/* and Punjabi Speakers call it */sakul/*.

Apart from knowing the sound system (phonology), language signs are constituted of three different levels, not just two: morphology, syntax and semantics. Semantics deals with the meanings (what is signified), while the other three are all concerned

with the exponent. At the lowest level, we find that everything is composed of a small set of sounds or a set of gestures. For example, /sheep/ consists of five letters (and three sounds): /sh/, /i/ and /p/. In order not to confuse sounds (and sound sequences) with letters we denote the sounds by enclosing them in square brackets. So, the sounds that make up [sheep] are [sh], [i] and [p], in that order. What is important to note here is that sounds by themselves, in general, does not bear any meaning.

On the other hand, words are not the smallest meaningful units of language. For example, /dogs/ is the plural of /dog/ and as such it is formed by a regular process, and if we only know the meaning of /dog/ we also know the meaning of /dogs/. Thus, we can divide /dogs/ into two parts: /dog/ and /-s/. The minimal units that correspond to meaning are called morphemes. Often, it is tacitly assumed that a morpheme is a part of a word; bigger chunks are called idioms as in /kick the bucket/, /keep tabs on someone/, and so on.

The reason for this division is that while idioms are non-transparent as far as their meaning is concerned (if you die you do not kick a bucket), syntactically they often behave as if they are made of words (for example, they inflect: /John kicked the bucket/). So, a word such as 'dogs' has four manifestations: its meaning, its sound structure, its morphological structure and its syntactic structure.

The part of linguistics that deals with how words are put together into sentences is called syntax. For example, if the subject is the third-person singular and the verb appears in Present tense then a morpheme -s/ -es is added.

- i. A dog barks
- ii. Dog barks
- iii. *A dog bark

The knowledge of syntax determines that i) and ii) are grammatical sentences whereas iii) is unacceptable. For details related to the syntax you can refer to the modules written under Paper 7.

5.8 The goal of Linguistics

The goal of linguistics is to observe, describe and analyse the structure of languages. Linguistic theory is concerned with establishing a coherent set of independent principles to explain phenomena in natural languages. There is no such thing as a correct language in any absolute sense. Language is neutral and should not be considered the object of value judgements. People tend to confuse language and attitudes to those who use language.

Written language is secondary and derived from spoken language. It is only of less interest to the linguist. Linguists are more concerned with designing valid and general models of linguistic structure.

Language consists largely of rules which determine its use. There are, however, many exceptions. Native speakers can deal with a large amount of irregularity which is stored in the mental lexicon. Knowledge of language refers to many abstract structures such as those of sentence types or systematic units such as phonemes or morphemes.

The language would appear to be ordered modularly, i.e. to consist of a set of subsystems, which are labelled as 'levels of language', such as phonology, morphology or syntax. Most knowledge about language is unconscious and cannot be accessed directly. The task of the linguist is often to demonstrate the existence of this unconscious knowledge and to suggest methods of describing it.

5.9 Structural notions in linguistics

Language can be observed at any given point in time - synchronic - or over a period of time considered as diachronic.

-----> Time axis

t1 t2 t3

The term synchronic indicates studying the language either at t1, or t2 or t3 whereas diachronic study can comprise of t1+t2+t3 or looking at the difference between t3 and t2 or t2 and t1. Language needs to be also distinguished between two levels - parole/performance - and the system of a language which can be seen as the abstract ability of the native speaker to speak his/her native language - competence - and linguistic knowledge - langue. The linear ordering of elements is called a syntagm and the vertical array of possible elements for a slot is a paradigm.

Paradigm

I have a cat

You own a dog

syntagm-----

The choice of lexical items in a given sentence is considered a syntagmatic choice. For the first sentence, syntagm is I, have, a and cat. We have replaced all three words with you, own and dog to get another utterance this is called paradigmatic choice. Linguistic units can be classified according to whether they are open, like the lexicon,

and can take on new elements or closed, like phonetics and morphology, which cannot be expanded at will by speakers.

5.9.1 Characteristics of open vs closed classes

Content words are called as open class or infinite set. We can and regularly add new words to these classes, such as Bollywood, blog, gherao, and 24/7, pronounced as "twenty-four seven."

On the contrary, the closed class contains—

- ❖ Small number of units
- ❖ Polysemous and multi-functional words
- ❖ Speakers use them unconsciously

Function words are called closed-class words or finite sets. It is difficult to think of any conjunctions, prepositions, or pronouns that have recently entered the language as these items are not productive in a language. The small set of personal pronouns such as I, me, mine, he, she, and so on are part of this class.

Elements which are common in all languages are regarded as language universals. Every language has vowel sounds- it is argued as an absolute universal. Let us consider concrete examples in the next section.

5.9.2 Talking about language and linguistic data

The language one uses to talk about language is termed as a metalanguage. For example, notions like pro-drop (in south Asian Languages subjects are dropped if they are pronoun) are used to describe the optionality of subjects.

iv. (ami/amra) jacchi (Bangla)

I/we going

'I/we is/are going'.

In iv) the subject is optional as it can be understood from the context. However, in English subjects can never be dropped. We even require dummy subjects called the expletives.

v. It rained.

In v) 'it' is called an expletive or dummy subject.

There are different methods of collecting object language data: one's own intuitions,

elicitation from other native speakers or the use of a text corpus. We now turn to the core of grammatical constructions.

5.9.3 The grammatical core

The core elements of language are formed in terms of the Words or lexical items. The major categories are nouns, verbs, adjectives and prepositions/postpositions in natural languages. The minor categories are called auxiliaries, case markers, number and gender features. Grammar is largely an autonomous system with its rules which need not come from by language external considerations; cf. the gender system of German or Hindi. There is some indirect evidence for the reality of rules. This comes mainly from language pathology and the area of speech errors.

5.10 Areas of linguistics

We can talk about several areas within linguistics which interface between language and other cognitive functions such as writing and thinking. The history of linguistics comprises of various theories which have been proposed in the attempt at explaining the nature of the human language faculty. These theories can be grouped into four broad categories.

- ❖ non-theoretical studies before the 19th century
- ❖ historical linguistics 19th century
- ❖ structuralism first half of 20th century
- ❖ generative grammar second half of 20th century

Theoretical linguistics develops models of language competence while applied linguistics deals with the uses to which linguistics can be put into applications such as language teaching or speech pathology. All languages are divided into levels which are the divisions made according to the status of elements - sounds (phonology), words (morphology), sentences (syntax) and (semantics) and language use (pragmatics).

Areas of linguistics are concerned with the approach and scope of a linguistic study. This ranges from the social uses of language (sociolinguistics) to the process of learning language (language acquisition), and historical processes (language change) and natural language processing to Artificial Intelligence.

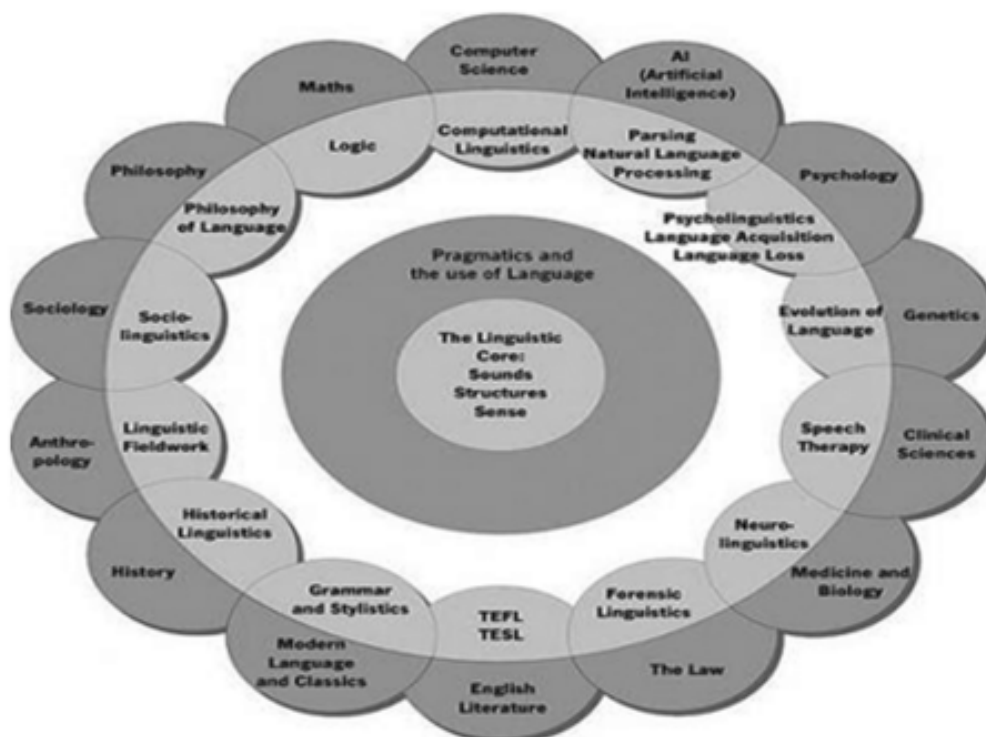


Figure 1: http://www.middlebury.edu/media/view/462840/standard/tomeis_linguistics.jpg

Various linguistic theories have been developed over the past two centuries. Three main schools can be classified as a) Neogrammarianism (late 19th century), b) structuralism (first half of 20th century), and c) generative grammar (second half of 20th century).

5.11 Summary

In this module, we have discussed the main ideas pertaining to language, linguistics and their relation. Language is a system of vocal signs with an internal structure. Signs combine an exponent (a sequence of letters or sounds) with a meaning. There are certain elements which are common to all languages (despite a lot of dissimilarities) known as language universals. Linguists analyze languages at various levels such as phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

5.12 Review Questions

1. What is the principle of recursion? Describe its manifestation in one of the languages you speak.

2. What is the iconicity of language? How do we distinguish traffic signals and human signs?
3. Give us four examples of language universals.
4. Do you observe any difference between langue and parole in terms of languages you know?
5. Explain the design features articulated by Hockett. Describe the difference between prevarication and reflexivity.
6. What is metalanguage? Do we need it to learn language?
7. How do you understand the terms 'syntagm' and paradigm'?
8. What are the various levels at which language operates?
9. How do we distinguish between content words and structure words?
- 10 Do all languages behave alike? Give some general principles of linguistics in support of your answer.

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Unit 6 □ Branches of Linguistics

- 6.1 Introduction**
- 6.2 Objectives**
- 6.3 Phonetics and Phonology**
 - 6.3.1 Consonant Chart**
 - 6.3.2 Cardinal Vowels**
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6.1 Introduction

In the previous unit, you have learnt the basic definitions related to language and linguistics and certain features which are unique to Human Language. Here let us first recapitulate some of the concepts I have already introduced. Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, linguistics can be divided into several branches: descriptive linguistics and historical/comparative linguistics, synchronic and diachronic linguistics (if it is based on its aspect of time). Languages are studied in terms of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It can also be looked at from sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic (if it is related to or combined with the disciplines of sociology and psychology respectively) perspectives. Here we will discuss the core components of Linguistics first and then move to the application side.

6.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- a. Understand the scope of linguistics and its various branches,
- b. Identify various aspects of language and their details,
- c. Establish the link between different branches of language study,
- d. Understand why errors happen in language use and how to view them.

6.3 Phonetics and Phonology

Phonetics is the study of human speech sounds and phonology is the classification of the sounds within the system of a particular language or languages. Phonetics is divided into three types according to the production (articulatory), transmission (acoustic) and perception (auditory) of sounds. Three categories of sounds must be recognized at the outset: phones (human speech sounds), phonemes (smallest units which distinguish meaning in a language), allophones (non-distinctive units). Sounds can be divided into consonant segments and vowel segments. The former can be characterized according to 1) place and 2) manner of articulation. Sounds can be distinguished in terms of aspiration as in [k] vs. [kh].

Consider more examples -

- 1) Place of articulation

labial, labio-dental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, glottal

2) Manner of articulation

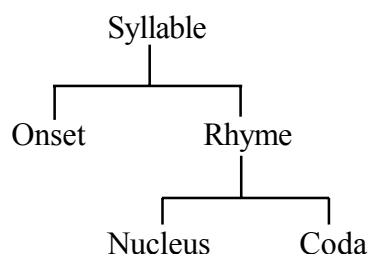
stops, fricatives, affricates, glides, vowels

3) Voice

voiced or voiceless

voicing feature e.g. [k] vs. [g]

Phonotactics deals with the combinations of sounds possible and where sounds can occur in a syllable. The major structure for the organisation of sounds is the syllable. It consists of an onset (beginning), a rhyme (everything after the beginning) which can be sub-divided into a nucleus (vowel or vowel-like centre) and a coda.



Prosody is concerned with features of words and sentences above the level of individual sounds, e.g. stress, pitch, intonation.

Pitch movements

The two most common pitch movements are:

1. Rising pitch yes
2. Falling pitch yes

Stress is about which sounds we emphasize in words and sentences. For example, in the word 'banana' the stress is on the second syllable, in the word 'orange' the stress is on the first syllable. In sentences, we usually stress the most important, 'content' words. Rhythm is about how we use a combination of stressed and unstressed words in sentences. Sentences have strong beats (the stressed words) and weak beats (the unstressed words). Intonation is the way the pitch of a speaker's voice goes up or down as they speak. We use intonation to help get our message across.

6.3.1 Consonant Chart

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2005)

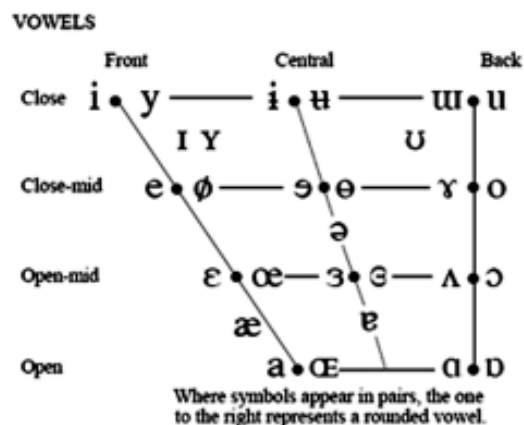
CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)											© 2005 IPA
	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			ʀ					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

6.3.2 Cardinal Vowels

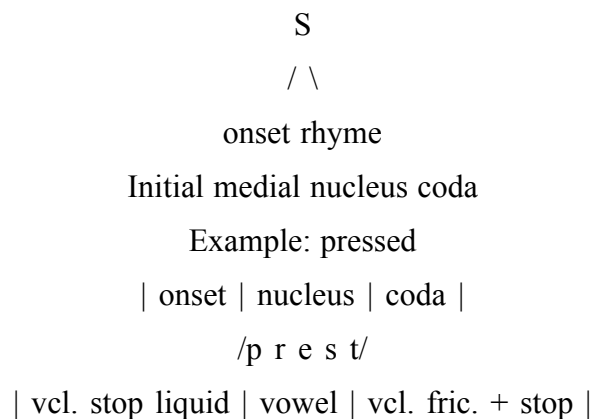
In order to characterize vowels satisfactorily, the cardinal vowel system was introduced at the beginning of the 20th century by the English phonetician Daniel Jones. The basic principle is that extreme positions for the articulation of vowels are taken as reference points and all other possible vowel articulations are set in relation to them.

The vowel quadrangle used for the representation of vowels is derived from a side view of the oral cavity with the face turned to the left, that is the position of /i/ is maximally high and front, the position of /u/ is maximally high and back while the low vowels /a/ and /ɔ/ are maximal low front and low back respectively.



Note The left symbol of each is unrounded; the right one (other than the back open vowel) is rounded. There is a general correlation between unroundedness and frontness and roundedness and backness, i.e. these value combinations are much more common than their opposites.

6.3.3 Syllable structure



6.4 Morphology

The term morphology has its etymology is Greek: morph- means 'shape, form', and morphology is the study of form or forms. The emergence of Morphology as a component of linguistics was not until the 19th century.

- " Works of Bopp 1816 claimed that Sanskrit, Latin, Persian and Germanic languages have a common origin. Franz Bopp's Evidence was based on the grammatical endings of the words.
- " Between (1819-1837), Jacob Grimm published *Deutsche Grammatike* which emphasizes on the sound patterning and word-formation patters of the Germanic languages and their relation with other Indo European Languages.
- " Max Muller 1899 Oxford lectures noted that the evolution of words would express the processes involved in the evolution of languages just like Morphology in Biology.

In linguistics, morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed. The minimal unit is a morpheme. Morphologists study identification of morphemes, smallest linguistic units with a grammatical function. Morph is the

phonological realization of the morpheme. English past tense markers have Allomorphs variants. For example, the English past tense morpheme that we spell -ed has three morphs. Jump'jumped ..the final sound /t/ after a voiceless, voiced /d/ in the presence of l repel-> repelled... change because of the environment, and /id/ as in batted after /t/ sound.

Root -Stem-Affixes e.g.: Re-consider+ation

A stem is a base unit to which another morphological piece is attached. The stem can be simple, made up of only one part, or complex.

The root is like a stem in constituting the core of the word to which other pieces attach, but the term refers only to morphologically simple units. Elements that are attached to stem are called affixes.

6.5 Syntax

Syntax studies the level of Language that lies between words and the meaning of utterances: sentences. It is the level that mediates between sounds that someone produces (organized into words) and what they intended to say. Early syntacticians distinguish between deep structure - the level on which the unambiguous semantic structure of a sentence is represented - and surface structure - the actual form of a sentence. Sentence structure is normally displayed employing a tree diagram (the so-called 'phrase structure') and by a system of rewrite rules, one can move from an initial unit (the entire sentence) to the individual elements (a so-called 'terminal string'). The term generation is used in linguistics to describe exhaustively the structure of sentences.

Whether it also refers to how speakers produce sentences, from the moment of conceiving an idea of saying a sentence, has not been finally clarified yet. A transformation is a change in form between the deep and the surface and maintains the relatedness of semantically similar sentences such as active and passive ones. Generative grammar can be divided into three main periods -an early one, dating from Chomsky (1957), to a central one which was also initiated by Chomsky (1965) and a more recent one which reached its maturity in the 1980s with the development of the government and binding model. Universal grammar represents an attempt to specify what structural elements are present in all languages, i.e. what is the common core, and to derive means for describing these adequately. The language would appear to be organised modularly. Thus syntax is independent of phonology for instance, though there is an interface between these two levels of language.

The purpose of analysing the internal structure of sentences is :

- 1) to reveal the hierarchy in the ordering of elements
- 2) to explain how surface ambiguities come about
- 3) to demonstrate the relatedness of certain sentences.

To begin with, however, students should be aware of how syntax is acquired by young children.

6.5.1 Phrase structure grammar

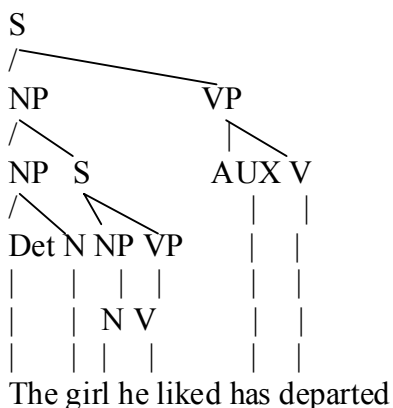
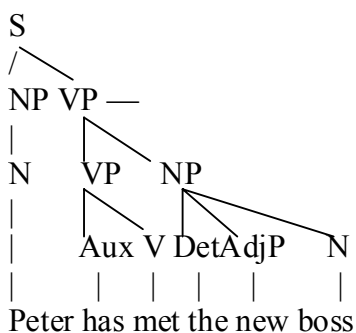
This is a basic type of grammar which attempts to show the structure which lies behind a sentence by breaking it down into its parts. It can be represented in the form of tree diagrams.

Sentence — Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase

Verb Phrase— Verb + Noun Phrase

Noun Phrase— Determiner + Noun

(determiner = articles, possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, numerals, etc.)



6.5.2 Deep and surface structure

To indicate the nature of the structure which sentences have but which is not evident from their spoken form, one uses the term deep structure and surface structure. The term surface structure has an obvious meaning. This is the actual form which a sentence has when spoken. The deep structure, on the other hand, is a model of the structure necessary to account for the meaning of a sentence. As mentioned above this might correspond to a map of a real but unobservable mental structure, however, there is no direct proof of this.

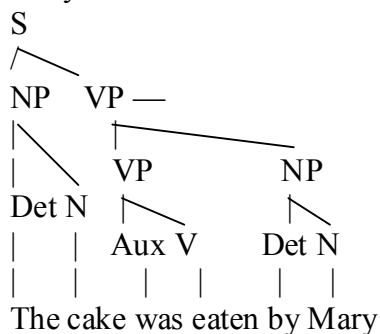
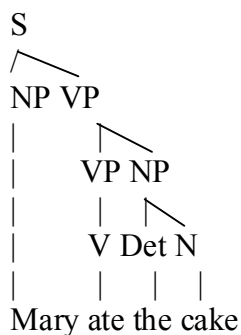
6.5.3 Transformations

A transformation alters a basic sentence structure into a derived one in deep structure.

ACTIVE PASSIVE

NP1 V NP2 NP2 be V -en by NP1

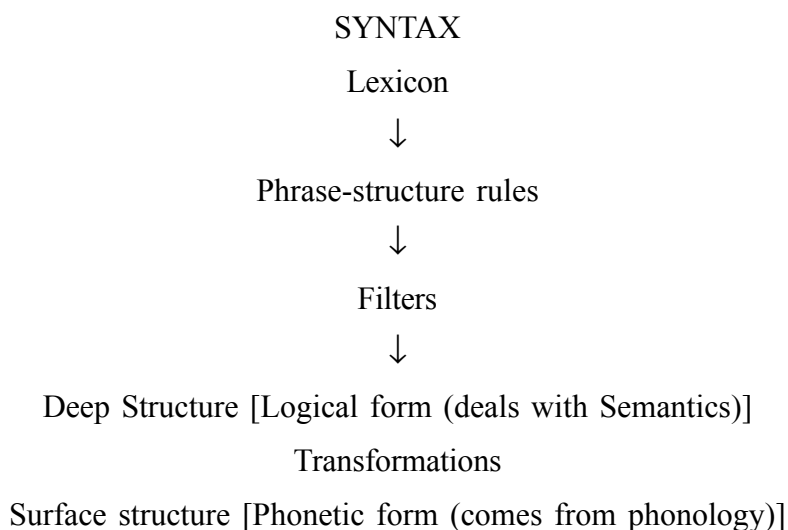
Mary ate the cake. The cake was eaten by Mary.



