

FOREWORD

In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students of Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in Subject introduced by this University 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.

Keeping this in view, study materials of the Post-Graduate level in different subjects are being 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 analyses.

The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in invisible teaching. 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 it will 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 with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University.

Needless to add, a great part 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 to 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.

Professor (Dr) Subha Sankar Sarkar
Vice Chancellor

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Course Title: Developing Speaking Skills

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Course Code: PGEL-06
Course Title: Morphology in English

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PGEL – 05
Developing Speaking Skills

MODULE - 1 : ORAL COMMUNICATION

Unit 1 □ Revision of Phonetics

- 1.1 Introduction**
 - 1.2 Objectives**
 - 1.3 Speech Sounds**
 - 1.4 Vowel Speech sounds**
 - 1.5 Consonant Speech sounds**
 - 1.6 Glides**
 - 1.7 Summary**
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-

1.1 Introduction

You have looked at the nature of spoken English language in your previous units. Here, in this module let us revise what we have learnt so far and test our knowledge of phonology. Language, is primarily an oral activity and when we speak, our spoken language consists of a succession of speech sounds that are produced with the help of the organs of speech.

1.2 Objectives

After going through the unit you will be able to:

- a) Recall the topics on phonology
 - b) Work on a range of phonological activities
 - c) Apply your knowledge from paper 3 in the activities
 - d) Develop knowledge on spoken English
-

1.3 Speech sounds

Speech sounds are produced voluntarily. They require that organs of speech be moved in certain definite ways in order to produce the required language for communication. The succession of sounds is composed of proper speech sounds and glides. The speaker has to go out of his way in order to make a glide as a glide that occur as natural and inevitable result of pronouncing two speech sounds one after another. Most of the glides are inaudible or hardly audible even to the most practiced ear. Now let us test up to what extent you people have developed the proficiency in

pronunciation skill. Some activities and tasks have been designed to test your knowledge in this regard.

1.4 Vowel Speech sounds

English has twelve pure vowel sounds. A vowel sound is produced with an open vocal tract with open jaws, and adjusting the height of the tongue. There are front, back and central vowels depending on the part of the tongue that is used in the articulation. There are also low (open) and high (close) vowels uttered according to the height of the tongue. Two vowels have long and short representations depending on the breadth of air used in their utterance. Let us work on the following activities on vowel sounds.

Activity - I

Look at the following list of words:-

Cast, called, sale band, woman, village, what

Now, tell us which letter of the alphabet is common to all the words? Does that letter 'sound' the same in all the words? Go through the words again and again to find out.

Your answer:

Answer key: /a/. No it has 7 kinds of different sounds.

Activity - II

Look at the following list of words :-

though	tough	cough
through	rough	bought
thorough	bough	hiccough

Which letters of the alphabet are common to all the words? Do you think, these letters represent the same sound in all the word? If not, write down the sounds produced by this group of letter in each word.

Your answer:

Answer Key

This letter /o/ represents different sounds.

Though - /əʊ/,

Tough - /ʌ/,

cough /ɑ/,

Through - /u/,

Rough - /ʌ/,

bought /c:/,

Thorough- /ʌ/

Bough- /əʊ/

Activity – III – Identify the long vowel sound /i:/

Look at the following sets of words:-
Bead, weep, seize, believe, piece, peace,
theme, people, police, key, ski,
Quay, aesthetic

Each set of these words above possesses a common vowel sound. The vowel sound that we find in the word 'bee' is common to all the words. Which letters in each word represent that sound?

Your answer:

Answer key: bead, weep, seize, believe, piece, peace, theme, people, police, key, ski.

Activity – IV – Identify the vowel sound

Look at the following words and find out words having different vowel sound. Circle those words.

flirt chirp skirt furl heart heard
thirst first hard word guard card

Answer Key: chirp, hard, guard, card

1.5 Consonant Speech Sounds

English has 24 consonant sounds produced in nine different places of articulation and seven manners of articulation (stricture). The consonants are voiced or voiceless depending the movements in the vocal cords and can be aspirated due to presence of breath during articulation. Consonants have lower articulator (moveable) and upper articulator (fixed or unmovable) for their utterance. Let us work on the following activities.

Activity –V – Identify the consonant

Look at the following list of words:-

Song, scent, descend, brass, assume,
cement, fancy, pace, exercise
Tax, psychology

All the words above, contains one common consonant sound. Can you identify that very sound? Which letter stands for that sound in each word?