6.5.4 The standard theory

Generative grammar has undergone several major revisions since its initial

introduction by Noam Chomsky in 1957. The present term standard theory is used to refer to the model of generative grammar as expounded in the 1965 book by Chomsky *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*.



The dominant theory of syntax is due to Noam Chomsky and his colleagues, starting in the mid-1950s and continuing to this day. This theory, which has had many different names through its development (Transformational Grammar (TG), Standard Theory, Extended Standard Theory, Government and Binding Theory (GB), Principles and Parameters approach (P&P) and Minimalism (MP)), is often given the blanket name Generative Grammar. Cook & Newson, (2007) have given the following order for the history of generative syntactic theories along with input from (MIT Department of Linguistics and Philosophy).

6.6 Semantics

Semantics is concerned with the study of meaning and is related to both philosophy and logic. Semiotics is the study of communication systems in general. Sign language is a common means of communication among those who are deaf and can, if learned from childhood, approach natural language in terms of scope and flexibility. There are four recognisable types of meaning: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, sentence meaning and utterance meaning which refer to the areas of derivational morphology, inflectional morphology, syntax and pragmatics respectively. External meaning relationships involve sense (relationships between words) and denotation (relationship of the word to what it signifies).

There are various internal meaning relationships such as synonymy (sameness of meaning), antonymy (difference in meaning), hyponymy (hierarchical order of meaning). Different models for semantic analysis are available: prototype theory, where a central concept is taken as typical and less central ones are peripheral and componential analysis which seeks to break words down into their component semantic parts.

6.7 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of language from usage perspective. It has various sub-forms depending on the emphasis given by linguists, for instance, it can be investigated from a strictly linguistic stance or with regard to social factors. In the analysis of conversation various implicatures - 'rules' are applied. They refer to the quality, quantity, relevance and manner of conversation and are assumed to be almost universally valid.

A speech act is a classifiable and structured utterance spoken in an actual communication situation. There are preconditions for speech acts such as felicity conditions which must be met for a speech act to be successful. Speech acts are classified according to their effect. Locutionary acts simply express sense or reference. Illocutionary acts express the intentions of the speaker whereas for perlocutionary acts the effect is of greatest importance. There are further subdivisions in type such as directives (commands for example) or commissives (promises for instance). An indirect speech act is one where the intended meaning of a sentence is different from the literal one.

Deixis concerns the various types of pointing which is possible with language. This can be direct, with adverbs of direction, or indirect, for instance with different types of pronoun. Discourse analysis is concerned with the analysis of spoken language in sections larger than the sentence. The two main features for successful discourse are coherence (based on semantic transparency) and cohesion (achieved through formal mechanisms such as sentence connectors and anaphoric elements).

6.7.1 Types of Speech Acts

Speech acts can be classified as follows

- 1) Locutionary acts express the sense or reference as in A cow is an animal or
The earth is round.
- 2) By Illocutionary acts we indicate the intentions of the speaker are expressed by using a performative verb such as I acted like Mary.

- 3) Perlocutionary acts deal with the effect of linguistic action is central. Perlocutionary acts include those which have a visible effect on the speaker, such as insulting or persuading someone. The second and third types above are concerned with intention and effect and are thus the more prototypical type of speech acts.

6.8 Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is a relatively recent discipline which investigates the use of language in society, particularly in order to determine what the possible reasons for language variation are and hence to understand more about the process of language changes. Various methods have been developed in sociolinguistics such as random and objective. The varieties of language examined by sociolinguists are usually urban and in particular take account of the factors class, age and sex. The central element in a sociolinguistic study is the linguistic variable - some item of language (phonological, morphological, syntactic or semantic) - which is suspected of varying systematically in correlation with the factors such mentioned.

There are various kinds of a speech community depending on the linguistic configuration. Diglossia involves a division of languages according to function, whereas a bilingual community has two languages without such a functional distribution. The social development of a language can lead to split. This, in turn, may involve the question of language maintenance and preservation. If a language is discontinued by its entire community one speaks of language death. An important aspect of the social use of language involves the means of addressing others. German, like other European languages apart from English, has a pronominal distinction between acquaintances and strangers which is connected with the notions of power and solidarity expressed in language.

6.8.1 Language Variety studies

A dialect is a regional form of a language. It frequently is part of a continuum of dialects. The term sociolect, or sometimes social dialect, is used for a recognisable form on a continuum determined by social class. The history of dialectology goes back to the last century and can be seen as an offshoot of Indo-European comparative philology and was understandably purely historical in its orientation.

It used such techniques as the questionnaire and was interested in compiling linguistic maps, particularly those conserving older rural usage.

6.8.2 Corpus linguistics

A corpus is a collection of language data which is compiled and analyzed linguistically. Such data can be synchronic or diachronic. In the latter case, it consists of texts, in the former it could also contain sound files or transcription of speech. The advantage of a corpus is that it can offer sufficient attestations of a structure or word to allow linguists to make statistically reliable statements. Equally, corpora can be used to disprove assumptions, e.g. about when a certain structure appeared, in what type of text, or with what author. A corpus can also be used for style analysis and may in some cases help to determine authorship by looking at recurrent patterns in the syntax or vocabulary of an author. For example, the Brown corpus is a corpus that contains the speech of present-day American English.

6.8.3 Language and gender

The area of language and gender is concerned with many issues. There are two main views on language differences between the genders. One relies upon the difference between the two biological genders male and female, while the other stresses the fact that male dominance is the operative force. There have been many attempts to use gender neutrality in language by creating new generic forms such as chairperson or simply chair instead of chairman/chairwoman. The goal of such creations is to arrive at a neutral label. These words can be used for either genders or the third gender without highlighting any particular. In the area of written address, English has had considerable problems, e.g. the forms Mrs And Miss (which stress the marital status of the woman, but not of the man) are now regarded as antiquated and unacceptable. The use of Ms. shows some of the difficulties of the attempts to neutralize the language: the success depends on whether the new form is accepted in the society in question.

6.9 Language acquisition

Language acquisition is the process whereby children learn their mother tongue. It consists of abstracting structural information from the language they hear around them and internalizing this information for later use. This phenomenon of language acquisition can explain why one can produce a theoretically unlimited set of sentences in one's native language. This position is considered as the nativist view and contrasts with an earlier empiricist view.

There are fairly definite stages which a child goes through during early language acquisition. These form a progression from the babbling stage to that of the multi-

word sentence. The first comprehensible word is usually uttered between nine months and one year. By the age of 6 or 7, a child is expected to acquire all the structural features of his/her native language.

Language acquisition is paralleled by other linguistic situations, notably by that of creolization where speakers with little or no linguistic input manage to create a new language in a very short period of time. It also argues that children need to get a linguistic environment within their puberty level without which they become incapable of speaking. This is called the critical age hypothesis. There are different models of second language acquisition which reflect the manner in which learners gain knowledge of the new language, either in a similar manner to their native language - hypothesis - or against the background of this - the interference hypothesis.

There are also models which emphasize how a second language is produced (monitor model) or which stress the role of external factors (discourse and acculturation models).

6.10 Language and the brain

Neurolinguistics is the study of all aspects of language directly related to the functioning of the brain. It is difficult to determine where the language faculty is located but at least two main areas (frontal lobes) have been identified in the brain: 1) Broca's area responsible for the production and 2) Wernicke's area which is involved in understanding language. Aphasia refers to any physically-based malfunctioning of language. The two main sources of this are lesions caused by accidents and brain disease resulting from cancerous tumours. There are various kinds of impairment which may involve production or comprehension or both. An individual with aphasia may have difficulty finding words or producing sounds or may show a lack of grammatical words.

The tip of the tongue phenomenon can be seen with non-pathological speakers and is characterised by a sudden block in lexical retrieval and which is released again for no apparent reason. Slips of the tongue involve the involuntary and unintended switching of elements among words of a sentence. Normally the onset or rhyme of adjacent syllables is switched and this phenomenon offers firm evidence for the validity of the syllable as a phonological unit.

6.11 Contrastive linguistics

Contrastive linguistics is a relatively recent sub-discipline in linguistics which is concerned with the comparison of at least two languages with the deliberate goal of

indicating the pitfalls for language learners with the first language and a target language L2. In its orientation, contrastive linguistics is synchronic and does not consider possible genetic relationships between languages. There is a theoretical and an applied approach to the field which is concerned with outlining general principles and applying these in practical analyses respectively. The main phenomenon which is considered in contrastive linguistics is interference which represents the use of structural features from the outset language in the target one. While this by no means explains all mistakes in the target language it does account for a large number of systematic mistakes - technically termed errors.

The simplest form of interference is substitution. Speakers also show over- and under-differentiation according to whether a feature, possible in the target language, is more or less frequent in the outset language and hence used more or less often by the second language speaker. Interference is found on all levels of language. For instance, on the sound level, it represents a foreign accent. On the lexical level, it is found in the many cases of false friends. In syntax, it can lead to a not inconsiderable amount of misunderstanding if the structures produced cannot be processed by native speakers of the target language. It can also be found on the level of pragmatics where differences in discourse strategies can lead to disconcerting effects in the target language.

6.12 Language change

Language change is present in all languages at all stages and is largely regular. Speakers are not always conscious of this. However, if it involves elements of an open class, like the lexicon, then speakers usually notice it and may try to prevent it by prescriptive behaviour. Language change is not intentional but arises from the natural variation present in language at all times, e.g. that which occurs when speakers attempt to move upwards in society or when they demonstrate solidarity with the class to which they belong. There may be an internal motivation for change. This is mainly the case when the change leads to paradigmatic regularity, a so-called analogical change which results in more regular nominal or verbal forms.

Speakers tend to overestimate the avoidance of homophony as a source for change and not to grasp long-term structural changes which are often connected with typological drift, the movement from one type to another over several centuries, e.g. from synthetic to analytic in the history of English. Change may lead to a shift in status for linguistic elements. For instance, transparent words may become opaque. Full lexical words may criticize (become temporarily attached to stems) and then appear as inflections (permanently attached). This process is known as

grammaticalisation. At any one stage of a language, there will be remnants of former changes (such as umlaut in English). These remnants often appear as suppletive forms in paradigms.

In historical linguistics, there are two main methods for gaining knowledge of earlier stages of a language: the comparative method which involves looking at forms common to two or more genetically related languages and the technique of internal reconstruction which uses information about the structure of a single language at different periods to gain knowledge about a very early stage. Language change is found on all levels of language, both in the past and in the present. Consult the above sections for examples from different spheres.

6.12.1 Language contact and language change

Languages come into contact and they exchange morphological syntactic strategies. This gives rise to language contact situations and contact-induced varieties. This contact has also had some kind of effect on the form of the language involved. Here one must distinguish between direct contact when speakers of two or more languages intermingle, and indirect contact, when the second language is known only through the printed word or (nowadays) the non-print media. The latter type involves a language with sizeable prestige and results in cultural borrowings.

The third type of situation can be termed delayed effect contact because the effect is only apparent some considerable time later. Such an effect is usually low-level; such as that on the level of phonetics; but may cause major changes over long periods if the morphology is affected.

Stable contact situations may arise with bilingualism as a result. If the languages in contact are functionally distinguished then one calls the situation diglossia. Contact between dialects is also of importance as seen clearly in the history of English. Here many forms survive in the standards which have their origin outside of the east midland area around London which was the geographical source for early Standard English. Languages which are contained in a geographically well-delimited region can often form what is termed a linguistic area (a translation of German Sprachbund). These languages frequently come to share structural properties which diffuse throughout the area, irrespective of genetic affiliation.

6.13 Language typology

Language typology involves the classification of languages according to their grammatical structure and not based on genetic affiliation.

There are four basic types: analytic (little or no morphology), synthetic (portmanteau inflections), agglutinative (one to one correspondence between form and meaning), poly-synthetic/incorporating (Incorporated lexical and morphological forms).

There would seem to be a typological cycle such that languages develop from analytic to synthetic, back to analytic and so on. The shift to a synthetic type occurs largely when word forms coalesce and grammaticalisation occurs. A language can become analytic when it loses inflections through phonetic attrition as has happened in the history of English. This cycle need not be so neat and simple: there are frequently conflicting forces operating in a language so that incorporation and analysis may arise concurrently. Typology also concerns the question of universals. These refer to features which are present in all or almost all the languages. Furthermore, some universals imply the existence of others and are thus called implicational universals, a term coined by Joseph Greenberg, a leading figure in contemporary typological study.

6.14 Summary

The unit walks you through various branches/ components of linguistics. While the primary components of any language revolve around its phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics, Linguistics also interacts with society, history, culture, literature and many such facets of human life.

6.15 Review Questions

1. What is Linguistics?
2. How many branches of linguistics are discussed here?
3. What role does phonology play in linguistics?
4. How is phonology useful to the learners of a new language?
5. Are morphology and syntax related to each other?
6. What is the study of meaning called?
7. How many types of syntactic analysis are possible?
8. How are tree diagrams useful in understanding the structure of a sentence?
9. What is the role of contrastive linguistics?

10. What do we mean by speech acts? How many speech acts are discussed?
11. What does typology of language refer to?
12. Is language change natural? Can we avoid it?

6.16 References and Reading List

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Unit 7 □ Learning Strategies and Styles

- 7.1 Introduction**
- 7.2 Objectives**
- 7.3 Learning Strategies vs. Learning Styles**
- 7.4 Learning Styles**
 - 7.4.1 Role of the Teacher**
- 7.5 Learning Strategy**
- 7.6 Language Teaching Approaches**
- 7.7 Summary**
- 7.8 Review Questions**
- 7.9 Reading List**

7.1 Introduction

In this unit, you will learn the basic concepts related to the strategies of learning and styles related to language learning. Often language poses a challenge in the case of learning. We will talk about certain strategies here. At the outset, we need to distinguish the differences between learning strategies and learning styles. The unit discusses the difference between learning and learning strategies. Whereas the former is unconscious the latter is developed by the learners. Since every student possesses his/her own style of learning, it gives rise to different learning styles. Students use cognitive to social strategies to ease the difficulty of learning.

7.2 Objectives

- After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- a. Understand the difference between learning strategy and style
 - b. Understand the role teacher plays in promoting learning
 - c. Identify different approaches to teaching languages
 - d. Identify learner and teacher qualities.

7.3 Learning strategies vs. learning styles:

Go through the table to understand the salient differences in learning strategy and style.

Learning strategy

- ❖ Rubin (1987) describes learning strategies as strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly.
- ❖ Broadly speaking, learning styles can be defined as general approaches to language learning.
- ❖ Learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their learning.
- ❖ Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence.
- ❖ Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence.
- ❖ Throughout history, the best language students have used strategies ranging from naturalistic language practice techniques to analytic, rule-based strategies.

Learning styles

- ❖ Learning style refers to the preferred ways which individuals use to solve problems confronted in their learning.
- ❖ The learners' learning styles are often not perceived or used consciously. Learning style plays an important role for everyone to learn, to obtain information, to communicate with others.
- ❖ Being conscious of their learning styles will help students to improve their language learning proficiency.
- ❖ The term "learning style" originates from psychology. It broadly refers to how a learner tries to learn something, based on individual characteristics, used unconsciously and not perceived.
- ❖ Everyone has a learning style, but each person is as unique as a signature. Each signature appears to be influenced by both nature and nurture.

- ❖ Classification of language learning strategies has primarily followed the theory of cognition (Macaro, 2001). Cognition refers to how the brain works for information processing and retrieval.
- ❖ Classification of strategies has many advantages. Learning strategies have been classified by many scholars (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O'Malley et. al, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Stem, 1992; Ellis, 1994, etc.).
- ❖ Strategy subsets enable researchers to describe the correspondence between mental processes and strategic processes (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).
- ❖ Strategy inventories may also serve as a valuable reference guide for educational instructors in the process of promoting autonomy in the language learner.
- ❖ Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is one such classification system linking groups through a series of self-report assessments and questionnaires. Oxford divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect.
- ❖ Keefe (1979: 4) defines learning style as "characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment"; "Learning style is a consistent way of functioning that reflects underlying causes of behaviour".
- ❖ In 1987, Willing defines learning style as an inherent, pervasive set of characteristics related to how learners prefer to learn or to deal with new information.
- ❖ Reid (1995, 69) defines learning style as "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills, and a pervasive quality in the learning strategy or the learning behaviour of an individual".
- ❖ Learning strategies are the behaviours and thought that a learner engages in during learning that is intended to influence the learner's encoding process.

Now let us discuss the learning styles first and then we can proceed to learning strategies. The strategies a student uses to learn, depend greatly on his/her learning style.

7.4 Learning styles

Each student possesses his/her style of learning. As a result, we observe different students with different learning styles in the classroom. Some of these are listed below:

1. Visual or spatial learners:

Pupils need to see things to fully understand them. They learn best from visual objects such as diagrams, charts, etc. They prefer to write things down.

2. Auditory or musical learners:

They learn mainly through listening so they learn best through discussions and talking. They benefit most from reading texts aloud and using a tape recorder.

3. Physical or kinesthetic or tactile learners:

People learn by using their body, hands and sense of touch. They tend to use their muscles so they can be used well in playing, tidying, cleaning the board, collecting activity books, etc. They learn best through using their hands making things, fitting things together or taking them apart so hands-on activities are ideal to help those students learn best.

4. Social or interpersonal learners:

They prefer to learn in groups or with other people. They can understand others' feelings and intentions.

5. Solitary or intrapersonal learners:

Many prefer to work alone and use self-study as they can understand well the feelings, strengths and weaknesses. They tend to write a personal diary, achieve independent projects, discuss feelings about certain topics, express likes and dislikes, etc.

6. Verbal or linguistic learners:

Some also prefer using words, both in speech and writing.

7. Logical or mathematical:

Some students prefer using logic, reasoning and systems.

In conclusion, we can say, one uses learning strategies automatically without being aware of them.

7.4.1 The role of the teacher

The role of teachers here is to, first of all, recognize their students' learning strategies, and bring them to their attention and talk about them. Secondly, s/he should encourage students to use them in the classroom and use them more to make the learning process effective. We will discuss these issues more in section 7.5 and also in the next unit.

7.5 Learning strategy

Students use the following learning strategies most often when learning a language:

1. Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in indirect ways, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, and synthesizing.
2. Metacognitive strategies are used to manage the learning process overall, e.g. identifying preferences and the need for planning, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success.
3. Memory-related strategies help the learners link an item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding, e.g. using acronyms, sound similarities, images, keywords.
4. Compensatory strategies assist to know for missing knowledge, e.g. using gestures, miming or guessing the meaning from the context.
5. Affective strategies help us manage their emotions, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk.
6. Social strategies enable you to learn via interaction with others and understand the target culture, e.g. asking questions, asking for clarification, asking for conversation help, talking with a native-speaking partner, and exploring cultural and social norms.

Now, let us look at various teaching approaches which help in building learning strategies.

7.6 Language Teaching Approaches

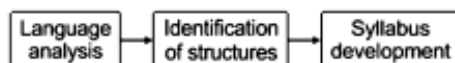
Ricardo E. Schütz explains how in learning languages, "a distinction is usually made between mother tongues, second languages, and foreign languages. A mother tongue is the first language or languages one learns (or acquires) as a child. When immigrants come to a new country and learn the language of that country, they learn it as a second language. On the other hand, when English-speaking students in the United States learn French or Spanish in school, or when Brazilians study English in Brazil, they are learning a foreign language."

The acronyms ESL and EFL denote learning of English as a Second and as a Foreign Language. Many theories about the learning and teaching of languages have been proposed. The study of these theories and how they influence language teaching methodology today is called applied linguistics.

The grammar-translation method (18th, 19th and early 20th century), for example, is an early method based on the assumptions that language is primarily graphic. The main purpose of second language study is to build knowledge of the structure of the language either as a tool for literary research and translation or the development of the learner's logical powers, and that the process of second language learning must be deductive, requires effort, and must be carried out with constant reference to the learner's first language.

The audio-lingual approach became popular from the 1940s through the 1960s. It is based on structural linguistics (structuralism) and behavioristic psychology (Skinner's behaviourism), and places heavy emphasis on spoken rather than written language, and the grammar of particular languages, stressing habit formation as a mode of learning. Rote memorization, role-playing and structure drilling are the predominant activities. Audio-lingual approaches do not depend so much on the instructor's creative ability and do not require excellent proficiency in the language.

STRUCTURALISM



BEHAVIORISM



By the middle of the 20th-century cognitive psychologists like Vygotsky and Piaget came up with theories that helped to explain the limited effectiveness of the traditional prescriptive and mechanistic approaches to language teaching. These theories serve as a basis for the new natural-communicative approaches.

Beginning in the 1950s, Noam Chomsky and his followers challenged previous assumptions about language structure and language learning. They introduced language as creative (not memorized), and rule-governed (not based on habit). The language also relies upon principles and parameters known as language universals. Most recently, there has also been a significant shift toward greater attention to reading and writing as a complement to listening and speaking, based on a new awareness of significant differences between spoken and written languages. It relies on the notion that dealing with language involves an interaction between the texts on the one hand, and the culturally-based world knowledge and experientially-based learning of the receiver on the other.

We now emphasize individualized instruction, more humanistic approaches to language learning, a greater focus on the learner, and greater emphasis on the development of communicative competence, as opposed to merely linguistic competence.

In addition to Chomsky's generativist approach, the advances in cognitive science and educational psychology put forth by Piaget and Vygotsky in the first half of the century strongly influenced language teaching theory in the 1960s and 70s.

These new trends favouring more humanistic views and putting a greater focus on the learner and social interaction gave way to the Natural (USA) and Communicative (England) approaches. Psychologist Charles Curran's Community Language Learning, as well as Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach (in the 1980s), are good examples of this latest trend in language teaching. Hammerly defines it as Communicative Acquisitions Naturalistic mega theory of language instruction.

7.7 Summary

In this unit, we have examined the notions related to language learning and strategies. While articulating on the strategies we have briefed a summary of the teaching approaches. I have shown how it all began with cognition and teaching now tries to take a more humane approach. In Unit 8, you will get a comprehensive overview of language teaching.