Your answer:

Answer Key: /s/

Activity – VI- Two grapheme equals to a single phoneme

Look at the following sets of words:-

- i) question, quite, quiet, square, squash
- ii) excuse, excite, box, exercise
- iii) exact, examine, exist, exert
- iv) unity, use (n.)
- (n.) utilize, university

In each set of words one of the letters represents a combination of two sounds. Now identify the letter and associated sounds in each case.

Your answer:

Answer key:

- i) q-/kw/, ii) x- /ks/, iii) e- /jg/ iv) u-/ju:/

Activity – VII

Go through the following pairs of words. Do you find same pronunciation in them? If so write S on the brackets provided against each pair; if not write D for the different .

- i) write, right () ii) tear, tier () iii) heard, hard ()
- iv) hurt, heart () v) let, late, () vi) get, gate ()

Activity – VIII

Go through the following words find out the exact number of sounds in each word. The first one is done for you.

- i) thumb- Three sounds as shown: /th-u-m/ (b is silent)
- ii) mango
- iii) pleasure
- iv) third
- v) scissors
- vi) psychology

- vii) journal
- viii) mother
- ix) eye
- x) through

Activity – IX

I hope you have successfully done the Activity No. – VIII. Now write down the initial sound of each word and make word with the same sound in the initial position. One is done for you.

Example – i) thumb → / θ / → thigh

Your answer:

- | | | |
|-------|------|------|
| ii) | iii) | iv) |
| v) | vi) | vii) |
| viii) | ix) | x) |

Activity – X – Voiced and Voiceless consonants

Produce the initial sounds of the following English words and say whether they are voiced or voiceless.

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|
| i) father _____ | v) sound _____ |
| ii) sugar _____ | vi) very _____ |
| iii) zoo _____ | vii) thanks _____ |
| iv) sun _____ | viii) there _____ |

Answer key: Voiced /z, v/, voiceless /f, s, th/

1.6 Glides

English has 8 glides. A glide is a combination of two vowel sounds occurring together. They are produced in a quick succession that the two sounds tend to merge and produce a different sound. The utterance of a glide begins at the position of the first vowel articulation and moves towards the position of the articulation of the

second vowel. The second vowel is more in prominence.

Activity – XI

Can you cite two different words which have only one sound and that is a vowel glide? Write down those words and cite the glide:-

For example might and right have ‘i’ which becomes /aI/ glide in utterance. Now cite another example.

1. _____, 2. _____ = / /

Activity - XII

Write three words for each of the glides of English.

Your Answer:

/eI/,,

/cI/,,

/eΩ/,,

/aΩ/,,

/eʌ/,,

Activity – XIII - Homophonous words

Fill in the blanks with words that are pronounced the same but have different spelling:-

- | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| i) write | ii) straight | iii) mite |
| iv) Sun | v) bear | vi) bow(verb) |
| vii) tail | viii) cast | ix) sight |
| x) roll | | |

1.7 Summary

In this unit we have looked at different speech sounds that are represented using graphics or letters of the alphabet. We have discovered that the same sound can be represented by different spellings, and similarly one spelling can be used to represent a variety of sounds. However all these are rule bound and such rules will be discussed later in specialised courses on phonology. The unit also provides a large number of activities to help you practice different aspects of phonology.

1.8 Reference and Reading List

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Unit 2 □ Place of Phonetics in Communication

- 2.1 Introduction**
- 2.2 Objectives**
- 2.3 Status of English**
- 2.4 The Classroom Language**
- 2.5 Teaching Phonetics**
- 2.6 Minimal Pairs**
- 2.7 Phonemes of English**
- 2.8 Phonemic Transcription**
- 2.9 Summary**
- 2.10 References and Reading List**

2.1 Introduction

The basic function of a language is communication. English is no exception. People generally convey their messages among themselves in order to communicate their views with each other on matters of specific interest to them. Sometimes, they communicate in writing and at other times through speaking and listening. Spoken words are the most frequent as well as the most important means of communication among the people. As far as spoken language is concerned, pronunciation, rather use of speech sounds appropriately really matters a lot. In this case, messages are communicated or transmitted through sounds or audible means. That is why for the purpose of verbal communication what is necessary is proper pronunciation—appropriate handling of sounds. Since Phonetics, an important branch of Linguistics, deals mainly with the pronunciation skills as well as ways of speaking, it has a major role to play in the field of communication.

2.2 Objectives

The objectives of the unit are:

- a) Revision exercises on phonetics
- b) Understanding the practical aspects of phonetics
- c) Learning how to teach phonetics

2.3 Status of English

English is a widely spoken language and it has different status in different parts of the world. In a multilingual set up like India, one of the major languages in use is English. For example, if a Bengali speaker is left in a city in Kerala or Mizoram or vice versa s/he cannot communicate to the people of that city unless s/he uses English. Besides, the same scenario can be seen across the globe. The English plays the role of *linguafranca* or a link language. In the countries like the UK, the USA, Australia, South-Africa, Canada and other places, English is considered as the native or the first language while in the countries like India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Nigeria, Tanzania, etc. its status is that of a non-native or second language (used as associate-official, educational, social, media, interpersonal language) and in countries like China, Japan, Germany, and Russia it is considered as a foreign language, used only for international purpose and it is not mandatory to learn this language. Whatever is the status of English — First, Second or Foreign — the proficiency in all the four skills — Listening, Speaking, Reading or Writing — is essential so far as communication is concerned. Though the language acquisition in a first language context is natural, in this situation the child has constant exposure from the environment, s/he belongs to, and such an opportunity is highly lacking while learning the second language. Here the language is mainly learnt through classroom instruction and it entails a conscious analytical effort. Since second language is not acquired through the natural process rather learnt later in life. The conscious teaching of pronunciation becomes necessary; there is every possibility of the interference of child's mother tongue what s/he has already mastered. We believe, one is overburdened with various thoughts by this time and finds it difficult to cope with the nuances of a new language.

Let us quickly sum up what we have discussed so far. We have delineated the importance of correct pronunciation while communicating, especially in a new language we are learning. English in this case is the language in question, and we have discussed the various statuses it has in different parts of the world. Finally, we have mentioned some reasons why acquiring proper pronunciation becomes difficult while learning English. Here are two activities to help you recall the points we have made so far.

Activity –I

Go through the following list of various countries. Note that with each and every country name there is one first bracket attached to it. Write 1, 2, and F inside the brackets according to the status of English [1st, 2nd, and Foreign] in the corresponding

countries:

- | | | | |
|-----------------|----------|------------------|----------|
| i. Ireland | () | vi. Scotland | () |
| ii. France | () | vii. West Indies | () |
| iii. Myanmar | () | viii. China | () |
| iv. New Zealand | () | ix. Namibia | () |
| v. Egypt | () | x. Nepal | () |

We hope you could get this activity easily. You may check your answers with the Google.

Activity –II

Have you ever visited a state in India where you could use neither your mother tongue nor Hindi? What strategies do you use to communicate in such a situation? Here are some suggestions, list the weaknesses or drawbacks of these strategies:

- a. You will use gestures and sign languages:
- b. You will take a dictionary with you and keep referring to it.
- c. You will take a friend with you wherever you go
- d. Any other: (please mention)

These are not proper strategies. Gestures and sign languages may be helpful up to a point. But there is always the danger of sign language being mistaken. Sign language is culture bound and is not uniform in all parts of the country. You may even land yourself in trouble if you use some sensitive gestures without your knowledge.

Carrying a dictionary and referring to it each time is quite cumbersome and it is also time consuming. Dictionary provides a literal meaning and often this may make no sense in real communication. Though dictionary is a good source for knowing the meanings of words in isolation, it is not good for communication.

Taking a friend along with you each time you go out may be a good idea. But you are imposing yourself on your friend's personal time. He/she may not be available for you always, and it is a matter of obligation, and how long can you survive like this. It is difficult.

By rejecting these three situations and the other reasons you may possibly have, we are establishing the fact that a link language is essential for communication between people of two communities speaking different languages. In India, English has been serving this purpose eminently, and hence it is given a lot of importance in our education programmes. Our job is to make our learners learn this language properly, and learning good pronunciation is one aspect of such teaching.

2.4 The Classroom Language

Our behaviour in the classroom is called ‘classroom dynamics’. This is a complex phenomenon and includes our behaviour (how we control the class, how we read the lesson, how we stand in front of the students, how we use the chalk board, how do we ask questions, how do we encourage the students, how well we make them involve in the learning process, etc.). During this process, we often tend to switch from speaking to writing and back to speaking. You know how the chalkboard or ppt slides are used in the class and for what purpose. Speaking and writing reinforce each other. Suppose I use a word penchant [pəˈtʃənt] and pronounce it the way British do it, many of my students will neither get the word nor its spelling. It is at such times, writing becomes necessary. There are various other occasions, and I have cited just one. You are aware of many situations where you keep switching from speaking to writing and vice versa. In the next activity, we would like you tell your reasons for doing so.

Activity –III

You are a teacher of the English language. In your class, you obviously use English. You speak in English as well as write a few things on the board. Make a list of situations for each of these activities in the space given below:

Speak : _____

Write : _____

2.5 Teaching Phonetics

At the beginning of this unit, we found English is used differently in different parts of the world. It is not only the label, but its pronunciation and use also varies from place to place. However, there is one way in which English pronunciation is fixed as the standard. It is better to be aware of this pronunciation for purposes of teaching and also measuring the progress of our students. For example, the accent used by the British people is quite different from that used by the Americans or the Australians.