7.8 Review Questions

1. Adapting your speech to the listener can involve
 - A. giving attention to register.
 - B. making use of prompting.
 - C. politely correcting.
2. A common feature of speech which is not fluent is
 - A. hesitation.
 - B. encouragement.
 - C. turn-taking.
3. Interactive speaking involves
 - A. developing a topic.
 - B. using a variety of language patterns.
 - C. exchanging ideas.
4. An example of self-correction is
 - A. No, what I actually said was.....
 - B. I mean coming down the stairs, sorry.
 - C. That's right. In other words, a lot of people think that.....
5. Trying to help the listener can involve
 - A. requesting clarification.
 - B. interrupting.
 - C. paraphrasing.
6. The speaker uses repetition to
 - A. explain things more simply when communication has broken down.
 - B. speed up the interaction process.
 - C. clarify things for a listener who has not heard properly.
7. Write a brief note on generativist position on teaching
8. Try to differentiate the cognitive approaches with translation approach.

9. How many learning styles are discussed? Are these important?
10. How can a teacher help by recognizing the learner's learning style?
11. How are learning strategies different from learning styles?
12. What method of teaching is used now? Who influenced this method?

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Unit 8 □ Linguistics and ELT

- 8.1 Introduction**
- 8.2 Objectives**
- 8.3 English Language Teaching and the Importance of Linguistics**
- 8.4 Thinking about language**
- 8.5 Assessment**
- 8.6 Role of Socialization**
- 8.7 Role of Linguistics**
- 8.8 Methods and methodologies**
- 8.9 Summary**
- 8.10 Review Questions**
- 8.11 References**
- 8.12 Reading List**

8.1 Introduction

In this unit, we will discuss an applied area of linguistics known as English language teaching. The scope for research in this area is quite open and dynamic. Linguistics is considered essential for language teaching because linguistics and language teaching can be likened to the relationship of knowledge about the engine and the skill in driving a car. It will be better for the driver to support himself with some knowledge about the car or the engine so that he can drive it well and know how to overcome some engine trouble in case he has to face it. In the same way, it will be better if a language teacher has some knowledge about, for instance, the characteristics of the language in general and the specific language he is teaching in particular. In this relation, he should know how language works and express meaning, and what structures are used in the particular language he is teaching. He should get familiar, for instance, with the theory about the general mechanism of producing speech sounds, so that he will be able to tackle any pronunciation problem his students may encounter.

By studying linguistics he will have deeper insights into the nature of language and act accordingly in teaching the language. For instance, when he agrees that the use of language is a matter of habits and practice; in teaching it to his students he must implant the habit of using it for communication until it becomes deeply established.

8.2 Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- a. Understand the role of linguistics in language teaching
- b. Identify the needs for teacher to be aware of language analysis
- c. Apply linguistic principles in language teaching
- d. Use proper methods of assessment while evaluating learner scripts.

8.3 English Language Teaching and the Importance of Linguistics

The English language is the 3rd most popular languages in the world according to Ethnologue 2019. The demand for learning this language is ever increasing. As philosopher Franz Fanon once mentioned, "To speak a language is to take on a world, a culture." Undoubtedly there is a demand for gaining language proficiency. In this Unit, the objective will be to discuss the need for understanding of Linguistics for English Language teachers and learners.

It is argued that English Teachers need to be well trained in Linguistics because when they are on duty, they work like correspondents, education specialists and assessors. They also work as educated human beings. Teachers are the forerunners of developing a sense of negotiators of socialization to their students.

The teachers work like connectors as it is really important to develop good conversational skills to be able to communicate with students from varied backgrounds. Teachers and trainers should develop their communication strategies so that they know the way to structure the lessons and deliver them to the students. Students require to understand language for communicating productively in class and outside as well. Conversely, understanding the students also becomes crucial. Listening to the students carefully and responding to them is an important issue. It is because understanding and assessing what they know, indicates their ability to reflect. The students are a crucial part of assessment related to teaching techniques which the teachers must go through. Linguistics is really important for teachers to instill confidence in their work because lately, the model of education is innovating rapidly. The classrooms are getting diverse and there are more students with diverse socio-economic backgrounds and most importantly different levels of exposure to English. This shows that teachers, to a great extent, will have to face students whose first language is not

English. In this type of world of rapid innovation and diversity, a deeper knowledge of linguistics will assist teachers to notice that the speech forms they value are characteristics of their own culture and background. They are neither general nor characteristically more effective than other possible speech forms. If the teachers cannot identify the effectiveness of other ways of speaking, this can shake their student's self-esteem in their ability to communicate.

Consider the awkward situation given by Smitherman (1977) through a conversation thread which is as follows:

- ◆ Student (excitedly): Miz Jones, you remember that show you tole us about? Well, me and my momma's nem?
- ❖ Teacher (interrupting with a "warm" smile): Bernadette, start again. I'm sorry, but I can't understand you.
- ◆ Student (confused): Well, it was that show, me and my momma!
- ❖ Teacher (interrupting again, still with that "warm" smile): Sorry, I still can't understand you.
- ◆ (Student, now silent, even more, confused than ever, looks at the floor, says nothing.)
- ❖ Teacher: Now Bernadette, first of all, it's Mrs Jones, not Miz Jones. And you know it was an exhibition, not a show. Now, haven't I explained to the class over and over again that you always put yourself last when you are talking about a group of people and yourself doing something? So, therefore, you should say what?
- ◆ Student: My momma and me?
- ❖ Teacher (exasperated): No! My mother and I. Now start again, this time right.
- ◆ Student: Aw, that's okay, it wasn't nothin.

This is why it is really important to have Linguistic knowledge so that neither the child nor the teacher will be humiliated during communication in the class. This is how Linguistics can prepare the English Language teachers to work with students with varied cultural, social and linguistic backgrounds. Their understanding of the use of language would be probably different from the Native- Indian English speaker which is a key factor in teaching.

Teachers work as educational specialists. They select educational materials for specific classes, grades and or levels for the children in that specific group. This involves a careful and thorough basis of student evaluation results and the capability to differentiate between flawed knowledge of English and cognitive learning obstacles. Language and linguistics play an essential role in the teaching process. It plays a serious developmental role throughout the school years without the student's cultural, social or linguistic differences. For this reason, teachers are frolicking a serious part in supporting language development. Language teachers utilize the important aspects of language associated with the academic syllabus of the different subject courses. These educationalists must fully instill the functions and systems of language operations for this will help them to be able to choose materials that help improve the students' linguistic awareness. This will help the teachers to come up with effective and innovative planning of educational materials of instructions which will give the students chance to apply new forms and modes of presentation to which they are being shown. This is why a basic knowledge of educational linguistics is also a requirement to endorse language progress with all of the students in classrooms currently as the teachers need to help the students become more conscious about the linguistic functions in various types of communication through the course.

8.4 Thinking about language

The foremost important question here is to ask 'what do English language teachers teach and learners learn?' This seems rather illogical. The question seems to answer itself; it seems self-evident to note that what teachers teach and learners learn in ELT classrooms is language, specifically the English language.

However, if we start to explain this common-sense understanding of ELT, what initially seems clear is revealed to be full of complexity, and raises several dilemmas that are embedded in the everyday practices of ELT teachers and their approach to teaching.

For example, you need to ask the following:

- i) Is the language in the classroom addressed primarily as a system of grammatical rules or patterns, or as a system for expressing meaning and communicating, perhaps communicating to solve tasks or for learners to express their own identity? Of course, it is possible, perhaps likely, that a combination of these perspectives may be part of teachers' understandings of language and apparent in their classroom teaching.

- ii) If so, how can they be combined coherently?
- iii) Similarly, which language skills are of primary importance in the ELT classroom- 'spoken skills' (i.e., listening and speaking) or 'written skills' (i.e., reading and writing)?
- iv) Thus, what is meant by language knowledge (or knowledge of the language)? Are learners learning about language so they can consciously and explicitly describe how language operates, or is the focus more on how to use the language via implicit knowledge below the level of consciousness, perhaps with little or no explicit attention to 'rules'? And how might teachers balance these perspectives in practice?

These are the questions that we will try to answer in the subsequent sections.

8.5 Assessment

English Language teachers also need to work on a lot of assessment of assignments. Teachers assess students in terms of their academic and communicative progress. Do you realize the importance of feedback to students about their (students) own progress? It is really important as it affects their sense of "self-esteem" as learners to the more crucial decisions about reading group placement, promotion or referral for evaluation. Teachers need to invest a lot of focus on segregating the learners according to their capabilities at an as early age as possible. Usually, in several nursery schools, the students-to-be are tested with "Readiness Test," and according to the results of these tests, the students are segregated according to the performance they have shown in the test. To make a just decision about the students' capabilities, these educationalists need to know the different sources of variation in a community that speaks a vernacular variety of English, standard development for L2 learners of English, normal divergences from the matured standard that are allied with early development stages, or developmental malfunction. English Language teachers must be using up a lot of time understanding and instilling the educational linguistics in them so that misunderstanding a student could be prevented.

8.6 Role of socialization

We consider teachers as the forerunners of developing a sense of negotiators of socialization to their students as well. They play a unique role in the field of socialization in the life of students. Socialization commences at home which continues at school and then later throughout the whole life. The students learn the daily routine, the

moral beliefs and the means and manners of communication of their cultural communities through the assistance of teachers. From a linguistic and communicative point of view, students without knowledge of English who enter school are asked to learn the Second language as it is the medium of instruction of that particular institution. The students tend to grab the language very fast at a young age and so minimal help is required and due to this, the children can blend in with the other students socially and academically through communicating while they learn the new language. In this situation, the parents and teachers have to work hard so that children can learn the language effectively. If the parents don't know the English language, then, they must learn it as well so that their children can be guided at home as well as in school. The language should be spoken at home as well as in school to improve rapidly. We are not saying that the mother language should not be spoken at all but to improve both spoken and written English, rapid practice is required at home and outside the home. When there is a problem where the parents do not know English, teachers must give a little bit of extra attention to their children at the place that they can practice. Earlier in this unit, we have mentioned that English language teachers play a very important role in the students' linguistic and social life. Through the study of linguistics, teachers confidently approach the students and through knowing educational linguistics, the teachers can have the ability to understand the role of the first language (which is not English) in the students' lives and that of their own families and with proper care and without humiliating the student, a teacher can assist the student successfully regardless of what the culture of the child (ren) is.

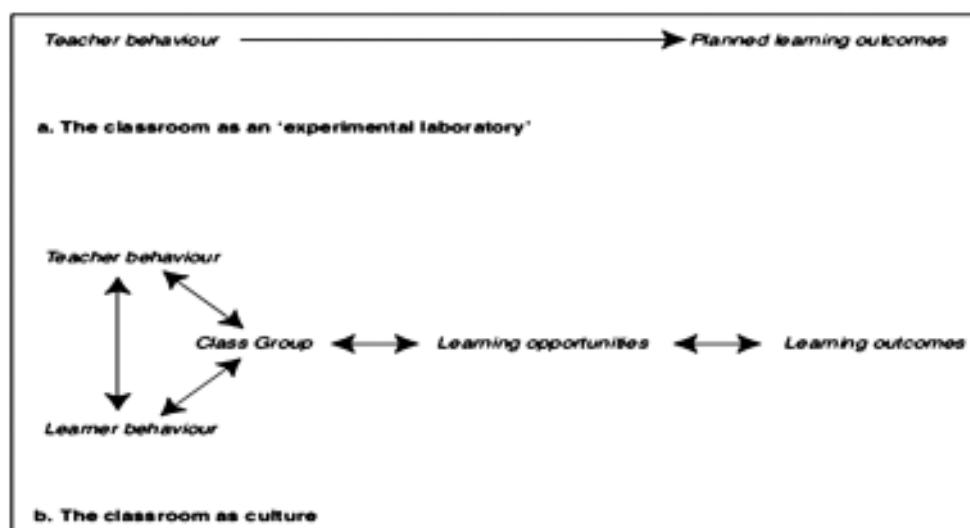


Figure 3.1 Metaphors and the teaching-learning relationship
Source: Both perspectives adapted from Senior, 2006: 278-9.

8.7 Role of Linguistics

Teachers are expected to know the function of the language and the way it contributes to skillful reading and writing. Knowing Basic English indicates that an English teacher should know how to distinguish between the parts of speech like nouns, verbs, articles, consonants, adjectives and more such categories. The roles of some branches of linguistics e.g. phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, generative transformational grammar, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics have been already discussed in Unit 6. There is another segment of linguistics which is called applied linguistics which studies the use and application of linguistic research in other domains. Among the subfields of linguistics mentioned in the above paragraph, the sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics are the branches of linguistics that are related to other specialised fields of study. Seeing this, it can be said that Linguistics is like a research-based field of studying any language. Thus, if a teacher undergoes the process of learning and understanding linguistics, he/she is a complete professional in teaching English Language and also English as a Second Language (ESL). The factors discussed in the unit are interconnected between the teachers, the academic and social life of students, the culture and ethnicity of both the students and teachers and also the linguistic issues.

Under the applied linguistics a couple of basic positions are held in English language teaching: a) Form-focused teaching which emphasizes the teaching of the rules of grammar, structures, the development of vocabulary and the sounds of language; and b) Meaning-focused teaching which emphasizes language use, communication or fluency and appropriateness of expression in different situations.

Language teaching came into existence as a profession in the early eighteenth century in Europe, whereas it existed in India nearly 3000 years ago. Its foundation was developed during the early part of the twentieth century, as applied linguists, with a focus on the fields of linguistics and psychology to support what was thought to be a more effective teaching methodology. Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by frequent changes, innovations and development of language teaching ideologies.

Pit Corder argued that applied linguistics was a collection of applications of linguistics at various levels to determine precisely the constraints, or laws of language teaching operation, albeit of linguistics in a broad sense. Cook and Wei mentioned that applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field of research and practice dealing with practical problems of language and by applying available theories, methods or

results of Linguistics or by developing new theoretical and methodological frameworks in linguistics to work on these problems.

Varshney defined applied linguistics as the collective term for the various applications of linguistic (and phonetic) scholarship to related practical fields-foreign language teaching, lexicography, translation, speech pathology and therapy, error analysis, etc. Applied linguistics in the widest sense, therefore, borders on other disciplines, for example, sociology, anthropology, psychology, biology, computational linguistics, stylistics, etc. The speech therapist, the literary critic, the translator, the communication engineer, the language teacher, the syllabus framer, the educational planner, the textbook writer, the dictionary-maker have found linguistics useful for their work. Finally, Contrastive Analysis deals with the problem of mother tongue interference; it is not enough to predict language teaching and to describe the best way of mistakes, what is needed is their correction; applications, instances of the human linguistic ability of different descriptions which are superficial and incomplete. Today, it is beyond any doubt that English is used as a world language for business, science and medicine.

8.8 Methods and methodologies

According to Stern (1983) 'language educators sought to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention almost exclusively on Method' (Stern, 1983: 452), with methodologists (and presumably teachers) asking which method or approach was the most effective for English language teaching. Consider, for example, Audio-lingualism, the Silent Way or maybe Communicative Language Teaching.

In recent years, however, the debate has developed around the Method, traditionally seen as a theoretically consistent set of teaching principles that would lead to the most effective learning outcomes if followed correctly (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). It fails in making English language teaching and learning more effective. Around twenty years ago, Prabhu (1990) proposed that any attempt to find a 'best' method was illogical given that teachers quite reasonably adapted and combined individual methods to accommodate contextual influences and their personal beliefs. At the same time, applied linguists such as Pennycook (1989) argued that traditional views of Method frustrated teachers who, in the real world, we're unable to implement them fully and consistently. Pennycook also argued that the idea of Method and the search for the best method maintained unequal power relationships within ELT between academics and researchers on the one hand and teachers in language classrooms on the other.

As a result of this sustained criticism indeed, researchers such as

Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2003, 2006.) have noted that we are now in a 'Postmethod era', to the extent that this idea is now regularly discussed and examined in teacher training and development texts. (e.g., Thornbury, 2006; Harmer, 2007). Given these developments and the apparent move away from Method as a major focus within ELT, As Allwright and Hanks (2009: 37) put it, 'why should we care about language teaching methods?'

Examining language teaching methods serves a clear purpose. If we are in a Post method era, 'methods can be studied not as prescriptions for how to teach but as a source of well-used practices, which teachers can adopt or implement based on their own needs' (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 16). For example, the development, drilling and practising of dialogues in the classroom defined the audio-lingual era, yet drills are still used by many teachers today, whether they explicitly associate such techniques with Audio-lingualism or not.

We know Bell (2007), had asked whether teachers think that methods are 'dead', finds that they offer a source of options and practical classroom interventions. Thus even, perhaps especially, in a Post method world of methodological eclecticism, knowledge of methods is useful.

8.9 Summary

In conclusion, English language is a language when combined with a deeper understanding of Linguistics and is instilled in a teacher and if taught properly to students, the students, in turn, will have a proper form of linguistic awareness without any form of humiliation while speaking and writing in the English Language despite the nations' diverse social, ethnic and linguistic backgrounds.

8.10 Review Questions

- 1) From the conversation cited in section 8.1 figure out the culture-specific linguistic constructions
- 2) Can you see mother tongue interference while speaking English by L2 Speakers? Do you consider them as a hindrance! Justify your answer by posting examples.
- 3) What are the principles of linguistic analysis?
- 4) How is linguistics a support to understand the learners' problems?
- 5) What methods of assessment can we adopt by knowing linguistics?

- 6) How is a mother tongue of the learner an influencing factor in learning a second language?
- 7) What are the contributions made by Pennycook and Allwright in choosing the right method to teach?
- 8) What role do the parents play in the development of learners' second language?
- 9) Do social and ethnic backgrounds of the learners cause problems while teaching?
- 10) How does a knowledge of language become an important input in teacher education?

8.11 References

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Module 3 : Branches of Linguistics

Unit 9 □ Psycholinguistics

- 9.1 Introduction**
 - 9.2 Objectives**
 - 9.3 Origin and Concept of Psycholinguistics**
 - 9.4 Sound Production and Human Brain**
 - 9.5 Branches of Psycholinguistics**
 - 9.6 Scope of Psycholinguistics**
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9.1 Introduction

In the previous units of Module 1, we have learnt about language, its various perspectives and the different sounds that are produced in English. In this unit, we will learn about the cognitive aspects involved in the use of language, its representations and processing. This unit also aims to discuss the interrelation between linguistic use and psychological process and/or influences involved. Recent developments in the field are increasingly generating as to how the interrelation influences language learning and its applications.

9.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Understand certain concepts in psychology that features and enables language use,
- ❖ Can apply the acquired knowledge in obtaining and analysing information of this kind,
- ❖ Develop greater awareness of psychological patterning of learners in their situation, that facilitates language learning and teaching and its uses based on their exposure to the concepts.

9.3 Origin and the concept of Psycholinguistics

Isn't it very interesting to find out how we manage to speak and understand a language at the same time? From our earlier studies, we know that it is man alone who is gifted with the ability of the speech mechanism. And, it is the same mechanism that either creates or mars man to man relations in any given society be it at formal or informal fronts. It is also highly interesting that by the use of language we dig deeper to understand the same language. It has such vastness. It calls into action the different features of the human body to coordinate and cooperate for an effective and meaningful expression. The linguistic elements may be combined into 'n' number of syntactical arrangements but, it is a human mind that helps in processing the arrangements and derive some logical relation and construct meaning from the arrangements (reading and writing) as much as from the way it is being delivered (intonation, stress, mood, tone, expression etc.) and received by the users (speaking and listening).

It can be well observed from the behavioural strategies applied by a newly born child that struggles to understand or get itself understood by people around. Minute skills are involved in the entire process of forming meaningful communication. Well, to understand how psychology and linguistics work hand-in-hand it is essential to take a look at the origin of the concept of psycholinguistics. Before we do so, let us take a look at an advertisement below as our starting example:



A closer look will take you to the circled letter (inverted 'a'). Every single letter, image, or linguistic element included in the advertisement speaks and conveys a meaningful connotation. The arrangement of the linguistic elements, and the diction, trigger the thought process.

At the sight of the advertisement, we derive some idea and comprehend what it intends to convey. Undoubtedly, it involves an arrangement of letters, words, phrases,

and images. Let us consider the case step by step.



But, how do the thoughts get organized? What are those physical parts involved and how does psychology get connected, if that be so?

Can you attempt writing them in the space provided below?

According to a study conducted by Willem Levelt, Director Emeritus, Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics, The Netherlands, has mentioned that the study of empirical linguistics goes back to the end of the eighteenth century in contrast to the claim of the psycholinguists that consider the origin of 'psycholinguistics' with the Chomskian 'cognitive revolution' during the late 1950s and 1960s . However, there are several views concerning the coinage of the term. Some studies mention that the term 'psycholinguistics' was coined by psychologist Jacob Robert Kantor in his book *An Objective Psychology of Grammar* (1936) along with we also find mention that it was coined in the 1940s . After the publication of Charles E. Osgood and Thomas A. Sebeok's *Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems* (1954) which reported the proceedings of a seminar sponsored in the United States by the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Linguistics and Psychology, the term was more into general use.

Etymologically, it is of Greek origin. Linguistics, as we know, is the study of human language and related behaviour on one level and on the other level, psychology is the study of the human mind. It brings in close association and interrelation with one another. Psycholinguistics is a branch of study that deals with the acquisition, production and presentation of a language in a given context which is different as regards time, situation, culture and many other factors. It is not just confined within the arrangement of linguistic elements. The acquisition, production and perception of a native language are different from the acquisition, production and perception of learning a second or a third language. Psycholinguistics is essentially concerned with the development of theories on different aspects of language learning and provides an

understanding of the psychological processes involved in the language producing skills, viz. speaking and writing and, the language perceiving skills like reading and listening. It identifies the complexities involved both bodily and psychological, that explains how human personality evolves across the stages of human lifespan and how language use is shaped through the stages of physical and psychological developments. Here, language is a term used as an all-inclusive concept applied in various contexts - could be the language of humans, or, the language of communication or computer language.

The concept of Psycholinguistics is considered to have emerged in 1951. However, some views differ considering that study of psycholinguistics is traced back to the study of psychology. By building a link with neurolinguistics it has also been connected to the origin of psycholinguistics. However, it was in 1951, an interdisciplinary seminar at Cornell University was organized by the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) on language behaviour where the interaction between psychologists and linguists led to the systematic development of studies on psycholinguistics. The SSRC seminar brought together linguists like Thomas Seboek, Joseph Greenberg, Floyd Lounsbury and psychologists like John Carroll, Charles Osgood, and George Miller. The publication of the report of the proceedings of the Seminar in the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, entitled "Psycholinguistics" rapidly spread the concept of psycholinguistics for explorations by psychologists and linguists alike. The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis and Noam Chomsky's Generative Linguistics launched during the 1950s, considered landmarks in the development of psycholinguistics, added fuel to the fire.

9.4 Sound Production and Human Brain

However, it is to be understood here that sound production and the human brain are interrelated and the functioning of the human brain or its size is potentially connected in making the arrangements for the production of sound. Considering its importance and contribution it is important to understand that it was the anatomy of the human brain by Paul Broca, a French surgeon and German Doctor, Carl Wernicke's localization of a second region considered crucial in understanding human speech were the milestones in the understanding of speech mechanism and connections between language use and the brain. Broca's area so named after the surgeon is considered to credit the left hemisphere of the brain for language ability whereas Wernicke's area named after the German Doctor is considered crucial in the understanding of human speech. The breakthrough came from the works of Broca (1861) who came out with the fundamental discovery that the third frontal convolution of the left hemisphere of

the brain is the source of language production and it was Wernicke who discovered the areas of the left hemisphere of the brain that is responsible for memory, for sound production and generating the image with the utterance of a word.

The brain is a bundle of billions of neurons or nerve cells in varied shapes and sizes and other cells that nourish the nerve cells. These neurons when activated pass signals to one another that trigger the movement of some chemicals in and out of the neurons which generates a 'charge'. The central nervous system consists of the brain and the spinal cord and it is connected to the entire body through the peripheral nervous system. The innumerable neurons in the brain function differently in clusters or groups of neurons and the cortex of the brain are the seat of complex brain activities. Much before psycholinguistics came into the picture it was neurolinguistics that established the relationship between the brain and language use. Let us take a quick look related to the functioning of the various parts of the human brain:

Hindbrain (including the cerebellum), and, Midbrain (along with pons and medulla in the hindbrain forms the brainstem) : controls balance, controls breathing, heartbeat and alertness

Forebrain contains: the thalamus the hypothalamus the cerebrum contains the cerebral cortex : Relays the signals from the senses, Involved in eating and sexual responses, Responsible for perception, emotion and cognition. It is considered to be the biggest part of the brain and is divided into left and right hemispheres.

The cerebral cortex is further divided into four lobes.

Frontal lobes Involved in movement, emotional experiences and behaviour control

Parietal lobes Involved in touch and taste sensation and registers the location of objects

Occipital lobes Or, the visual cortex, analyses signals from eyes and visual pathways

Temporal lobes : Processes auditory signals and language structure

Left hemisphere : Dominant in many aspects of language use

Right hemisphere Perception of the rhythm of speech or emotional expressions on the face.

Psycholinguistics is an integration of psychology and linguistics, where the former is the study of the human mind and behaviour and the latter of human language. But, psycholinguistics is different from either of the two branches of study. This we have

understood in our study on Saussure's distinction of *la-langue* and *la-parole*. Using a language has certain distinct ways that are different in different situations and are dependent on the structure of a language particular to that language system. Psycholinguistics is the branch of study that examines the processes of functioning of the human brain in its acquisition, perception and production of human language. It is a wider understanding of the 'psychology of language' that is extremely helpful in the domain of language learning and teaching.

Task 1: List the functional regions of the brain and explain how they function concerning one another. You may take help from other sources of reading for further references to elaborate.

Your answer:

It would be interesting to understand some examples of the influence of the human brain in the use of language or its acquisition after birth, case studies on Genie, Oxana Malaya, Russian bird-boy are good sources and can be explored for more on them.

Task 2: Once you have read the cases, pick up any one of them and write down your understandings of events like this. You can also include some of your references in case you have come across any of them.

Your answer:

9.5 Branches of Psycholinguistics

The study of Psycholinguistics has been further sub-divided under the following heads:

1. Clinical linguistics is an application in the field of speech disorders. It studies the linguistic features and movements involved in the production of speech and the disorders arising from damage caused to the brain. The study of clinical linguistics gained momentum during the 1970s and with the particular mention of David Crystal. He defined it as "the application of linguistic science to the study of communication disability, as encountered in clinical situations". In more recent years, language use and/or communication which is seen as complex human interactions have become more convergent in the study and interrelation of linguistics, neuroscience, genetics and psychological workings.

2. Neurolinguistics analyses the process of working of the human brain and the

production of human speech properly. It attempts an analysis of the structure of the brain and investigates the process of acquisition and language inputs and how it programs the language output.

3. Developmental psycholinguistics deals at large with the process of acquisition both of the first language and the second language. This branch of psycholinguistics tests adult representations and proposes to explain how these representations are developed.

9.6 Scope of psycholinguistics

During the Summer Seminar in 1955, psycholinguistics was a new concept that has by now been studied from multiple perspectives and in various disciplinary contexts. The applications are many - be it in engineering, or, philosophy or language, psychology, sociology, the study of signs and so on. Understanding/s of psycholinguistics and its applications is a continuous field of thorough research. According to Diebold, the subject matter of psycholinguistics implicitly involves the following:

- ❖ The nature and function of language,
- ❖ Approaches to the study of language,
- ❖ Speech perception,
- ❖ The sequential organization of linguistic events,
- ❖ The scientific aspects of linguistic events,
- ❖ Language acquisition, bilingualism and language change,
- ❖ Pathologies of linguistic behaviour,
- ❖ Linguistic relativity and the relation of linguistic processes to perception and cognition.

It all revolves around language use and the behavioural changes that take place during input, processing and output in the process of communication. These are specific to specific language systems and human biological features that enable sound production and brain function abilities. The process of communication takes into account the different kinds of behaviour involved in the entire transmission right from encoding to decoding. The language study involves intended behaviour during encoding and interpretative behaviour during decoding and the code transmitted as a message. The code or the message, in any form of communication, is either visible (series of signs and symbols in the form of reading or writing) or audible (sound in the form of listening or speaking) or tactile (touch sensations). The behaviour and/or the

responses depend on the context of message transmission. The psychologists find their interest in the behavioural pattern of the communicators (sender, decoder and receiver), the linguists are curious about the system or the arrangement of the structural elements and the communication theorists are bent on knowing how well the code can be transmitted i.e. the accuracy of transmission. The study of behaviour by the psychologists involved with the use of language has been called the verbal context by Miller. The 57-pages report published as the output of the Cornell University Seminar in 1951 was a revolution by itself as it dealt at large the core issues in analyzing the process of communication. Shannon-Weaver's *The Mathematical Theory (The Information Theory)* was already there before the publication of the report which had largely spoken about the importance of the information theory. *The Mathematical Theory of Communication* came to be considered as the 'real science' pulling in linguists and psychologists for interdisciplinary endeavours. The report had also stressed the 'problem of meaning' and focussed on making clear 'terminological distinctions' and the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis on the role of culture in language use. *Psycholinguistics: A survey of theory and research problems* became the "charter of psycholinguistics" (Diebold, 1965) in studying human verbal behaviour. Another important factor concerning the SSRC committee post-Cornell University Seminar in 1951 that deserves mention was the substantial funding received from Dale Carnegie Foundation and other major fundings including defence funding.

The psycholinguistic theories so developed from studies are widely used in preparing audio-visual instructional materials as teaching-learning aids. It is considered that such instructional aids are more beneficial in teaching a foreign language. It is also of great aid in the understanding of bilingualism and language acquisition.

9.7 Summary

The present unit has intended to discuss the advent of 'psycholinguistics' as a distinct field of study. The unit discusses the various concepts embedded into psycholinguistics. It attempts to provide an understanding of the role and influence of psychology and/or the human mind in enabling language acquisition and function. The discussion has also gleaned through the beginning of the concept and its existence at present. The importance of psycholinguistics is evident in the regular applications in the fields of engineering, medical, pathologies related to human behaviour and many more. The development of many theories in the field needs to be consulted and studied for a greater understanding of the unit.

9.8 Review Questions

1. Psycholinguistics or the 'psychology of language' is the study of the psychological and neurological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, and understand language. Explain from your reading of the text and references.
2. Psycholinguistics is interdisciplinary and is studied by people in one particular field. Do you agree? Justify your take on this.
3. One's language determines the ways one's mind construct categories. What would be your observation on this?
4. Do you think language influences culture or vice-versa? Substantiate.
5. Define the following:
 - a) Language perception, b) language acquisition and c) language production.
6. Can you identify an application from the field of engineering where the concept of psycholinguistics has been applied in any of its forms?
7. Trace an application from the field of pathology studying human behaviour where the concept of psycholinguistics has been applied in any of its forms?
8. Analyze a write-up of yours, of any interest of your choice, and locate the influence of psychology in writing the same.
9. Study the 'Information Theory' and attempt writing a critical appreciation of the same.
10. Elaborate the importance of the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis in the field of psycholinguistics in your own words.

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Unit 10 □ Sociolinguistics

10.1 Introduction

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10.1 Introduction

The focus of the unit is on language learners and language users in multiple contexts - socio-cultural, academic, personal, political and so on. In a multicultural and multilingual country like India, the challenges in language learning and its applications in society are many in which people are variously socialized, interactive and consequential. Looking at the system systematically is a challenge both for the language teacher and the learners from heterogeneous backgrounds. The dynamism and complexities of relationships, discourses and communication are in a more macro sense. In this unit, we will learn about the socio-cultural aspects involved in the use of language, its representations and processing. This unit also aims to learn the interrelation between linguistic use and psychological process and/or influences involved. Recent developments in the field are increasingly generating as to how the interrelation influences language learning and applications.

10.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ Understand the concept of sociolinguistics and its applications,

- ❖ Identify the interrelation between language and society in different social groups,
- ❖ Analyze the social relevance of the linguistic features by the participants in a society that is different for different speech communities,
- ❖ Improve critical thinking skills of the learners and encourage them to apply their observations.

10.3 Origin of the concept and its implications

We will begin by looking at the following visual illustrations in and around us. Take a look:



It clicked!

Immediately after the visual senses signalled the basic cognitive process started working. You noticed and ideas triggered in your minds. The contexts are different but they are understood by the members of a society of all backgrounds but at multiple interpretative levels. How?

Task 1

1. What are the steps that you have followed in understanding the series of signs and symbols in the advertisements? Do you agree with what has been mentioned below as the initiation point?
 - a. Visual stimuli initiated
 - b.
 - c.
2. Are the patterns of development of ideas and data processing the same in all the images?
3. Do you find any relation between the linguistic elements and socio-cultural aspects?

Your answer:

The attention and interests in language use and its diversities are increasingly gaining attention and interests not only among the psychologists but across disciplines for insights into language use because language is the medium and basis of social relationships and indicator of membership in different social groups and speech communities. The question that naturally arises how does one identify oneself with the social groups and are there any specifications to be a member of that speech community? This is a broad area of investigation that had developed over the years and researchers are still trying to understand the nature and role of the relationship between language and society.

The advent of the concept of 'sociolinguistics' is considered to date back to the 1960s and is largely associated with the name of William Labov in its conceptualization (Koerner 1991, 57). In a general sense, it is considered to study the relationship between language and society. But, it would be unjustified to confine it within such a narrow concept or to consider sociolinguistics deals with social questions. It has also been identified with social psychology with specific reference to how the groups function in terms of input behaviour and output behaviour in their mutual exchange of language. We can usefully highlight some relevant markers in the morphology of the word 'sociolinguistics'. Any and every language functions within a society, for the society and by the inhabitants of the society. From a rational point of view, it would be necessary to understand the concept of society and the scope of social interaction

and social relevance to get into the understandings of the relation between language and society.

10.4 What is society?

A society is a system and the wings through which it functions are the sub-systems/parts and all its parts are interconnected. Now, what is a system? It could be said to be an entity composed of numerous interconnected parts that gives a complete shape to it and any change in one of its parts would disbalance the overall structure. As the term 'system' suggests, it is something that is structured, organized and follows a pattern. The parts like the physiological parts of any living organism are exclusively interconnected and are in a patterned relationship so is the society and its parts. It would, perhaps, not be wrong to say, that, society is a living system and through role allocations and positioning the system runs. For example, educational institutions are one of its parts that enables the base of understanding one's society and relation to it, the pathways of civilization. And, the medium through which a society and its system function is communication in all its possible forms. It could be a series of written signs and symbols (literary texts, advertisements, etc.), verbal interactions, discourses, sartorial, ritual, cultural, formal and informal behaviour, age, sex, the hierarchy of social representations, music or any other manifestations are symbolically significant in communicating ideological possibilities.

A series of communicative events take place in society because of the interaction of its members and things are communicated by the use of language among the homogeneous or the heterogeneous speech communities. Language has been considered as an abstract system that is different for different users and as a result, the system arrangements differ widely too. Naturally, this increases the range of understandings of its macro-micro scale of linguistic structuring to that of its interpretations per the context of use and cultural setup.



Let us look at some examples. The book so cited below is suggested for close reading and understanding of how the language that functions within a society has been used to speak about the same society. Any work of art portrays a society and its cultural context within a time frame.

The front cover itself appears so dynamic and vibrant with several contextual connotations. The signs and symbols, the choice of diction, the application of transferred

epithets, the use of font cases, the use of colour sequences have purposes of their own. It takes discussion position one from the national level to that of the international state of affairs.

A still from the silent comedy *The Modern Times*, written and directed by Charlie Chaplin in the early twentieth century.

A creation appealing to all times so poignant and bubbling with ideological interpretations at multiple contexts. It is a brilliant example of the use of language as a tool of communication.



Task 2

You too must have come across many such cross-references or situations with sociological implications. Attempt a brief explanation based on your understanding and discuss it with a partner.

10.5 Social markers that connect language and society

In attempting to analyze language from a social perspective the various connecting factors need to be understood that finds expression through the social markers that are of social relevance. Through the interaction of linguistics with several other academic disciplines, the differences and similarities are understood implicitly or explicitly. From among these social markers, we will select some dominant factors. Linguistics is studying a language with specific purposes - understanding the nature of the language to induct language theories and second, describing the language by using the theories. But, it is not, rather cannot be, studied in isolation as it is interconnected to the study of psychology, philosophy, sociology, physiology, semiotics, phonetics, biology or, for that matter study of paralanguage and other disciplines to get into the understandings of the language functions.

10.5.1 Process of socialization

A child after its birth is a biological identity with certain needs and instincts. How

and when the process of socialization begins needs to be the guiding question? The child at this stage is unaware of any social realism or socialization. The process starts when the control and guidance by the adults are exerted on it be it for any biological function during its stages of growth or the pieces of training imparted for speech, walking or greetings (saying, 'Hello', 'Namaste' and such others) or showing talents in singing, dancing, recitation and the likes. The linguistic features are imbibed much before the child enters the formal process of education and along with the socio-cultural elements are internalized as part of 'enculturation' way ahead 'acculturation' finds its way. Simultaneously, the child also starts imbibing semiotic processes by becoming able to identify the objects around it and differentiate animate from the inanimate. This process of socialization could be classified as primary and secondary socialization where the primary socialization is initiated at home and through the family environment and secondary socialization starts with the formal process of education and other social engagements or socializing agents. However, there is a third categorization called anticipatory socialization which takes place concerning one's association with a particular group which may be a result of social mobility.

10.5.2 Background and Education

Education is a social process and is the base on which the super structure is to be founded. Society exists and is meaningful with the existence of its members - humans, animals, trees and so on. It starts preparing the individuals right after birth to enable them to lead a meaningful and harmonious co-existence. It initiates the process of socialization that paves the way for social mobility. Now, there is a difference between 'educated' and 'knowledgeable'. It is the representative use of the language through the individuals' knowledge, skills, attitude, dressing sense, the value system that defines both the individual and the society to which the individual belongs. As language learners, we have seen the term language in itself includes two important constituents - langue and parole. And, from Mehrabian's statistical analysis we know that it is around 93 per cent non-verbal part of our communication that is being exhibited and of it, 55 per cent is attributed to body language in the process of communication. It is through the application of the language be it through writing or deliberations that one's culture, values, world-views, psychological conditionings are reflected. Sociolinguists are increasingly interested to develop an analysis of how the active language users and their behavioural inputs are fitted in with the larger processes and changing conditions of a society. It involves an understanding of the complexities of social attitudes reflected in communicative developments based on internal and external factors that combine with characterizations of contemporary social life. The

local factors like one's ethnicity, culture and community, upbringing environment, physiological conditions, individual differences, ego diet and external factors like socioeconomic status, exposure to the outside world, educational standards together shape the language use of the social participants. Much later, one's self-esteem and openness to development are also subject to socialization - a relatively free play of personality and sentiment irrespective of training received or prone to community adherence. However, that demands a deep-rooted understanding of the individual's stages in the development of the self and need appeasement. Thus, the capacities for the mind, self and society are intricately interwoven in the use of language both in input and output communicative functions in society. Adapting a speech style or mark a difference from the vernacular language has also been influential in shifting the linguistic features during applications.

As language facilitators, we come across many classroom situations that open for us a plethora of learning opportunities as we are directly involved with the learners. Much in the same line, we too open 'n' number of analytical grounds of our personality as markers of personality by the use of language be it in written, verbal or tactile. For example, assessment and evaluation is a crucial part of the education process. As facilitators, we have moral and professional responsibility as an examiner or script checker. Consider the following sentence below:

Q: "What is this? Did you understand the question? What did it ask you to do?"

Task 3

After reading the example above, can you put your observations in a frame?

[Hints to consider your observations:

- ❖ What do you think are the representations from the example above?
- ❖ Does it indicate any social relevance while dealing with the learners?
- ❖ Attempt framing the example from your perspective and observations stated.]

Your answer:

Task 4: Read the following conversation, guess the thematical context, and comment upon the sociolinguistic features involved in it.

Situation: Two persons are conversing. They are in the age group 35 (say, X) and 65 (say, Y) respectively. Gender - could be any. The conversation goes like this:

X: I love living in small and cosy apartments.

Y: I cannot think of living in some match-box like apartments. We live in big houses.

Your answer:

10.6 The dialects

The study of dialects that prevail in society is categorically studied under the classifications into regional dialects and those of the towns and cities. They are further sub-divided as upper-class dialects and lower-class dialects. Now, what is a dialect? It refers to the specificities of the language used by a particular speech community. They are identified as belonging to the same speech group by the particular ways of using that language, its tones and modulations, grammatical usage, vocabulary and pronunciation. For example, when people from the districts of Purulia or Malda speak to themselves, or, users of BrajBhasha and Maithili, or, say, Brahmin Tamil and Iyengar Tamil have a unique dialect of their own. They have a socio-historical background of their own. It is also an attempt to understand the socio-economic context which might have influenced the language used by their predecessors. The effects of "language crossing" as a form of ideological contestation are of considerable influence in the present day context both from linguistic and socio-cultural perspectives. The patterning of sentences, the tonal quality, the psychological workings, the written texts, the sartorial manifestations, music, rituals or the customs talks about the language in use not only from the temporal point of view but the history and growth of the language concerned. In many cases, it is a demarcation between the social hierarchy and speaks volumes on social stratification that (might) have changed considering from the original settlements, geographic boundaries and area allocations on the use of dialects to that of (any) recent developments alongside the indicators in terms of age, gender and social status that one enjoys or is in line with the society. In this regard, it needs to mention some prominent theories of socialization that explain how social interaction and communication plays an important role in shaping an individual's personality and/or behaviour pattern.

10.7 Social stratification

The more is said of the social arrangements of the groups of people the lesser it seems. Right from the creation of humans on earth this concept of stratification has been under the umbrella terms of 'haves' and 'have-nots'. If we analyze the concept by all its prevailing theories and phenomenal existences the root of demarcation remains the same. So long we had been talking about 'equality for all. Today much

before we talk of 'equality' it is the question of 'equity' -access to the resources is a priority than actually enjoying it or getting closer to its reach. Society exists for people, by people and is of the people (all living). On the same plane, the stratification is also created by the people, for the people and of the people. But, to what extent it is justified or acceptable or rational that is highly debatable and has never been realised in the history of mankind.

Functionalist theory, Marxist theory, Feminist theory, Weberian theory, Natural Superiority theory (also known as Darwinism) are some of the prominent theories that have dealt with social stratification in volumes. But, the fact remains that equality for all the members of a society is, perhaps, a myth and that is why after seventy-three years of independence we are struggling for 'access' at the minimum. History is a witness of many legalized or hereditary systems of stratification through ages. Yet, the rate of literacy, gender disparity ratio, gross enrolment ratio in primary school education that we witness from the Government statistics and Census is a clear indicator of political and economic relationships. Obvious then, the total area of linguistics, its applications, lexical items, semantics, phonology, semiotics, social exposure are Greek and Hebrew to a great majority as to them to meet the basic needs of food and clothing is a yell. Where one section of learners can afford posh institutional environment and education to some other of the same age group a new pen or a pencil or a notebook is a lucrative offer.

The very fact that people stand at differences in the class system is highly complex to understand the differential allocation of income, status and privileges, opportunities for various social utilities and the educational achievement can impact a child or govern the social relationships. Examples of such kind, I am sure, all of us have met at some point or the other on different grounds maybe. Even when social mobility is facilitated in some situations yet, the predominant rule prevails of consciousness whether or not one could fit oneself in the transformation. It is likely to happen both at the individual level or social relationships that one come across in the changing phases. It is a tough fight. Instances are many to prove the case in point and exceptions to the rule could also be cited. Whatever be it, the ranking structure of a society is a predominant claim for the linguists, psychologists, sociolinguists, anthropologists or politologists or political philosophers to base their hair-splitting understandings and research on the influence of social stratification on social behaviour.

Concludingly, we have considered a limited number of factors in the thematic context of understanding how language defines a society or to say, how society influences language use. But, many other factors contribute to the understanding of the relation between language, culture and society. Also, we may take into account

the individual customs, rituals and traditions of any speech community, the registers or the jargons, or instances of tough-mindedness to stick to one's tradition and rejection to change as contributing factors that shape the sociolinguistic elements particular to a specific community contrary to instances of 'style-shifting - formal or informal, as a social feature of language use. Further, sartorial, cultural or educational indoctrinations are also among the other factors to be concentrated upon. Even from the standpoint of guided and controlled situations like classrooms, workplaces (again different for corporate, public or private sector), recreational atmospheres like clubs, playgrounds, grapevine communication channels also call for our attention to understand the interrelation between language and society.

Task 5: From your understanding of the readings from Sociolinguistics write a critically appreciated essay on how language is influenced by a society that one lives in, based on your personal experiences.