Similarly in India, where English is spoken as a second language it has developed a distinct variety. But within this variety, there are further variations, for example, the speech of a Bengali speaker of English differs sharply from that of a Telugu or Marathi or Punjabi speakers of English. To solve this problem, while teaching spoken English, it is necessary to be aware of Phonetics to describe the types of errors in our speech. It is necessary to follow a particular standard for teaching Phonetics as well as spoken English. One native regional accent that has gained social prestige is the Received Pronunciation (RP) of England, as used in the southern part of England. It is also a status symbol to use RP for the elite class of the society. It is considered as the correct pronunciation of English. In many non-native speaking countries RP has been selected as a model. The teaching-learning of English pronunciation focuses on the following aspects:

- a. The sound system or the segmental features. These include the forty four speech sounds consisting of 24 consonant sounds, 12 pure vowel sounds, 8 diphthongs and occasionally a triphthong.
- b. Supra-segmental features include the combination of individual sounds to produce syllables, words, clauses or utterances. These become meaningful with stress, rhythm and intonation.

You would have noticed that there are several words in English that are pronounced alike, but spelt differently, and conversely, we also have words that are spelt alike but pronounced differently. You have come across several examples of such words in your daily life. Here is an activity for you to show your awareness of such words.

Activity –V

1] ‘**Bear**’ and ‘**bare**’ are spelt differently but they are pronounced the same, / be ə /. Make a list of five other pairs of words which are spelt differently but pronounced in the same way.

Your answer:

Activity –VI

2] Read out the following words and transcribe them using a dictionary. Learn to pronounce them correctly:-

remember	language	lotus
alphabet	necessary	caravan
London	letter	father
correct	property	brother
English	rumour	cattle
particular	repertoire	between
pronunciation	important	

2.6 Minimal Pairs

Now we will introduce to you a new concept called the ‘minimal pairs’. Minimal pairs are a set of words which differ from each other in a single phoneme. For example look at the words ‘tag’ and ‘bag’. They are minimal pairs because they differ in the initial phoneme ‘t-’ and ‘b-’. Similarly, ‘sit’ and ‘sat’ are minimal pairs as they differ in the vowel sound ‘-i-’ and ‘-æ-’. We use minimal pairs to establish that a particular sound is a phoneme. This is required especially with sounds that have similar qualities. For example /p/ and /b/ are similar in all aspects. Both are bilabial sounds and both are plosives. The only difference is that /p/ is voiceless whereas /b/ is voiced. In many languages these sounds are not separate (e.g. Malayalam). To establish /p/ as different from /b/ we need a minimal pair. Look at these words that bring about a contrast in the words: pin and bin; pit and bit; pat and bat; pail and bail; pall and ball; pill and bill; I can go on giving many examples for other sounds also. Here is an activity for you which helps you look for such words and also makes your understanding of the concept of minimal pairs clear to you.

Activity –VII

3] Find words to match the following words with a minimum difference only in the vowel sound. One is done for you:-

- | | | |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| i) bend/band; | v) force _____; | ix) ten _____; |
| ii) knit _____; | vi) dawn _____; | x) cat _____; |
| iii) tale _____; | vii) sill _____; | xi) car _____; |
| iv) broke _____; | viii) win _____; | xii) back _____; |

Activity –VIII

Give at least three minimal pairs to distinguish between the following sets of English vowel sounds: For each set, one example has been given.

/e/

__set__

/æ/

__sat__

/i:/

beat__

/ I /

bit__

/ɒ/	/ɔ: /
cot _____	caught _____
_____	_____
_____	_____
/ɜ: /	/ʌ/
curd _____	cup _____
_____	_____
_____	_____

2.7 Phonemes of English

You have already learnt about phonemes in your earlier courses. Let us quickly revise it for you. Phoneme is defined as a minimal distinctive unit of speech sound. There are three operational words here: minimal, distinctive and unit. Minimal is the smallest part which cannot be divided further, distinct because it is unique – the qualities it has are not possessed by other phonemes and it is a unit which means it is independent and can combine with other units based on a set of rules (phonological rules). Phonemes can be consonants, or vowels. Among vowels, we have pure vowels and diphthongs. In the next few activity, we like you to use your knowledge of phonetics, the transcription and complete the activities by writing words or symbols, etc.

Activity –IX

Identify the diphthong for each of the following words and add three more words to the list. The first one is done for you.