Your answer:

10.8 Summary

The present unit focused on the concept of sociolinguistics and its coming into existence as a separate discipline. The unit discussed the embodiments of the linguistic features in a socio-cultural context and their implications. The relation between language and society is from the conception of society itself but, its manifestations through cultural contexts evolved gradually. The unit attempted to give an idea of how the various social stratifications are constructed in human society based on lingual, cultural demarcations. It also highlighted the multiple variations of language usage based on regional or local deviations called dialects.

10.9 Review Questions

1. Do you think language has ever been influenced by any society? Substantiate your points.
2. Is the language used by you, shaped by the society of your time? If yes, how do you think it has influenced you?
3. How do the applications of language differ from one situation to that of another? For example, use of language in a home atmosphere to that in a formal situation?
4. Can you identify some of the dialectical variations of the language used by you? Jot down some of the key features of variation as identified by you. This

could help you to understand the cultural diversities that, perhaps, shaped the language use.

5. Identify the initiation steps and elaborate on the process of socialization of a child as observed by you from your understanding of the concept. You may consider selecting the context after a child's birth, or, early days of school education situation or, as you choose.
6. Explain the concept of stratification from your understanding.
7. Explain a few of the stratification dimensions and add your critical comments on them.
8. What does the Constitution of India say on the social stratification issue? What are the articles related to it?
9. How do you look at stratification issues in the context of present-day technological advancements?
10. How do you think you can educate the learners on the eradication, if not wholly, of stratification? Suggest a few measures.

10.10 References and Reading List

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Unit 11 □ Linguistics as a pedagogy

11.1 Introduction

11.2 Objectives

11.3 What is pedagogy?

11.4 Linguistic Standpoint

11.5 Linguistics as Pedagogy

11.6 Summary

11.7 Review Questions

11.8 References

11.9 Reading List

11.1 Introduction

As a language teacher, at times it becomes a little worrying to connect the contents of the course to the world at large or connect with their real scopes of application. The learners of the Digital Age are far more open to contents through unlimited web resources across the corners. It is with one click of the mouse a gamut of information is open for access. Thus, the challenge is somewhere else. It is with the method of delivering the contents to them. It is, again, as a language teacher, the task is challenging as much as interesting. A language is used to understand the same language and also, make it understandable to the language users. It is all about how well and proper it is to use the language, and make it meaningful for the learners an enable for application in their respective situations. The learners are from various backgrounds and as a result, social contexts are wide and it involves intricate analyzing of the social meanings of the language used. It needs to be understood here, that the local contexts, in many cases, are more important for consideration than the society at large.

11.2 Objectives

After reading the contents of this unit, you will be able to:

- ❖ understand the conceptual difference between the terms "linguistics" and "pedagogy",

- ❖ understand the importance to study these,
- ❖ enable them to apply the fundamental concepts in their teaching-learning situations with understanding,
- ❖ self-evaluate their level of thinking skill and diagnose the pathways for the betterment.



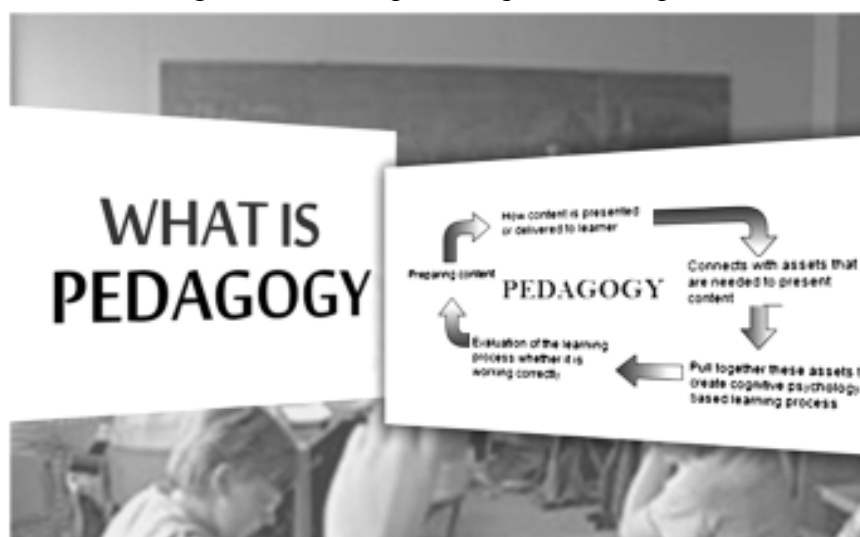
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11.3 What is Pedagogy?

Language is used in many modes. It could be a series of signs and symbols as written communication, verbal mode or any forms of non-verbal communication. Thus, it becomes very important to have a clear understanding of the various units interconnected in the process of communication to make the teaching-learning process fruitful. It becomes essential that the knowledge of the units to the facilitator sound reliable, and authentic because it is a Herculean task to make the language used in the classroom by the language teachers to get connected outside the classroom for its applications by the learners. So, the entire process involves the following key questions to be answered or understood by the language teacher:

1. Who are the learners (or, listeners)?
2. What is their level of learning the language?
3. What is the background of the learners (listeners)?

4. What are the objectives of language learning?
5. What are the objectives of teaching (specific as well as general)?
6. What is to be learnt/What is the message?
7. What is the quality of the materials to be used in the process?
8. How is that to be communicated to all the learners (listeners)?
9. What are the facilitating factors or the obstacles in the execution of the process?
10. What is the degree of the scope of exposure and practice?



<https://images.app.goo.gl/ksnByhyDDwZScC2v6>

Etymologically, the term 'pedagogy' is Latin in origin from "paidagogos" referring to the slave who was in charge of taking children to and from school (from 'paid'- boy + 'agogos' - guide). More commonly, it suggests an approach to teaching. It is an art by itself. If we are to consider pedagogy as a guide or an approach to teaching then, along with the above mentioned ten questions are to be coupled with the technological advancements in recent years. The experience of language in the context of twenty-first-century teaching-learning experiences needs to include ICT-enabled exposure as part and parcel of the collective life both in terms of time and space.

Behaviourism came out to be a pedagogical concept that opened up many vistas of observation. Skinner's 'Teaching Machine' may be considered one such example. It was followed by Friere's Liberationism. His book "The Pedagogy of the Oppressed"

talks volumes on learner-centric education as an approach to the pedagogy of teaching. Vygotsky's "social constructivism" shifted the focus to the social aspects of learning as a pedagogical approach. The concept of pedagogy has changed with the changing demands and needs of teaching-learning behaviour. Of the recent developments, Piaget's 'cognitive constructivism', much in contrary to 'social constructivism', took us through the learner's internal process of cognitive developments for a teacher to be alert. However, it was Geroge Siemen's concept of "connectivism" (2005) that connected the teaching-learning approach in line with the technological advancements of the time which in no way can be ignored. In the twenty-first century, with the explosion of technological advancement, new pedagogical approaches are advancing faster. In fact, working in collaboration with technology is the need and demand of the time. Thus, it all directs the attention of the (language) teachers to make a conscious move towards guiding (not monopolising the teaching-learning environment) how to learn or how to search for knowledge, how to make use of the internet to extract the desired information or to navigate through the boundless sea of information.

11.4 Linguistics standpoint

"FOR a small group of specialists", says Charles F. Hockett, "knowing about language is an end in itself. These specialists call themselves linguists and the organized body of information about language which their investigations produce is called linguistics."

Most of the other definition of linguistics revolve around the same concept. On the other hand, many linguists are not willing to generalize the concept on the ground that studying about a few languages do not open the floor as a whole. The data is very limited and as a result, there can be no generalized conception of the word 'linguistics'. However, it cannot be denied that linguistics is a branch of study dealing with language or the sub-sections involved under the umbrella term. In attempting to define it we will look at some equivalent terms like 'Linguistics' (American) with French 'Linguistique' or German 'Sprachwissenschaft'. It has also been identified with 'linguistic science' by Edgar Sturtevant in his book *An Introduction to Linguistic Science*. Much later, it was synonymously used with 'philology' which was later confuted by the philologists Roland Kent and Edgar Sturtevant by their publication of the article "Linguistics Science and Classical Philology".

Thus, it promotes to contradiction as well as to discussion on the scope and purview of 'linguistics'. Now, to build an appreciation and sensitivity towards the myriad of ways that construct the domain of linguistics is an uphill task for the

language teacher and the students too. Much has been said about the sphere of linguistics. It is agreed upon that it has something to do with the study of language and all its intricate arrangements. So, the basic point of understanding is language, more specifically, human language. Therefore, we need to delve deeper into what is language? Language, again, can be looked at from multiple perspectives and is not confined to one fixed definition. It is all about human behaviour and the varied ways of manifestations.

Topic for discussion

Let us consider the following features. Read and then decide if you agree to include them within the broad category of what we call 'language'.

- Language is the special ability of humans and not of non-humans
- Language is the representation of the psychology of its user
- Language is a social identity
- Language is a social marker of hierarchy
- Language is a social condition
- Language is volatile
- Language is voluntary and involuntary
- Language is a name given to a system
- Language is systematic (follows special arrangements)
- Language is non-systematic (if we go by 'meanings are arbitrarily assigned')
- Language is defined by the society of its time (a social phenomenon)
- Language is an ideology
- Language is a tradition
- Language is breaking the rules and tradition (hence, ambiguous)
- Language is a biological process just as any other physiological parts function in the human body

A combination of all the considerations mentioned above calls for our attention to understand the domain of linguistics or categorizing the spectrum of language. It constitutes a miniature angle. Vast observations, generalizations, predictions and assumptions, discussion and rejection are a continuum. Perhaps, so, linguists are

unwilling to generalize its concept. Of all the 15 features mentioned above, even if we take any one of them it is in itself a macro concept. It draws from other disciplines and branches of study because language is the common medium to express thoughts as much as the tool to cross-section and experiment the expressed thoughts.

Coming back to the concept of language again, on the one hand, it is about the creation of meaning, interpretation of the messages, the articulation of sound that includes voice modulation, pitch, intonation, stress, accent, the use of words in a patterned (or, unpatterned) way, about the mutual relation between the words or their positioning and also, the syllables in the words, that is to say, the syntactical arrangements and so on. On the other hand, it is about the use of punctuation, signs and symbols (considering each sign as a text to be interpreted), thematic arrangements (persona used), pictorial landscape, if any, text background, philosophical reflection, if that is a collective work (or from some corpora) where meanings have a sequel, the timeframe and the likes, set up different yet inter-related levels for study and analysis of the language. All these embrace the scope of linguistics. By now, it must be possible for us to make a good assumption of the vastness and the range of linguistics. And, all these are by themselves vast in their area. For example, 'meaning'. The subset is profound to be studied for its own sake. How one derives the meaning of a text or a sign or a symbol or even a tactile sensation concerns the understanding of psychology, sociology, economic factors, tradition and cultural aspects etc. It cannot be defined at a superficial level without digging into the root. Moreover, a 'signified' brings along with it an array of 'signifiers' and the process continues. At the same time, it also demands a contrastive study of the past to that of present developments and future assumptions. History can in no way be ignored to get an understanding of the present or to look forward to the future. The plethora of data so involved is, unquestionably, unlimited and arbitrary.

Next comes, the execution or the application part which again involves multiple levels and sub-levels. This involves the 'core' part of language use that is to say, 'how' of language (*la parole*) which, according to Albert Mehrabian follows 7-38-55 rule adding to the interpretation and construction of meaning. Then, we have the local and global contexts of time and space as fundamental to the construction of meaning added by demographic, geographical, physiological, first or second or foreign language acquisition factors all to be considered for connotation and denotation of messages be it written or verbal or any other forms of communication e.g. ritualistic or sartorial communication. Again, we have demarcations like 'language of the rulers' to those of the ruled, language specific to social hierarchy or concepts like 'andro texts', 'gyno texts', 'neutral language' and such other social constructs.

India, at present, has 22 official languages whereas there are many more beyond the count yet to be listed. Think of the situation worldwide, their diversity and macrocosmic stature. Perhaps so, the linguists are reluctant to generalize any concept under their purview. It is here the language teacher's job is highly complex and categorically striking at all levels. Added to these, the degree of success is also characterized by the support received from the external environment be it about acoustics or infrastructure or human resource or final resource. But, whatever be the level of support received or not received the onus is on the (language) teacher. Then, the prominent question that is to strike a language teacher is how real the language study had been for the learners and does it have a practical relevance?

11.5 Linguistics as a Pedagogy

We have understood that pedagogy is an approach; an art of teaching or, going by its etymology, it is a language teacher's guide to the outputs from the inputs in a classroom. It helps improve the quality of teaching as much as it enables learning in an informed and meaningful way such that during application the learners can apply with understanding. Learners already have some amount of information with them - may be related or inapplicable to the given context. The new learning is to be constructed from the old or the existing knowledge. The language teachers with their dealing of the subject matter also widens the power of imagination of the learners. They are initiated to think beyond the delivered talk and start making a construction which is their own. With the use of the units of language to explain that same language in a given context, time frame and space, the process of restructuring or meaning-making happens. It is here, the (language) teacher decides to choose the resource materials to be used, how to use, the nature of the relationship or the interaction that is to take place between the teacher and the taught, plan and analyze a lesson into its constituent parts, the process of assessment to diagnose the errors made and provide proper feedback that it encourages them to improve and develop. Bloom's taxonomy or Anderson and Krathwohl's revised taxonomy could be a good tool to prepare a lesson unit towards their improvement.

The assessment and evaluation process is not a subject-matter outside the teaching-learning process. Hence, the same taxonomy grids are equally, if not more, applicable to get the desired outcomes from the inputs in the classroom. The art of preparing question also adds to the entire process of language 'constructivism'. The questions need to be framed in such a way that the purpose of questioning and assessment is achieved, the failing of which lessens the authenticity and reliability of the entire process of teaching-learning. In this, it is often found that the comments by the

language teacher as a mark of feedback (which is not the same) have an appealing or demotivating effect. As we are collaborating our efforts with that of the OERs we come across many such technological applications that encourage us. For example, while using Grammarly we received encouraging feedback to motivate us.

Quick Task : Can we make use of this visual data for interpretation by the learners?



<http://images.app.goo.gl/UVqt2wbayXPFfVUn6>

Caution!

The teacher is to guide the learners on how to interpret without interpreting it. (Using the language to interpret the language).

If linguistics ("study of language") is to be used as a pedagogy, the language to be used is to be studied first to understand how to use it and transfer the understandings to the learners such that they can be meaningfully applied. The ICT enabled learnings have already made things much easier than before when it comes to the minimal use of the language (He, English as L2). The software applications (mobile or computers) have in-built functions that are easy to understand and use. Moreover, by wide discussions and debates from the various platforms, the language teachers can cross-fertilize the functional strands and make a potential contribution to the development of language pedagogy.

Just as a child after birth starts learning a language (sound) from simple to complex it is in much the same way in the formal system of education the steps and stages of implementing the subjects (or, courses) or the contents of the courses are introduced. The classroom situation is also likely to follow the same pattern where a learner is geared to develop the skills from simple to critical thinking skills and with understanding. Learning cannot take place at one go. It is a step-by-step process and

requires repeated practice, particularly for second language learning. The impact and role of psychology in learning a language is time tested and continues to be explored further. An understanding of psychological development is extremely crucial in language acquisition and is governed by age-group. Bio-genetic and socio-genetic factors stand side by side in the development of personalities as an important consideration in language learning and development. It is to be kept in mind, that, the purpose of language learning is not the same for all. In some cases, it might be for specific functions and usages whereas with some others it may be for passion or profession. But, the learners are under one roof and, inevitably, the psychological gearing (interest) would vary just as the mental mechanisms would differ. It is also important to remember here that the child is learning a second language and that has a direct influence on its native language or vice-versa. The levels of thinking and development may be reflected in different ways with special mention of whether or not it is a conscious effort to learn. The accumulation of impressions in learning will accordingly impact eagerness. Other than these, there are physiological differences which apart from regular and usual functions can create a reverse order in one's mind and ability.

Finally, it is more important to configure and map what the learner does with the course contents than what the language teacher does. The language teacher is free to mix and match the pedagogies that suit the different contents that are dealt vis-à-vis the different situations. The same strategy cannot, rather, ought not to be applied at the same level and pace for all the contents. In this, mind-mapping of the learners at the beginning of the session could be of much help in shaping the lesson plans. Motivation is the dress of the planning done. It is intrinsic as much as extrinsic. Rewards and reinforcements encourage us irrespective of age. Learners if motivated towards self-learning followed by a self-evaluation the learning is, perhaps, the strongest and directed towards the route of excellence. The learnings that happen in an automatic process from the various social environments do not require any language teacher. Given a classroom situation, the role of language teachers is tougher because they have to make the skills involved in language learning understandable and meaningful for future applications in their respective life situations.

11.6 Summary

The language teacher needs to enable the learner to understand how to learn, unlearn and relearn as an active participant and with autonomy in self-learning but, not in isolation with the world outside. Learning in no way excludes other activities. Learning can happen anywhere and at any point in time. Alertness and eagerness are the conditions both internally and externally to make a good move towards pedagogy.

After all, pedagogy cannot be defined by or confined to one specific way of thinking because it intertwines concepts and applications right on-field depending on all-pervading contexts.

11.7 Review Questions

1. What are your perspectives of pedagogy? Substantiate your perspective/s with references from your experience and/or knowledge.
2. How do you think pedagogy, learning and teaching triangulate in trying to achieve the desired outcomes?
3. Analyze the interrelation between linguistics and pedagogy from your understanding and referential works that you undertake.
4. "Language is a biological process just as any other physiological parts function in the human body." Express your views on this.
5. Share some of your experiences from your teaching situations where you shuffled the pedagogical style/s and identify the reasons that led you to make the changes.
6. Share some of your experiences from your learning situations where you shuffled the learning style/s and identify the reasons that led you to make the changes in the style of learning.
7. What is the contribution of linguistics to language teaching?
8. How are views of Piaget and Vygotsky similar yet different?
9. What was Skinner's contribution to the development of pedagogy?
10. Is visual or experiential support essential in the process of teaching-learning processes?

11.8 References

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Notes

1. **Source:** What is Linguistics? By Carroll E Reed, *The German Quarterly*, Jan., 1952, Vol. 25, No. 1 (Jan., 1952), pp. 16-25.

11.9 Reading List

You may consider reading the following books. You are also suggested to consult more on this.

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Unit 12 □ Computational Linguistics

12.1 Introduction

12.2 Objectives

12.3 Man-Machine Interface

12.4 Concept and Scope of Computational Linguistics

12.5 Challenges in Computational Linguistics

12.6 Applications of computational linguistics

12.7 Summary

12.8 Review Questions

12.9 References

12.10 Reading List

12.1 Introduction

You must have noticed that, during our web-browsing, many times when we look for information a particular web-page opens and the language used is not understood by us and that calls for translation. Within seconds the page is translated into a language we are comfortable with. How is it happening? It is mathematical processing of the language input by us and conversion into machine-language and again converted to human language of understanding. The large scale of data is automatically calculated and/or translated abiding by the laws of mathematical calculations and then received by us. Thus, the human language is brought into conjunction with the machine language. The computers are programmed to process the human language. Here, the use of the term 'programming' a computer is indicative of formulating a formal language in mathematical terms to implement algorithms for the computers to produce meaningful information in respective contexts.

You might be wondering why are we discussing computers here? Well, by the use of the word 'computational' we invite the world of computers. Etymologically, the term relates to computers and/or the process of mathematical computations or calculations. This unit will look into the concept of computational linguistics and its applications. This is, comparatively, a new domain in the field of linguistics in the context of twenty-first-century connecting man and machine through language.

12.2 Objectives

The study of this unit will enable you to:

- a) Understand the concept of 'computation' in the use of language,
- b) Understand the relationship between human language instruction and computational implementation by machines,
- c) Facilitate the interaction with machines by developing insights into the essential concepts related in the process,
- d) Develop self-competence in making effective use of language for the systems to perform better and to the desired needs,
- e) Be aware of the applications in the field.



<https://images.app.goo.gl/mcJyntHGnXMz4oMK8>

12.3 Man-Machine Interface

Happening right now!

I am a human mind filled with emotions, ideas, concepts, data and information. But, a machine? It does not have human emotion but, it has data super loaded and is multiplying every nanosecond. How does it understand our language? How does it give us the information that we need? Right now, I am using the machine and it is giving me information that I look for or, that I am documenting for the purpose. How are we getting connected? Is there any language connection? I am sure, you too may have been haunted by these questions. Although by now, we know Sophia - a human resembling machine who can speak, participate in human talks, conduct or take part in live interview sessions. Would you like to meet her? Let us meet Sophia.

Let us meet her co-performers:



Let us meet her co-performers:



<https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/5-best-humanoid-robots-in-the-world>

The introduction of digitally programmable computers by Charles Babbage to the world of human civilization was in itself a revolutionary invention. The journey started in the early nineteenth-century and today in the early years of twenty-first-century we have already met Sophia and her co-partners. What is there in store for us next? There are surely many more advancements beyond our knowledge and understanding. We hit the keypads and with one click the entire universe is let open to us for information sharing and knowledge gain. So what are we doing in the process?

We are using human natural language input as utterances, sounds or typing words, phrases and sentences and the computer is analyzing these utterances following an algorithm to find out what connection (read information) is requested. The system operates automatically following the algorithm to produce the desired result and, if further information required, it consults the database available to provide the further set of information desired.

12.4 Concept and Scope of Computational Linguistics

"A Mathematical Theory of Communication" was an article published by the mathematician Claude E Shannon in 1948. The importance and significance of this ground-breaking publication or its contents were such that it led to a minute yet a striking change to rename it as "The Mathematical Theory of Communication" the next year. It paved the way for the blossoming of the 'information theory' and the study of human language and machine language as connectors. The development in the field of computer sciences led to an in-depth understanding of mathematics and linguistics. If the study of language is a domain of linguistics then the programming language using mathematical calculations is the sphere of mathematical linguistics. Not only computers, we largely use digital calculators that make extensive use of numerals as well as symbols for its purposes. It is the mathematical use of linguistic terms for the computer. The use of technical words, mathematical notations, logical symbols are the machine's linguistic elements that instruct computers. These are numeric instructions or algorithms created by human language for the computers to understand and function within a specific time. It is the realm of statistical measures, analysis and structural logic using mathematical tools and techniques.

Computational linguistics is considered to be the sub-category of mathematical linguistics that deals with the "application of computers to linguistic problems and with the application of linguistics to computer problems" (Oettinger, 1965 : 147). Do you remember any such situation where you might have lost the most valuable document of yours while working on computers? What did you do then? You have taken the help of an expert or by yourself have retrieved the lost file using some retrieval systems. How was it retrieved? It was with the application of the programming language understood by the computer and mathematical measures and calculations applied by the user to get back the lost data, that is to say, specific commands and controls used for the specific purpose. This is the application of computational linguistics where the language understood and used by the computers (the 'artificial language') in the form of mathematical notations are used as instructions (algorithms) to interpret and translate the human language (the 'natural language'). Here, it needs to be understood that, how will a machine understand human language. Herein, we use a technology that enables the computers to understand human encoding and translate into machine codes. This technology is called the Natural Language Processing (NLP) which is a subfield of computer science and artificial intelligence. NLP aims to understand and decipher the coding used in the form of human language, spoken or written, design and build applications that enable human interaction with the computers

and other related devices in a faster, easier and economic way. NLP uses features like question answering system, machine translation, speech recognition etc. Computational work on language began with machine translation in the 1950s. Initially, the researchers faced problems in developing the algorithms to instruct a computer, especially, to formulate data structures for grammar. Chomsky's "Three models" and "Syntactical structures" were highly influential in offering notational variations but, other models like "Dependency Grammar" offered more than the notational variations. Take the following example of a notation from Linguistics. n - noun, adj. - adjective, pr- preposition are examples of linguistic notations. Likewise, we have musical, mathematical notations or those in the field of Chemistry, Biology and so on.

single vowels				diphthongs			
ɪ	i:	ʊ	u:	eɪ	ɔɪ	aɪ	
ship	sheep	book	shoot	wait	coin	like	
e	ɜ:	ə	ɔ:	eə	ɪə	ʊə	
left	her	teacher	door	hair	here	tourist	
æ	ʌ	ɒ	ɑ:	əʊ	aʊ	/	
hat	up	on	far	show	mouth		
unvoiced consonants							
p	f	θ	t	s	ʃ	tʃ	k
pen	free	thing	tree	see	sheep	cheese	coin
voiced consonants							
b	v	ð	d	z	ʒ	dʒ	g
boat	video	this	dog	zoo	television	joke	go
m	n	ŋ	h	w	l	r	j
mouse	now	thing	hope	we	love	run	you
/	\	.	'	,	:	?	•

<https://images.app.goo.gl/KuPpj6Z5KPKesjVg8>

Quick task

Based on the level that you teach and, also as the would-be language teachers, can you look into the textbooks of language or for that matter any domain of your choice and find more on the applications of linguistic notations? Now, help your students to understand the same.

The International Conference on Computational Linguistics in 1969 directed a significant concern with the role of semantics. The concern was more "with the formalization of the semantics of the natural language in terms of metalanguage " (Montgomery, 1970, Report). The research in this field flourished during the 1970s

and went on expanding to other fields like Speech translation, architectural issues, AI-driven approaches, philosophy etc. However, it was during the 1980s that computational linguistics and natural processing system studies advanced without taking much from mainstream linguistics and relying more on corpus-based data and machine-enabled learning that escalated during the 1990s. It saw the rise of understanding human behaviour taking the help of machines.

12.5 Challenges in Computational Linguistics

The inputs are the natural-language text by the humans which a computer automatically analyses the various representations in the form of content used as a natural-language input. The computer processes the analysis made of the representations by identifying the concepts involved and their mutual relations. It is here the role of semantics becomes crucial in the context of natural language processing. The accuracy in representation/s of the concepts serves the basis of computation. Hence, highly formalized semantic concepts are required. The extralinguistic concepts like the socio-cultural, economical, political or psychological issues involved in natural language utterances cannot be derived from linguistic elements. This calls for the formalized concepts in the use of semantic analysis for computation. At the same time, in the process of mathematical analysis (computation), the representation of semantic dependence between the concepts cannot be established keeping in mind the correlation between concepts introduced in a given context is not only grammatical but also semantically dependent on one another.

For example, The honest man returned the money to the owner.

Here, the concepts 'honest' and 'man' are grammatically (syntactically) interrelated but, the relation between 'man' and 'returned' is semantic that involves Chomskian developments of the actor (man) and the act (returned). The dependency of 'honest' as a concept is established with 'man' because it describes the latter and hence a part of 'man' but, the representation of the semantic relation poses a challenge in computation. Semantics has much been studied off late but, it calls for further insights to enable the process of computation more accurate and easier. Now, the question that may arise is why is this accuracy required? It will be a little difficult to answer in concrete terms but in a nutshell, it can be said, perhaps, that in the days of increased technology computational linguistics aims to make it a faster and easier reach for the language users and also for an ease-of-use.

What happens in a linguistic interpretation? The words (or, the concepts) are interconnected and these interconnections lead to interlinking of the concepts for the

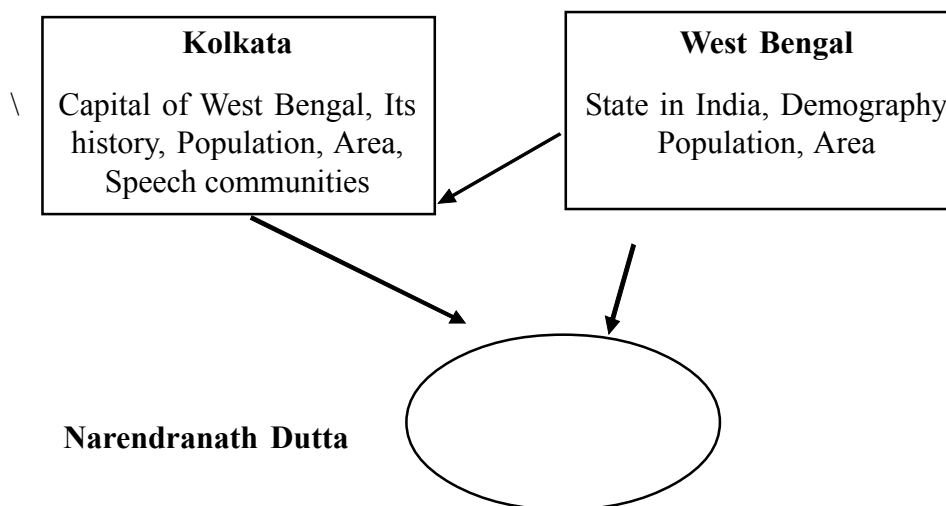
development of newer ideas and direct towards newer purposes of the study. Much in a similar line, the unlimited data are interconnected and interlinked to form a new set of information that adds to the existing knowledge base. Newer contents develop. The interesting point here is how does computation function here to connect the dots and form new information. If we look around it is a chain and network of words that are interconnected to find the interlink to dig deeper insights. Considering that perspective, think of the amount of data and the array of signifieds attached to each sign and signifiers. It is a rich system multiplying every moment and directing to fresh new pathways.

Take the following example:

Kolkata is the capital of West Bengal. Narendranath Dutta was a Hindu monk from Kolkata.

Now, the dots (read concepts) marked in italics are interconnected and during the computational process, they are interlinked by performing a set of natural-language-processing. This processing takes place by breaking the content into units - like name recognition (Kolkata, West Bengal, Narendranath Dutta), identify the parts-of-speech and link them to find the correlation. These identified concepts are now separated and processed separately.

Let us, now, look into the concept with a little analytical perspective.



[https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TLuM4E6IE5U#:~:text=Semantic%20 annotation %20is%20the%20process,by%20machines%20to%20refer%20to.](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TLuM4E6IE5U#:~:text=Semantic%20annotation%20is%20the%20process,by%20machines%20to%20refer%20to.)

It now gets associated with the new concept for further machine translation and computation. Extraction from the database directs towards new inferences as:

Swami Vivekananda was a Hindu monk from West Bengal (1)

Narendranath Dutta was a Hindu monk born in West Bengal (2)

(1+2) = Swami Vivekananda is the same as monk Narendranath Dutta from West Bengal.

You may, now, be able to identify your experiences while trying to find relevant information which also intelligently guides the pathways to related information during our web-browsing using the search engines.

For example, We type what is discourse analysis*.....you will be redirected to further concepts (like Discourse analysis examples, Discourse analysis research papers, Importance of discourse analysis), in a knowledge base that not only provides you with the written document but, aids with visuals like images, videos, related news etc. The machine analyses the content using statistical, logical, syntactical tools and techniques.

The process of translation during NLP is also challenging to translate, in some cases, as the computers may have difficulties in understanding because the computers try to understand each word in the content than only the phrases or the sentence as a whole. Likewise, the human language code sent by the user may also be faulty. The accuracy of the computer to provide an answer is greatly dependent on the linguistic performance as an input of the user. Therefore, the human language requires to understand the careful use of words and how the concepts get connected to deliver the intended message so that NLP can function with disambiguation and apply algorithms to provide the desired feedback. Ambiguities are cases with words that bear multiple-meaning depending on parts of speech function (noun and/or verb form) or deviation from phrase structure rules concerning the language in use (here English). The syntactical structure in traditional linguistics is also a major concern of the designers of languages for computers. These differences in mainstream linguistics create problems for NLP. But, despite these difficulties, computers are improving their understanding of human language and its intricacies. This directs the computational linguists direct their understanding of interconnected concepts to traditional/mainstream linguistics.

However, it is not wise to consider that simply providing bulk data to a computer it will internalize it and learn to reproduce-importance lies what is done with the data. It has to be prepared in such a way that the computer can locate patterns or the links

and draw inferences. To draw correct inferences the annotation on the data needs to be relevant and connected to the input. This necessitates the greater hold on the annotation of the contents and clarity of ideas and images to receive the desired output from the computer. It is when the annotation done on the data is accurate and relevant to the task the algorithms will be effective for the machine to learn (understand) and perform efficiently the task that it is being asked to perform abiding the algorithms of NLP.

12.6 Applications of computational linguistics

The recent developments in the field of computational linguistics could be seen in the prediction, analysis and interpretations of human behaviour using machine-enabled question answering or probing higher into psychological tests, or explain human intelligence, emotional quotient, test decision making and critical thinking abilities, medical diagnosis and its various interpretations involved and others that are genre-specific like grammar checkers, creation of dictionaries and its graphical representations or register-dependent variations. The search engine optimizations, text editor apps like the Grammarly, speech or face recognition applications, CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) are the applications of computational linguistics.

Because of the complications involved with mainstream linguistics, the NLP at its first step involves the tagging of parts-of-speech because for word classification its role in the content is important to disambiguate. More recently, it is largely based on text-corpora to enable linguistic data more available and comparable with billions of texts. However, the concept of corpora started creating its way from the 1960s a time frame when there was the problem of data availability. The notion of corpora relates to millions of texts multiple sources specific to a genre like fiction, newspaper articles, music, travelogues, legal matters, blogs and diaries, spoken or written communication fields and so on and are based on real as well as imaginative communication setting. Penn Treebank, American National Corpus, British National Corpus, Sketch Engine are examples of text corpora used in NLP. This paved the way for corpus linguistics. Interactive Voice Responses (IVR), applications like Siri for iPhone, Cortona, Alexa are other examples of NLP that conjuncts human language and machine-readable language. Syntactic and semantic analysis are the main techniques employed in natural language processing for the computation tasks to be performed. The Natural Language Toolkit, Stanford NLP Group Software, CSLU Toolkit (for language recognition and facial recognition), Visual Text, Marketing Chatbots (introduced as early as in the 1960s) are some of the well-known natural language processing tools used in computational linguistics.

Thus, the success and efficiency of computation depend on how successfully linguistic processing (NLP) can be employed and integrated to promote and maintain the efficiency of algorithms for the computers. However, natural language processing remains a complicated subject matter: computers have to process a huge amount of data on individual cases to get along with the language. For languages that are widely used are said to suffer from linguistic performance problems despite the developments in annotation and text corpora. than, think of the languages that are limited in use poses a greater challenge. Finally, for the extraction of information to be more precise, accurate and efficient the computers need to be made more enabling by correct input of the algorithms.

12.7 Summary

Everything around us are transforming and technology has, perhaps, left no stone unturned to influence human lives - boon or bane, the way it has found its usage.. We see robots playing human roles to the extent of nurturing a child or, as a baby-sitter following our instructions. Or, in a fraction of second, Alexa, Cortona in digital world does so many work for us. But, have we ever thought how do the machines (or, robots as we say) play the roles or follow human instructions. It is after all using language to perform and execute. In this unit, an attempt was made to take you through an understanding of computational linguistics or the branch of study that deals with processing of human language into machine language. It will give you a basic understanding of the importance of algorithms and computation to derive the right set of instructions in accordance to the output expected of the humanoids. I am sure you would be interested to look more into it.

12.8 Review Questions

1. What has been your understanding of linguistics so far and is there any development on the perspective? Justify.
2. Can you explain the importance of computational skill in your day-to-day life and how do you think you have applied them so far?
3. Construct from your understanding of the unit and the references that you consulted the points on how linguistics cast an influence on computational linguistics.
4. In case of your experiences in teaching (any level or even at home front) or in any situation, have you ever faced issues of understanding the set of instructions to carry out a work? How do you think it can be erroneous or effective?

5. Explain some of the barriers that may hinder the appropriacy in formulating algorithms.
6. Search and suggest a few applications of computational linguistics apart from those that are mentioned in the unit.
7. Study 'The Mathematical Theory of Information' and relate its relevance in the context of computational linguistics at its inception and the present day.
8. How does NLP function? What parameters are used in making NLP a possibility.
9. Is CALL a reality in India? How extensively is it used?
10. How does Artificial Intelligence (AI) play a part in NLP and other devices like Cortona and Alexa?

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Notes

¹Notational - refers to notation or system of symbols in the field of music, mathematics, language, chemistry and so on.

²Words that describe other words example noun, pronoun, adjectives that are used to define the other words (say, good is a word that is described as adjective).

³Corpus-based data- based on practical and real applications or transcriptions of recorded speech.

12.10 Reading List

1. *Computational Linguistics*. Ralph Grisman. Online publication: 2012. Cambridge University Press.
2. *The Oxford Handbook of Computational Linguistics*. Ed. Ruslan Mitkov. Oxford University Press. 2003.
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Module 4 : Linguistic Analysis

Unit 13 □ Textual Analysis

13.1 Introduction

13.2 Objectives

13.3 Analysis of a text

13.4 Linguistics features of a text

13.5 Purposes of textual analysis

13.6 Skills and Techniques in textual analysis

13.7 Summary

13.8 Review Questions

13.9 Reading List

13.1 Introduction

The module is on Linguistics Analysis of a Text. Let us be familiar with the term 'Linguistic Analysis'. Linguistic analysis refers to scientific analysis of a piece of text as a sample. It is based on five branches of Linguistic study. They are phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Phonology includes analysis of speech sounds, morphology is for word analysis, syntax operates at the level of sentences, semantics is the area of meaning analysis and pragmatics is the analysis on the use of language for specific situations.

13.2 Objectives

After going through the unit, you will be able to

- a) Understand the basic concepts in Linguistics analysis
- b) Know about linguistic features
- c) Understand what text analysis means
- d) Learn critical thinking skills

13.3 Analysis of a text

What does analysis of a text mean? Analysis is breaking down of a text into its component parts and then asking critical thinking questions 'Why' and 'How' to reach a conclusion. When a text is analysed, these individual components are examined. A text is a piece of written material or the written form of a speech, a play, or an article. In academic terms, text is anything that conveys a set of meanings to a person who examines it. In literary theory, text is any object that can be read. It may be a work of literature, or a street sign in the form of a single sentence or a short passage.

Analysis of a text is a careful examination of the text in order to find out what it consists of. It is a detailed study to understand more about it. Let us take an example.

1. You can lead the horse to the water but you can't make it drink.

This is a single sentence text which talks of showing people how to do things but cannot force them to act. From the structure, we can say that there are two clauses joined with the conjunction 'but'. The main clause 'you can lead the horse to the water' has a complementary clause 'you can't make it drink'. Now, let us look at bigger texts.

2. I don't want
anyone else
and neither does
She.
The problem is
I'm talking about
her but she is
not talking about
Me.

The nine lines poem by Ryan Hennessy is based on two characters 'she' and 'me'. The argument behind the poem is composed in the last five lines where the poet is talking of a problem. The lines are presented in two or three words so as to match with the single word sentences. 'is' and 'about' are repeated twice to rhyme the sentences. Let us work on few tasks to check our learning.

Task 1: Analyse the following texts:

- a) Don't put off until tomorrow what you can do today.

Your answer:

- b) 'Human beings have been speaking for many tens of thousands of years at least, and they may possibly have been singing for about as long. But writing is a rather recent development in human affairs. So far as we know, the first true writing system was invented by the Sumerians, in what is now Iraq, about 5,200 years ago. The use of writing spread out from there, and writing was much later independently invented in a few other places, including at least China and Mexico.' (Trask, 2004: 130).

Your answer:

Text (a) is a proverb with an embedded structure. The main clause is 'what you can do today' which is embedded with the clause 'Don't put off until tomorrow'. The text talks of completing task in time to avoid unnecessary delay.

Text (b) is a factual description on the emergence of writing. The phrase 'for many tens of thousands of years' and 'have been singing for about as long' plays the role of catching the reader's attention in a story telling mode. This sentence also de-stress the activity of reading heavy disciplinary discourse.

You must be wondering are there any principles of text analysis? The following section discusses the linguistic features of text according to which we may analyse a text.

13.4 Linguistics features of a text

A feature is a characteristic used for classifying a phoneme, morpheme, or word. Linguistics features are components that create language for communication. The five main components of a language are phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, syntax and context. Together with grammar, semantics, and pragmatics these enable meaningful communication. We are already familiar with the term phoneme.

A Phoneme is a minimum distinctive unit which does not have any meaning of its own, but when replaced by another phoneme (in a similarly constructed word) can bring a change in meaning. Phonemes are language specific and are distinctive features of a language. The structure '*The fat cat in the hat*' has a number of phonemes. When

the phoneme /f/ in 'fat' is replaced by /k/ or /h/ we have new words like cat and hat. We will learn more on phonological analysis in Unit 14. Now, let us see what we know about morpheme.

A morpheme is a minimum meaningful unit of a language while analysing the structure of a word. Unlike phonemes, morphemes are mutually exclusive. That is one morpheme cannot occur in the place of another morpheme. For example the structure 'gentlemanliness' has four morphemes, [gentle + man + li + ness] each having a meaning of its own and not divisible any further in form.

A lexeme is a unit of lexical meaning which exists along with its different forms. Lexemes are a stream of characters which can be grouped together based on a specific pattern. The patterns are the description that a lexeme can represent or take. The words drink, drinks, drinking, drank, and drunk are forms of the lexeme Drink. They are in verb inflection pattern. The lexeme is always written in capital letters. Lexemes can be multiword. Phrasal and prepositional words, idioms and some compounds are multiword lexemes. For example 'fire station' and 'change of heart' are multiword lexemes.

Learning a language includes the ability to create phrases and sentences out of morphemes and words. Arrangement of these structures and their formation is 'syntax'. Syntax is the study of sentence patterns in a language. For example, the sentence 'I saw a bird in a big tree.' has NP and VP structure. This is called parsing. You will learn more about parsing in Paper 7.

The Context is the circumstances that forms the setting for a statement, or an idea in terms of which it can be understood. Examples of contexts are the words which surround the word 'time' in the sentences:

- a) I have saved a lot of time and the results were up to the mark.
- b) I can login at multiple sites at the same time without having to register.
- c) It is difficult for the first time users who do not know how to customize.
- d) Travel through space and time.

For sentence (a) saving time indicates completing a task in a short time, whereas, for (b) 'same time' refers to the ability to access and use many tools and apps to accomplish multiple tasks in a parallel way. Sentence (c) is a statement on users who are working on a task for the first time to cope with specific functions (at the individual level) and (d) is referring to an indefinite continued progress of events across past, present and future.

Context can be public or private, official or informal, factual or fictional, literary or non-literary, and prose or poetry.

Task 2 : Analyse the context for the following text¹.

Digital learning apps are proving to be fun ways to educate children. They are offering an opportunity to strengthen the brain while learning. Moreover, it is proving to be a great way to keep students engaged. Access to such platforms is also enabling many students to assess, enhance and hone their attention skills.

Your answer:

The text is on the opportunities of digital learning apps, and the skills of the learner that they are strengthening. Though this is a generalized statement, it can have adverse effects in long time application.

Task 3 : Analyse the lexemes from the following:

- A. Confidence allows one to communicate concisely with clarity.
- B. Throughout the world, it has been seen that effective communication is vital in the pursuit of a rewarding career.

Your answer:

The lexemes in the text are (a) communicate concisely with clarity,(b) throughout the world, effective communication, rewarding career.

13.5 Purposes of textual analysis

The purpose of a text is the message the author wants to communicate. The purpose of analysis is to break the text into smaller simple topics in order to gain a better understanding of it. In the process it describes the content, structure and functions contained in the text. The purpose of textual analysis involves asking questions on four areas: Mode, Discourse, Lexis and Grammar. The mode covers the physical appearance and presentation of the text. The mode of a text can be written or spoken, spontaneous (conversation) or planned (lecture, essay). Discourse is the sense structure of a text. The purposes of the discourse are to introduce

- (a) the narrator/ author/ speaker,
- (b) the linguistic features of genres - newspaper article/ letter/ novel/ instruction manual etc., and,
- (c) the lexical and syntactical patterning.

The lexis discusses the formal and informal types of expressions. Does the text draw on ambiguous words? Are there repetition of words and any other text specific words? We need to look for these answers in textual analysis. The grammar looks into the grammatical structures that organize the text.

Task 4 : Analyse the following text according to mode, discourse, lexis and grammar.

A little while ago I *asked* Mrs Z to give me a black marker pen. She *understood* what I said and *gave* me a blue marker. I put the pen in my folder and *went* to the class. I could not find the maker at first but in a minute I *found* it in my folder. Then I *drew* a picture of the speech organs on the board. I *came* back to the table and *put* the marker down. And you all *drew* it in your sheets.

Your answer:

The above text is a spontaneous discourse of a class teacher with many words in the past tense. The text also introduces irregular verbs. These words are in the italics. The lexical and syntactical patterning is focused on those grammatical points in the text.

13.6 Skills and Techniques in textual analysis

When we read a text, in the first reading we are drawn to the text message and then we shift our focus to the text structure. When we are reading a story for example, we absorb ourselves into the story path, and its events and after the reading ponder on its characters and try to recapitulate a few times the situations which we appreciated the most and on the actions on which we want to reflect on. In the unconscious process, we revise on the language used in the story. If we are working on the text then in the second reading, we focus on its structure. So there are few steps involved here. First, choosing the text we want to read, then making notes of the elements in the text with 'why' and 'how' questions and answering those questions and finally drawing conclusions with reasonable support. Now, what are the language structures on which we need to focus for text analysis? You will discover them while working on the tasks and later on when you will learn to see text analysis elements in everything you read. This can be investigating how often certain words and phrases are repeated in social media posts or which colours are predominant in advertisements for certain products. The critical thinking skills are needed for textual analysis. They are analysis, inference, and interpretation.

Task 5: Find the Key elements for text analysis.

*The chief difficulty in learning a new language is the trouble of changing from the sentence-pattern which you are used to in your own language to the sentence-patterns of the new language. Learning new words is easy, for that is only a question of simple memory and the building up of 'links'; but it is clearly necessary to teach the sentence patterns of English, and to make them a habit, as early as possible.*²

Your answer:

It can be concluded that the above text is on pros and cons of learning a new language. Therefore the 'why' and 'how' questions for the text analysis are: why learning new a word is easy and how are sentence-patterns learnt. The key elements are: new words and sentence-patterns.

Task 6 : Analyse the text³ to identify the idea and technique.

If you are an amateur conjurer one of your tricks would go down very well as an action-chain. I once saw a teacher make an action-chain by taking off his collar and tie and putting them on again. On another occasion, to give his class some practice in imperatives (and precise instructions), he took off his jacket and asked the class to tell him how to put it on again. When they said, "Put your arm in the sleeve," he put his left arm in the right armhole and had to be corrected, then he put it on back to front while they shouted further instructions, put it upside down, inside out, etc., until he almost strangled himself. The class was almost in hysterics. They probably learned a lot: at any rate they were not bored.

Your answer:

In the first reading of the text, you will find that the theme of the text is teaching precise instructions through an action chain. The learners come up with imperative constructions after viewing the context. The technique used in the teaching is performing and at the same time describing actions.

13.7 Summary

Linguistic analysis of the text features is an area that has a few sub areas. The areas that are introduced here are in detailed discussion for the other units of the module as well as in other core courses. The aim of the unit is to introduce you to the linguistic analysis through a variety of tasks. There are a few review questions to check your understand of the unit.

13.8 Review Questions

1. What is text analysis?
2. What are the processes for reading and analysing a text?
3. What are the lexemes? Give examples.
4. What are the purposes of text analysis?
5. What are linguistic features?
6. Arrange the following steps for processing a text.
 - a. Making first round of basic notes.
 - b. Reading a text third time to identify examples and techniques.
 - c. Reading or viewing a text for ideas and themes.
 - d. Reading a text second time to identify ideas and themes.
7. What skills are necessary for textual analysis? Discuss them with their applications.
8. Write an example of a text analysis on grammar.
9. Write an example from real life situation on mode analysis.
10. What are the skills necessary for text analysis? Justify your answer.

13.9 Reading list

Carroll, John B., ed. (1956). *Language, Thought and Reality: Selected Writings of Benjamin Whorf*, Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press

Salkie, Raphael. (2006). *Text and Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge.

Trask, R. L. (2004). *Language - the Basics*. New York: Routledge.

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Notes

¹The Times of India, Kolkata, 11th June 2021, page 7.

²The Teaching of English Abroad, Part 1: Aims and Methods. F. G. French. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1975, Page 40.

³Essential English for Foreign Students - Teacher's Book -1 C. E.. Eckersley. London: Longman, 1963, Page 47.

Unit 14 □ Phonological Analysis

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Objectives

14.3 Identification of Phonemes

14.4 Identification of Allomorphs

14.5 Writing phonological rules

14.6 Summary

14.7 Review Questions

14.8 References

14.1 Introduction

We are familiar with the terms phonetics and phonology which we discussed in Paper 3. Phonology is the study of sound systems of all languages. Phonological analysis is an analysis of the speech sounds of a particular language. The aim is to determine how differences of speech sounds are phonemic or help us identify distinct phonemes and those that are non-phonemic or allophones which are in free variation.

14.2 Objectives

After reading and working on the activities from the unit you will be able to

- a) Understand the concepts of phonetics and phonology based on practical activities
 - b) Undertake phonemic analysis of a given data
 - c) Understand the principles of phonetic analysis
 - d) Learn how to write phonological rules
-

14.3 Identification of Phonemes

A phoneme is a class of minimal distinctive unit that features contrasting and mutually exclusive environment from all other distinctive sounds of a language. Phonemes of a language are identified from arranging, comparing, and combining the forms of utterances with the help of phonetic transcription. In identification process

we need to find out whether the occurrence of any particular initial is limited by the following sounds. If it is limited, then it is an allophone.

The variation of speech sounds which combine to form a phoneme are its allophones. Allophones are phonetically similar sounds in complementary distribution. This means, where one sound can occur, the other variant cannot occur. We will make this clear with some examples later. These phonetically similar sounds never occur in an identical environment. For example, [p^h] in pin and [p] in spin are allophones, as they cannot distinguish words. They are not similar in sound quality. The first one is aspirated while the second one is unaspirated.

In order to understand the position of a sound, we need to become familiar with the word 'environment' of a sound in a syllable. Take a look at these examples:

[p^hIn] and [spIn]

In these words, the sound /p/ occurs in two places. [p^h] occurs initially and is followed by a vowel sound. The sound is also the first sound in a stressed syllable. This environment can be represented as: - x v (where the initial - stands for blank, 'x' stands for the sound under discussion and 'v' for a vowel.).

[p] in the second word is medial (not initial). It is the second sound in the syllable and is also followed by a vowel sound. The environment for this sound is represented as: c x v (where 'c' stands for a consonant, 'x' for the sound and 'v' for a vowel).

Since the two sounds occur in different environments performing specific functions, they are said to be distributed in complementary distribution. This means, one sound completes the function of the other sound which it cannot perform. [p^h] can occur only at the beginning of a stressed syllable. It cannot occupy a medial position, therefore this function is completed by [p] medially. Together, the two allophones perform the function of one phoneme. (There is one more allophonic variation of the phoneme /p/ which always occurs finally, and is called the unexploded variety, and is represented as shown [p⁰]. You find this sound in a word like 'tip'. (Phonemes occur in contrastive distribution, i.e. they bring about a difference in meaning, when they occur in similar environment e.g. pin and bin.

For each sound in a syllable, environment can be marked in a similar fashion to determine whether a sound is a phoneme or an allophone. Let us look at some activities to help you gain practice in such exercise.

Activity 1

Sindhi Language: Compare the sounds [p] and [p^h] from the data¹. Do they exist in similar or contrastive environments? State why.

[pəpu]	leaf	[təu]	bottom	[dəu]	door
[yəju]	opportunity	[kʰəto]	sour	[jə'u]	judge
[Seki]	suspicious	[bəju]	run	[pʰənu]	snake food

Your answer:

From the data, [p] and [pʰ] are in contrastive distribution. Both occur in word initial positions as in 'leaf' and 'snake food'. Since there is a difference in meaning, it indicates that by replacing the sound, a new word is formed. Aspiration is phonemic in Sindhi as there are other aspirated stop sounds like [kʰ].

In phoneme identification, phonemes in initial clusters are identified in two ways. If different clusters contain a common member, and if all the members of a cluster occur alone as initials, then it is a phoneme or a distinct unit. For example, demonstrate has the cluster '-nstr-', the cluster 'str-' is also found in 'strategic' and 'illustrate'. The members of the cluster are [s], [t] and [r] occur as initial sounds in saga, tortoise and restaurant. Therefore we may conclude that /s, t, r/ are distinct phonemes of English.

Activity 2

Japanese language²: Consider the sounds [t] and [tʃ]. Determine whether they are allophones of the same phoneme or two different phonemes. If they are allophones state the complementary distribution; if phonemes, state the contrast. What phonological process is illustrated here?

[tatami]	mat	[tegami]	letter
[tʃitʃi]	father	[ʃita]	under
[tʃizu]	map	[koto]	fact
[utʃi]	house	[degutʃi]	exit

Your answer:

The sounds [t] and [tʃ] are two distinct phonemes and not allophones for the following reasons.

- /t/ occurs at word initial position (mat, letter) and word medial position (fact, mat).
- /tʃ/ occurs word initially (map), word medially (father) and word finally (house, exit).

The phonological process is word final vowels are high when they occur after fricative, affricate and nasal sounds.

Activity : 3

Spanish Language: Analyse the data³ below and find the phonemes of the Language. [ɬ] is voiceless retroflex stop, [ɖ] voiced retroflex stop.

[pɛθ]	fish	[bɛθ]	time	[ɬia]	aunt	[ɖia]	day
[kaɬa]	tasting	[gaɬa]	'she-wolf'	[paɬa]	foot	[papa]	pope
[ɬoro]	bull	[koro]	chorus	[θima]	peak	[sima]	abyss
[fjesɬa]	fiesta	[sjesɬa]	siesta	[oxo]	eye	[oso]	bear

Your answer:

The distinct phonemes are /p/, /b/, /ɬ/, /ɖ/, /k/, /g/, /θ/, /f/, /s/, /x/.

They all occur in contrastive distribution, in mutually contrasting environments. For instance, the words, [pɛθ] 'fish' and [bɛθ] 'time' have similar environments '-ɛθ' with a different initial sound. Therefore they are minimal pairs and the initial sounds /p/ and /b/ are two distinct phonemes.

For the word 'siesta', /s/ is a phoneme (since 'abyss' and 'peak' occur as minimal pairs) therefore sj- is a cluster. Thus fj- is also a cluster of two phonemes. Therefore, /f/ and /j/ are phonemes.

14.4 Identification of Allomorphs

Allomorphs are variations of sounds of a single phoneme which occur in the same position but do not form new words. Thus they are phonetically similar sounds which never contrast with each other. If all the phonetically similar sounds in the question share a feature of articulation, absent in all other sounds in the environment, then they are classified as allophones of the same phoneme. Let us work on few activities on allophone identification.

Activity : 4

Consider the data⁴ from Greek, focusing on the following sounds:

[x]	voiceless velar fricative	[c]	voiceless palatal stop		
[k]	voiceless velar stop	[ç]	voiceless palatal fricative		
[kano]	'do'	[çeli]	'eel'	[krima]	'shame'
[xano]	'lose'	[ceri]	'candle'	[xufta]	'handful'
[çino]	'pour'	[çeri]	'hand'	[kufeta]	'bonbons'

[cino] 'move'	[kori] 'daughter'	[oçi] 'no'
[kali] 'charms'	[xori] 'dances'	
[xali] 'plight'	[xrima] 'money'	

- State the status of [x, k, c and ç].
- Are they in complementary distribution or in contrastive distribution?
- Specify the occurrences of [k] and [x] sounds.

Your answer:

a) /k/ and /x/ are phonemes because they occur word initially creating two different words in the environment '___ ano'.

/ç/ and /c/ are also phonemes because they too occur word initially creating two different words in the environment '___ eri'.

- They are in contrastive distribution.
- /k/ and /x/ occur as single consonants word initially as well as in word initial clusters as /kr-/ and /xr-/ combinations.

Activity 5

Look at the transcriptions of a number of words in Scots.⁵

- Match the orthographic English gloss in the box below with the Scots transcription. (Hint: diphthongs in RP are usually lengthened monophthongs in Scots).
- Do you think the sounds mixture between /w/ and /h/ are phonemes, allophones or in free variation? Give reasons.

(Voiceless labial velar approximant, a kind of [w] and [M].)

Scots transcription	English orthographic gloss	Scots transcription	English orthographic gloss
Ma'e	why	Mɪp	Whip
əwe:	away	wɪtʃɪz	witches
Mɪtʃ	which	wɛðlɪvɛ:n	weathervane
Meə	whale	əMɪt	Awhile
We:	Way	Mɪt	White

Mɛð^r	Whether	We:t	Wait
Me:	whey	wənt	want
weɹz	Wales		

Your answer:

/w/ and /M/ are phonemes because they occur as minimal pairs in:
whey and way, weather and whether, whales and Wales.

14.5 Writing phonological rules

Phonological rules are symbolic statements on the occurrences of sound segments (phonemes). The function of a phonological rule is to provide phonetic information necessary for pronunciation. There are two components of a rule. The left hand component segmented from the right hand component by a slash (/). The left hand component specifies the sound segment in the analysis and its features. The right hand component specifies the environment in which it occurs, its preceding and following sounds. The word boundary is marked by a hash tag (#). For example the following is a phonological rule:

$$C \text{ [Velar]} \rightarrow \text{[Palatal]} / \text{ ______ } V \text{ [Front]}$$

This rule states that velar consonants transform to palatal consonants in the context before front vowels. Let us work out few activities.

Activity 6

Bukusu is a language of the Bantu family spoken in Kenya. The nasal prefix /n-/ shows that the verb is in first person (I eat, go, sing etc.). Two different processes occur when /n/ occurs before another consonant. Analyse the words from the data6 and think what is happening. /β/, /ʋ/ and /x/ are voiced bilabial fricative, palatal nasal and voiceless velar fricative. /i:/ is a long vowel.

ndi:la 'I hold'	ɲdzina 'I scream'	se:nda 'I move'
suna 'I jump'	ɲdzu:ŋga 'I watch'	xala 'I cut'
ŋgaβa 'I divide'	ŋgeta 'I pour'	mbi:ma 'I weigh'
ndasa 'I add'	xola 'I do'	mbula 'I roam'
mubuka 'I perish'	ndula 'I trample'	fuka 'I cook'
fwa:ra 'I dress'	funa 'I break'	mbala 'I count'

- a) How does the nasal occur? Name the phonological processes.
 b) Write phonological rules on nasal prefix /n-/ in *Bukusu*.

Your answer:

a) There are four types of nasals in the data. These are: alveolar nasal /n /, palatal nasal /ɲ/, velar nasal /ŋ/ and bilabial nasal /m /. These nasals are distributed in the following contexts:

i) The alveolar nasal /n/ occurs word initially and medially before alveolar stop /d/ &

before front back vowel/a/.

ii) The palatal nasal /ɲ/ occurs word initially before palatal affricate /tʃ/.

iii) The velar nasal /ŋ/ occurs word initially and medially before voiced velar stop /g/.

iv) The bilabial nasal /m/ occurs word initially before voiced bilabial stop /b/ and back high vowel /u/.

b) Phonological rule for /n-/:

i) $C[+nasal] \rightarrow [alveolar] / \# ______ C [+alveolar][+stop][+voiced]$
 $\qquad\qquad\qquad V [+front][+back]$

C. Now write the phonological rules for ii), iii) and iv).

Your answer:

Activity 7

Data⁷ from Italian. Focus on the phones [k] and [t]-do they contrast? What about their nasal counterparts [ŋ] and [n]? (['] means that the following syllable is stressed.)

[ne:ro] black	['staŋko] tired	['tap:o] tap
[aŋke]also	['fi:ne] end	['teŋgo] I hold
[nʝente] nothing	[fran'tʃjeze] French	['luŋgo] long
[uŋgja] claw	['ka:po] head	['liŋgwa] language
['onda] wave	[in'vɛmo] winter	

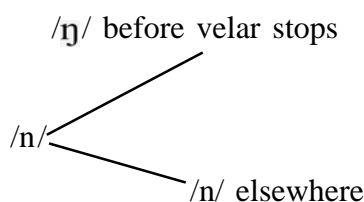
Your answer:

Distribution: /k/ and /t/ occurs in the minimal pairs 'tap' and 'head'. They are therefore phonemes. Their distribution is mentioned in the following rules.

C → [+Velar, -voiced] / [+stressed] _____ [+long front vowel, CV] #

C → [+dental, -voiced] / [+stressed] _____ VCV#

/n/ and /ŋ/ are allophones. They are not phonemes because they do not contrast each other. Their complementary distribution is stated in the following diagram.



Activity 8

Look at the data from English. State the rule that specifies when /t/, /d/, /s/ and /z/ become palatalized as /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/.

Nonpalatalized		Palatalized	
hɪt mi	'hit me'	hɪtʃ ju	'hit you'
lɪd him	'lead him'	lɪdʒju	'lead you'
pʰæsʌs	'pass us'	pʰæs ju	'pass you'
luːðɛm	'loose them'	luːʒju	'lose you'

Your answer:

Phonological rule: Palatalization occurs when they [t, d, s, z] are followed by a palatal glide.

C → [palatal] / _____ C [palatal glide]

14.6 Summary

The unit is a practical application of the knowledge introduced in paper 3. Most of the answers to the activities are discussed in the unit for the autonomous learning. Phonological analysis involves detailed examination of the phonemes in their environments. Here are some review questions to check your comprehension on the unit.

14.7 Review Questions

1. Hypothetical Language

- a) Consider the sounds [s] and [z] and determine whether they are allophones of the same phoneme, or represent two different phonemes.
- b) If the answer for (a) is allophone, then state the complementary distribution; if the answer for (a) is phoneme, then state the contrastive distribution. Argue for your answer.
- c) What phonological process is illustrated here?
- d) If the two sounds are allophones, write a rule that accounts for their distribution using feature notation.

[seri] finger	[idos] pot	[mosta] sky	[lize] top
[tuga] pain	[tiva] dog	[sozi] light	[mizas] loud

2. Phonological rule

Using feature notations, write rules for expressing the following phonological processes.

- a. A vowel becomes short when it occurs before a consonant word-finally, or before a consonant cluster.
- b. Word-final consonants are deleted after an unstressed vowel.
- c. Word-final vowels are deleted when followed by a voiceless affricate consonant.
3. State in plain English what the following rules do.

- a. $C[-\text{sonorant}] \rightarrow [\alpha \text{ voice}] / \text{ ______ } C[-\text{sonorant}][\alpha \text{ voice}]$
- b. $V \rightarrow [+stress] / \text{ ______ } Co\#$
- c. $C[+\text{sonorant}] \rightarrow [+syllabic] / C \text{ ______ } \#$

14.8 References

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Notes

- 1 <http://pyersqr.org/classes/Ling106/Phonology%20Exercises.pdf>
- 2 <http://www.sfu.ca/~mrobbie/Ling220/PRACTICE%20EXERCISES.pdf>
- 3 http://www1.pu.edu.tw/~jason/UPP_2_Practice%20Exercises
- 4 <https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/read/39679113/answer-key-phonological-analysis-exercises>
- 5 http://www.morrissey.unibe.ch/introoling/06_Key_3Phonology_Exercises.pdf
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Unit 15 □ Semantic Analysis

15.1 Introduction

15.2 Objectives

15.3 Semantic relations

15.4 Semantic rules

15.5 Types of Meaning

15.6 Teaching Semantic Analysis

15.7 Summary

15.8 Review Questions

15.9 References and Reading List

15.1 Introduction

In the previous unit you have learnt on relation between a sound and its environment. This unit is on Semantics. This is a discussion on the relationship between individual words, paragraphs and sentences in their particular contexts. Semantics aims to study meaning in a language. Semantics analyses the grammatical structures from sentences, paragraphs and whole texts and interprets them. In other words, it is about drawing meaning from texts.

15.2 Objectives

After reading the unit you will be able to

- a) Understand the difference between semantic analysis and pragmatic analysis
 - b) Differentiate between different types of meaning
 - c) Learn how to teach semantic analysis
 - d) Understand semantic relations
-

15.3 Semantic relations

Semantic relationships or associations can be perceived at three levels: between words or at word level, between meanings of phrases and between meanings of sentences. What a word means depends on its relation with other words. The relations

aspect is concerned with the semantic links that exists between pairs of words. The links are either of semantic differences or of semantic similarities. Let's us look at different semantic relations.

Proximity is nearness in relationship. For example red versus scarlet and green versus emerald are graded in semantic proximity. Similarly, table and chair share the same semantic features of object, and pieces of furniture. Therefore they are grouped as nouns denoting pieces of furniture.

Equivalence is similarity of meaning between two or more words or sentences. It is found more for the sentence level and rarely at the word level. For example the sentences: Jim swims well = Jim is good at swimming = Jim is a good swimmer.

Opposition is the contrast of semantic that establishes semantic relations. Opposition is of two types; polar opposition and relative opposition. Examples of polar opposition are young-old, near-far, day-night etc. Relative opposition implies the relation between two words, either of which requires the other to explain it. For example, the verb 'to leave' implies moving away from a place and its opposite 'to arrive' indicate moving towards a place or destination.

Let us take another example. In the two sentences:

- a) Nitin is taller than Manish and
- b) Manish is shorter than Nitin;

There are two opposite words 'taller' and 'shorter' but the sentences are in equivalence relation. This is because the sentences have of exchanged Subject and Predicate.

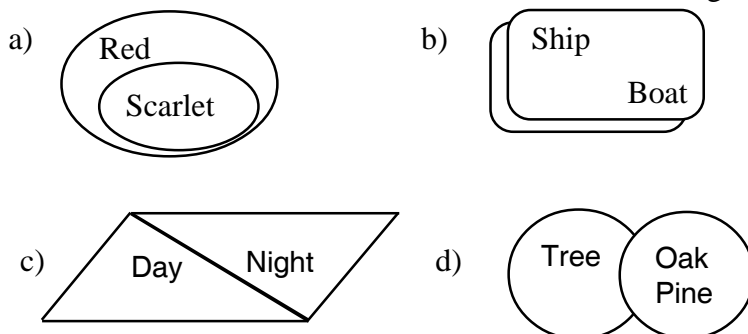
Inclusion is a semantic relation between two or more words where the meaning of a word is contained in the semantic features constituting the meaning of another word. For example: vehicle - tram, bus, auto, etc.

Task 1: Match the semantic relation for the following sets of words:

Equivalence	Woman - female adult
Opposition	Animal - horse, cow, giraffe
Proximity	light-dark
Inclusion	ship-boat

Your Answer:

Task 2: Name the semantic relations to the following diagrams.



Your answer:

- a)
- b)
- c)
- d)

15.4 Semantic rules

Semantic rules are ambiguities that make certain kinds of communication possible. They are ambiguities that people have agreed on to give meanings to and are based on certain symbols and words of a structure. They are also known as semantic fallacies. Semantic misunderstandings arise when different meanings are given to the same set of words and phrases. Learning on misunderstandings make us better communicators and help us to be effective communicators in all our relationships. The following are common semantic misunderstanding.

Equivocation: a word or a phrase with two or more meanings can be misunderstood. Example: climbing the corporate ladder. The two different interpretations to this sentence are: finding success in a job, and getting into more responsibilities. The verb 'move' can mean change of place, push, pull or carry or stir something. 'Crash' can mean a vehicle collision, a drop in the Stock Market, ocean waves hitting the shore, to attend a party without being invited, and to strike cymbals together. This rule occurs when two or more meanings are drawn from the same word.

Relative words: words that gain meaning from comparison and do not have

exact definition. They change depending on the context and are very subjective. A giraffe is big if compared to a human being, but a giraffe is small when compared to the earth. This is relative term. An individual's own ideas and concepts are relative, differing from other individuals. Let us take another example. Let's play the relative game. The word 'relative' can mean big, hard, stupid, free or heavy depending on the context.

Abstraction: general language that represents ideas or concepts without physical references. For example, instead of 'thanks for washing the dishes' we prefer to say 'thanks for cleaning up'. Effects of abstraction may lead to misunderstandings and misinterpretations. This is illustrated in the following paragraph.

A mother wants to visit to a grocery store. Before leaving, she calls her two daughters and says, 'The house is in a mess, so clean up the house by the time I'm back from the store'. The girls did what they were told. When the mother returned, she found that the dining and living space was still in mess. Then she ask her daughters, 'You haven't dusted or vacuumed?'. Her daughters replied you had told us to clean the mess, so we have cleaned our rooms'.

The mother was vague in her communication with her daughters, and the girls had cleaned what they thought was mess in the house. The mother had to be more specific with her instruction, and that would have made the communication clear. With specific instructions the girls would have done the cleaning of the entire house.

Task 3: Give the semantic rules for the following.

1. Let's talk about rights and left. You're right, so I left.
2. Time flies like an arrow, fruit flies like a banana.
3. The word 'create' can mean build, compose, imagine, make, construct or erect.

Your answer:

Task 4: Give the semantic rules for the following.

- A. That was a live frog - (having life)
Do you live here - (to exist)
- B. Wind the clock - (to turn)
The wind blew - (moving air)
- C. John records the number of repetitions he does on a piece of exercise equipment

and turns his records to his coach at the end of the week.

What are the two meanings of word 'record'?

Your answer:

15.5 Types of Meaning

Semantics is study of meaning. There are seven types of meaning. These seven types are: Conceptual meaning, Connotative meaning, Stylistic meaning, Affective meaning, Collocative meaning, Reflected meaning, and Thematic meaning.

Conceptual meaning also synonymous with cognitive meaning or denotative meaning that comes to our mind as soon as we see a word in isolation. For example: when we read the word 'man' we specify its constituent meaning as human, adult and male. It is contrasted in its constituent meaning from another word 'girl' which is specified as human, not adult and female. Conceptual meaning is the base for all other types of meaning.

Connotative meaning is the meaning which varies according to individual experience, age and culture. It conveys feelings and emotions related to the word. For example, 'white' has a connotation associated with light, purity and innocence.

Stylistic meaning reflects the social situations of its utterance. For example, information on the Television does not sound the same when my best friend recaps the announcement. Words with same conceptual meaning and same stylistic meaning are rare.

Affective meaning conveys the meaning expressed through conceptual or connotative content of words. It conveys individual's feelings and attitudes through politeness, sarcasm, irritation. Tone and intonation are essential elements of affective meaning. To express affective meaning we rely on mediation of other categories of meaning - conceptual, connotative and stylistic.

Reflected meaning arises when there are multiple conceptual meanings. It arises when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense. Taboo words have reflected meaning. For example:

Cock is substituted by rooster.

Collocative meaning refers to word associations or partnerships that a word acquires on account of the meanings which co-occur in its environment. For example, pretty and handsome share the common ground 'good-looking'. Replacing a word

with synonym affects the meaning. Other examples of Collocative pairs are 'right on time, fast on track, hard to crack, etc.

Task 5: Discuss the meaning types from the following.

- a) Big business
- b) Home for a sailor/soldier
- c) Ex politician- Statesman
- d) A Needle is a thin sharp instrument

Your answer:

Task 6: Discuss the meaning types from the following.

- a) Fast reading/ fast colour/ fast friendship/ fast road/ fast car
- b) He is as cunning as a fox.
- c) /p/ is described as voiceless + bilabial + plosive
- d) Messing with money is like messing with monster.

Your answer:

Answers for Task 5: a) Collocative meaning, b) Affective meaning, c) Connotative meaning, d) Conceptual meaning

15.6 Teaching Semantic Analysis

The semantics field has three basic concerns. These concerns are:

- a) the relations of words to the objects they denote,
- b) the relations of words as they are interpreted and
- c) the formal relations of signs to one another.

The formal relation of signs to one another is symbolic logic.

When we come across an unfamiliar word, how do you determine its meaning? First we try to find clues from the context and speculate on its meaning and then check it with a dictionary. For example when we read the sentence; "*Applied linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language.*" we may wonder what the word ameliorating means. We might guess it speaks about trying to solve. When the word is checked in the dictionary it reveals that is about 'making better'. In the process, explanation clue is required for

the meaning of the unfamiliar word. Clues are of five types.

- a) Definition or explanation clue- it can be found in the explanation of the unfamiliar word found in the context immediately after its use.
- b) Restatement or synonym clue- which is a simple expression for a difficult word. In the above example, 'ameliorating' appears to be restatement of 'solving' and another expression for it.
- c) Contrast or antonym clue- sometimes meaning of the unfamiliar word is derived by contrasting it to the context. For example in the sentence 'Manika is gregarious, unlike her brother who is quiet and shy'. 'Gregarious' is a contrast to 'quiet and shy'. Thus it means Manika likes company or is social or excessively talkative.
- d) Inference or general clue- that is deriving the lexical form from its structure and then getting to its meaning. For example, 'ameliorating' appears to be verb from the word structure.
- e) Punctuation-for example (;) in the sentence, 'The speakers jokes were amusing and pertinent; they were directly related to points she made in her speech.' The punctuation clue suggests that the meaning of the word pertinent is explained in the context immediately after its use.

Semantic clues are used to determine meaning in a context and understanding the clue from the structure is a strategy for semantic analysis. Teaching semantic analysis involves the other strategies we have discussed in this section. Let us revise on them. The first strategy is to state the general process that a reader uses to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words. There can be different ways depending on the reader choices. Some readers opt for checking words from e-dictionaries readily available on devices rather than opening dictionaries. The second strategy is understanding and identifying the type of clue is used in a given structure. The third strategy is recognizing multiple meanings of words from the context.

Task 7: Identify the semantic clues from the following:

- A. Some people are gullible-easily cheated or tricked because they believe everything that others say.
- B. Unlike his quiet and low key family, Biswas is garrulous.
- C. My opponent's argument is fallacious, misleading- plain wrong.
- D. You don't need to worry about talking to Mr. Ben. He is an affable principal.

E. Mr. Ben is an affable principal. He is pleasant and easy to approach and always friendly.

Your answer:

Task 8: Recognize and state the multiple meanings of word 'leave' for the following.

- a) May I take your leave.
- b) Can I leave a note.
- c) I left my purse here.
- d) You cannot speak without your leave
- e) My secretary has decided to leave.
- f) Leave the laundry- Jack will wash them later.
- g) Seven from twelve leaves five.
- h) Leave it with Mary. I am sure she will sort it out.
- i) She left her daughter a lot of money.
- j) She knew that she had left her childhood behind.

Your answer:

- | | |
|----|----|
| a) | f) |
| b) | g) |
| c) | h) |
| d) | i) |
| e) | j) |

15.7 Summary

Semantic analysis begins with the relationship between individual words. It is the field of studying meaning with references to how language works. Semantic analysis is crucial for effective communication and learning communicative skills. The unit includes a number of tasks following the theoretical inputs as self-check activities while reading. There are few review questions to check your comprehension of the unit.

15.8 Review questions

1. What are the different types of meaning? Discuss.
2. What is a semantic rule?
3. What is semantics? Illustrate with examples.
4. What are the different semantic fallacies in misunderstandings?
5. Cite ten multiple meanings for the word 'light'.
6. Cite ten examples of Collocative Meaning.
7. In what ways Affective meaning differ from Stylistic meaning?
8. What are the strategies for teaching semantics?
9. Design a classroom activity on semantics for high school students.
10. Design a lesson plan on teaching semantic analysis.

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Unit 16 □ Pragmatic Analysis

16.1 Introduction

16.2 Objectives

16.3 Difference between Pragmatics and Semantics

16.4 Pragmatic Function

16.5 Pragmatic Competence

16.6 Pragmatic Idioms

16.7 Summary

16.8 Review Questions

16.9 References

16.10 Reading List

16.1 Introduction

In the previous unit we have discussed Semantics as the study of meaning of words. Pragmatics is the study of how context contributes to this meaning. Both semantics and pragmatics are main branches of study in Linguistics. Pragmatics is the study of how people react to different symbols and words, their assumptions, purposes and goals in the intended meaning. For example: the utterance 'Have you got any cash on you?' has the deeper meaning implied by the speaker - can you lend me some money, I don't have much on me. The listener derives the purpose of the utterance and responds accordingly to the speaker.

16.2 Objectives

After reading the unit you will be able to

- a) Understand what pragmatic competence is
- b) Learn the difference between semantic analysis and pragmatic analysis
- c) Develop pragmatic skills
- d) Work on pragmatic analysis of idioms and phrases

16.3 Difference between Pragmatics and Semantics

Semantics and pragmatics both study the meaning of speech communicated through language. Both semantics and pragmatics look into the ways in which words acquire extra meaning. But they act differently. The main difference between them is of word meaning and word meaning in contexts. We are already aware that semantics studies the meaning of words and their meanings within sentences. Pragmatics studies words and their meanings within their contexts. Pragmatics will also help you study speech acts, their relevance and implicature and conversations. (You will learn these in Unit 8 and in Paper 9B) In the previous unit we have looked at various aspects of meaning. Here we will analyse the processes by which native users of a language give interpretations to word strings and study how words are used. The study of the semantics and pragmatic interface can indicate the difference between what is said and what is communicated in the context. The focus of semantics is context independent meanings that are regulated by rules of grammar. The focus of pragmatics is context dependent language uses that are regulated by the principles of rhetoric and discourse. For example, in the sentence 'My dog chased a cat in the park,' since the utterance contains the pronoun 'my', part of the meaning implies that it was uttered by you. As you uttered it, 'my' refers to you. The semantic meaning is partly dependent on the context, the situation in which it was uttered, the time, the addresser and the addressee.

Activity 1

Find the definitions - Semantics or Pragmatics?

Is mainly concerned with a speaker's competence to use the language system in producing meaningful utterances and processing utterances produced by others.

Pragmatics

Is a person's ability to derive meanings from specific kinds of speech situations- to recognize what the speaker is referring to, to relate new information, to interpret, to infer.

Semantics

Activity 2

State whether the statements are true or false.

- A. Pragmatics is the study of intended meaning
- B. Semantics is the study of the meaning of single words
- C. Pragmatics is context dependent, and Semantics is context independent.
- D. Both semantics and pragmatics are studies of intentions of the participants in conversational exchanges

Your answer:

A () B () C () D ()

Activity 3

Differentiate the implied meaning by the speaker and the inferred meaning by the listener from the following:

- a. S1: What is the time now?
S2: The milk man has just arrived.
- b. S1: Can I borrow your Shakespeare?
S2: Yeah. It is there on the table.
- c. S1: Remember there is no 'I' in team.
S2: No. but there is a 'U' for people who do not understand the relationship between orthography and meaning.
- d. S1: 'Nice Day'
S2: 'A lovely day'
S1: 'That is not what I have in mind.'
- e. S1: What are you doing today?'
S2: Today is Sunday.

Your answer:

In dialogue 'a.' speaker 2 has an indirect answer for the query of speaker 1. Speaker 2 has to infer the time of the day with the arrival time of the milk man.

In the dialogue 'b.' speaker 1 has asked for a book, speaker 2 deduces the name of the book and guides speaker 1 to its location.

In the dialogue 'c.' speaker 2 is referring to 'you' as 'u', as well as to the presence

of the others. The deeper meaning is co-operation and being a member of a team.

In dialogue 'd.' Speaker 1 is not agreeing with speaker 2. Depending on S1's facial expression, tone of voice and the context, pragmatically it may mean exactly the opposite, 'This is not a nice day'.

In dialogue 'e.' Sunday' may be semantically interpreted as the first day of the week. Pragmatically it may mean giving a suggestion or making an invitation depending on the context and intention of S2.

16.4 Pragmatic Function

The meaning which a speaker intends to convey to the listener is the pragmatic function. There are two situations in which pragmatic function can be inferred. The first situation is when the speaker's intention is conveyed with the actual word meanings. The second situation is when the meaning crosses the individual words and conveys a different meaning to the listener than what the speaker had wished to convey. These are pragmatic implicatures. This happens due to contextual interpretation of individual words. For example, the two statements; 'I don't think' and 'I think - not' in the following exchange:

Q: Will you come to the market?

A 1: I don't think (the market is open today).

A 2: 'I think -not' (coming).

Both the answers to the question are in non-agreement, beginning with the same set of words but forming utterances with different meanings. A1 talks of it not being the marketing day. Thus it is implied that people will not go for marketing. This is the situation where the listener has to cross the meanings of the individual words to infer what the speaker wishes to convey. A2 is a direct response to the question, where the speaker's intention is conveyed by actual word meanings. Let us work on few activities.

Activity 4

Identify the function of the pragmatic markers in the following exchanges;

S1: Are you free to work on the garden this weekend?

S2: **Well, actually** I'm pretty busy this week

S1: What about next Wednesday?

S2: **Right, yeah** that would work.

Your answer:

In the first response, the words 'well' and 'actually' denote the listeners thinking process. In the second response, the words 'right' and 'yeah' is assessment of the listener's utterances.

The following chart is on pragmatic markers and their functions.

Functions	Examples
Cognitive	
Denote thinking process	Well I think, I see, I believe, I say
Referential/ self-correction	In other words, I mean
Elaboration/ hesitation	It's like/ sort of well, just, kind of
Assessment of learner's knowledge about utterances	Right?
Structural	
Opening and closing of topics	Ok, right, well, now
Sequencing topic shifts	Anyway, so, then, next
Summarizing options	And, so, yeah
Continuation of or return to topics	Additionally, and so, and, plus
Referential	
Cause/ contrast	Because/ but, although
Consequence/ digression	So/ anyway
Interpersonal	
Mark shared knowledge	You see, you know
Indicate speakers attitudes	Yes, of course, really, I agree, actually, hopefully
Show emotional response/ interest and back channel	Great, sure, ok, yeah

Mean Words

Indicate affective response and reaction to

the discourse

Gosh, wow, ouch

Adapted and modified from Jennifer Ament & Júlia Barón Parés, 2017.

Activity 5

Identify the pragmatic function

A: Do you have weekends off?

B: **It's like** work all seven days. **Sort of well**, work at home.

A: Are you free on holidays?

B: **Yes, of course.**

Your answer:

Activity 6

Identify the pragmatic function

S1: Are you also annoyed with your boss like I am?

S1: **I mean** how was your day?

S2: **Well**, it was great.

Your answer:

Activity 7

Indicate where in the above table would you place the following pragmatic markers?

1. Actually
2. Moreover
3. Then
4. Almost
5. Kind of
6. Ah
7. If
8. Sort of

Your answer:

16.5 Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence is the ability to use effective language in a contextually appropriate manner. Pragmatic competence is fundamental to communicate our thoughts, ideas and feelings. The different aspects of pragmatic competence are:

1. a speaker's ability to use language for different purposes
2. a listener's ability to understand the speaker's intentions
3. a command of the rules by which the speaker and the listener interact with each other.

Using language for different purposes: using language for daily interactions with others. It is the ability to know what to say, how to say it and when to say it to make our interaction appropriate in a given situation. These are classified as three major skills.

- a) *Conversational skills*: asking for, giving and responding to information, turn taking, eye contact, introducing and maintaining topics, making relevant contributions to a topic, asking questions, avoiding repetitions or irrelevant information, asking for clarification.
- b) *Negotiating Skills*: Adjusting language based on the situation or person; using language of a given peer group, using humour, using appropriate strategies for gaining attention and interrupting, asking for help or offering help appropriately, offering/ responding to expressions of affection appropriately, intonation of voice.
- c) *Paralinguistic skills*; facial expression, body language, body distance and personal space.

Pragmatic Competence is the ability to understand speaker's intention from the listener's perspective. Speaker's intention is processed by the hearer simultaneously with the utterance or after it is uttered. The primary intention expressed in a particular context serves the function of guiding the conversation. Knowing the speaker's intention and attitudes creates a precognitive understanding of the ideas and this leads to successful transfer of information.

Rules of interaction: There are certain rules by which the speaker and the listener interact with each other. The rules for the listener are:

- a) Paraphrasing what is heard.
- b) Repeating what is heard in one's own words and letting the speaker know

that the listener has understood what is being said.

- c) Wait for the turn to ask questions.

The rules of the speaker are:

- a. Communicate the message keeping three factors in mind:
Perlocution (how the message is received by the listener),
locution (the semantic or literal significance of the utterance) and
illocution (the speaker's intention).

You will learn more on these in the Unit on Discourse Analysis in Paper 9B.

- b. Co-ordinate the non-linguistic cues (paralinguistic aspects) with the linguistic component of the message.
 c) Choosing correct words for the intended communicative impact.

Activity 8

Match the different shades of meaning for the word 'pragmatics'.

a) There were pragmatic inferences.	1. Concentrating on results and facts rather than speculation and opinion.
b) The decision was pragmatic in nature.	2. Adjust views to the state of the world.
c) A sensible, pragmatic approach was taken to public sector reform.	3. Clear communication of thoughts and ideas.
d) The writer takes an in-depth, highly pragmatic approach	4. Practical and logical response.
e) The decision was pragmatic so that it could be easily extrapolated.	5. Focused on reaching a goal.

Your answer:

Activity 9

Identify the rules of interaction and components pragmatic competence from the following excerpts.

- i) Once, I asked this young lady why she didn't show up on our date, and she

said looking everywhere except at me, 'I'm sorry, but I missed the train.'

- ii) The chicken is ready to eat.
- iii) Will you come out on a dinner date with me? Yes, I can come, but I won't tell you.

Your answer:

Answers for Activity 8: a) 3, b) 5, c) 1, d) 4, e) 2

Answers for Activity 9: i) paralinguistics, ii) choosing words for intended communication, iii) adjusting language based on situation or person.

16.6 Pragmatic Idioms

An idiom is a sequence of words functioning as a single unit, whose meaning cannot be inferred from its parts. For example *spill the beans* is an idiom which means 'give away information deliberately or unintentionally'. Idioms can be analysed pragmatically when they are interpreted from their context. Pragmatic idioms are also called routines, social formulas or gambits. They have important roles in every day conversation and communication.

Transparent idioms are free collocations which get the meaning from the constituent words. For example, *wearing a pink shirt* (stop bullying), *break eggs to make an omlette* (at the cost of something), *cut wood* (sleep/snore while sleeping), *cutting corners* (doing something poorly to save time or money).

Semi-transparent phrases are metaphors with a literal interpretation. For example: *add fuel to fire* (cause a conflict or difficult situation), *kill two birds with a stone* (get two things done with a single action, reap more benefits than expected), *it's a piece of cake* (it is easy), *let the cat out of the bag* (give away a secret), *a blessing in disguise* (a good thing that seemed bad at first).

Semi-opaque phrases are metaphor idioms which are not completely intelligible by themselves. For example: *the shoe is on the other foot* (change of situation to the opposite of what it was before), *tarred by the same brush* (to think that someone has the same bad qualities as another person), *on the ball* (doing a good job), *the best of both worlds* (an ideal situation), *the elephant in the room* (a major problem the people are avoiding), *throw caution to the wind* (take risk).

Opaque phrases are expressions whose meanings cannot be derived from their component parts. For example, *pass the buck* (shift the responsibility for something

to someone else), *from the horse's mouth* (from the person who is involved), *wrap your head around something* (understand something complicated) *your guess is as good as mine* (I have no idea), *take a rain check* (postpone a plan, promise to do something at the next opportunity).

Activity 10

Give the meanings of the following idioms

- a) No pain, no gain
- b) Better late than never
- c) Hang in there
- d) Under the weather
- e) A bird in hand is worth two in the bush

Your answer:

Activity 11

Identify the type of idiom from pragmatic analysis

- a) A perfect storm
- b) Break the ice
- c) Ignorance is bliss
- d) Once in blue moon
- e) A storm in a tea cup

Your answer:

Activity 12

State whether the following idioms can occur by themselves or as part of a sentence

- a) Come rain or shine (no matter what)
- b) Burn bridges (destroy relationships)
- c) As right as rain (perfect)
- d) Cut the mustard (do a good job)
- e) On cloud nine (very happy)

Your answer:

Activity 13

Find the idioms which are proverbs.

- a) Haste makes wastes

- b) Familiarity breeds contempt
- c) It takes two to tango
- d) Like riding a bicycle
- e) Run like the wind
- f) Snowed under
- g) We see eye to eye
- h) Waste not, want not

Your answer:

16.7 Summary

In the previous unit we had learnt a few aspects of Semantics. A section of this unit discusses the difference between semantics and pragmatics. The unit is a practical application of the theoretical discussions on pragmatic analysis on pragmatic function. This unit also introduces you to the skills of pragmatic competence. Pragmatic idioms can be analysed from their use and function. From your day-to-day conversation you are aware of the use of some of them. Since there are no definite theories on pragmatic idioms, you may refer to the booklist for further studies on the topic. Applications of Pragmatic analysis in the language classroom are varied. As it examines meaning systematically in contexts it is useful in creation of meanings, figuring out meanings, in contexts of interactions. These are presented in the activities throughout the learning material. There are a few review questions to test your comprehension.

16.8 Review Questions

1. What is Pragmatics?
2. What is Semantics?
3. What is the major distinction between Semantics and Pragmatics?
4. Elaborate the term Pragmatic function.
5. What is pragmatic marker? What are their functions?
6. Discuss the Rules on interactions.
7. What is the difference between transparent and opaque idioms?
8. List ten idioms that you have come across and discuss their applications.
9. What is pragmatic competence?
10. Discuss two activities on developing pragmatic competence.

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