/ eɪ / came, make, face, samedaisy, play, great
 / / neither, idle, high, light
 / / home, post, shoulder, soap
 / / how, house, doubt, flower
 / / noise, soil, coin

Activity –X

Try to pronounce the following words and write the pure vowels or diphthongs in the space provided :-

try — / /	boil — / /	suite — / /
Cord — / /	put — / /	fool — / /

town — / /	stand — / /	clerk — / /
budge — / /	starch — / /	wind — / /
court — / /	pear — / /	point — / /
poor — / /	measure — / /	party — / /

Activity –XI

Fill in the blanks with appropriate vowel sounds to make complete words:-

1. r ___ b (rob), r ___ b (rib), r ___ b(rub)
2. p ___ tɔ̃(patch), p ___ tɔ̃(pitch), p ___ tɔ̃(porch)
3. f ___ l (fill), f ___ l (feel), f ___ l(fall)
4. s ___ k (sick), s ___ k (suck), s ___ k (seek)
5. r ___ d (read), r ___ d (red), r ___ d (road)
6. w ___ v(weave), w ___ v(wove), w ___ v (wave)
7. dʒ ___ (jar), dʒ ___ (jaw), dʒ ___ (jew)
8. b ___ (buy), b ___ (boy), b ___ (bay)
9. θr ___ (three), θr ___ (threw), θr ___ (throw)
10. ð ___ (thy), ð ___ (they), ð ___ (though)

Activity –XII

The phoneme /d/ occurs in initial, medial and final position for the words: daughter, holiday and bed. Give at least one example of each of the following consonants in initial, medial and final position.

	Initial	Medial	Final
A] /t/	_____	_____	_____
B] /θ /	_____	_____	_____
C] /p/	_____	_____	_____
D] /tɔ̃/	_____	_____	_____
E] /k /	_____	_____	_____
F] / ʒ /	_____	_____	_____

Activity –XIII

In English, /p/ is a voiceless, bilabial stop. Give three term label of the following consonants:-

- i) / z / _____
- ii) / h / _____

- iii) / l / _____
- iv) / f / _____
- v) / dʒ / _____
- vi) / m / _____
- vii) / k / _____
- viii) / v / _____
- ix) / d / _____
- x) / η / _____

2.8 Phonemic Transcription

Phonemic transcription or broad transcription represents each speech sounds (44 in all) with a unique symbol. In other words, these unique symbols are for each phoneme of a language. We have learnt about Phonetic Transcription and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) in paper3 Module 2 Unit 8. Let us revise on that learning in the following activities.

Activity –XIV

b) Give phonetic symbols to match the following descriptions of consonant sounds. The first one is done for you.

- i)voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant / r /
- ii) voiceless palato-alveolar affricate / /
- iii) voiced alveolar nasal / /
- iv) voiced labio-velar semi-vowel / /
- v) voiceless alveolar fricative / /
- vi) voiced velar plosive / /
- vii) voiceless dental fricative / /
- viii) voiced bilabial plosive / /
- ix) voiceless labio-dental fricative / /
- x) voiced palato-alveolar fricative / /

2.9 Summary

In this unit, we have looked at the variety of ways in which a language can be spoken. In this context we have taken the example of English and demonstrated how it enjoys different statuses and also spoken differently in different places. It is therefore necessary to understand the structure of standard English and while teaching English as second language and be aware of it. In order to drive home these concepts, we have provided you with several activities that provide practice in understanding the pronunciation of words, transcribing words, identifying similar sounding words and many other aspects related to spoken English. We have revised your knowledge of phonetics course which you studied last semester and this unit will help you cope with the demands of the next units in this module.

2.10 References and Reading List

1. Akmajian, Adrian., et al., (2017). *Linguistics - An Introduction to Language and Communication*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
2. Balasubramaniam. T., (2001). *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*. Chennai: Macmillan India Pvt Ltd.
3. Hockett, C.F., (1958). *A Course in Modern Linguistics*. New York: The Macmillan Company.
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Unit 3 □ Variations in Pronunciation

- 3.1 Introduction**
- 3.2 Objectives**
- 3.3 Variation due to Location**
- 3.4 Variation due to Style**
- 3.5 Clear /l / and dark /ɫ /**
- 3.6 Variation from grapheme to phoneme**
- 3.7 Sound change**
- 3.8 Structural zero and process morphemes**
- 3.9 Summary**
- 3.10 Review Questions**
- 3.11 References and Reading List**

3.1 Introduction

The first question that comes to the mind of a person who wishes to learn an acceptable pronunciation of English is, which of the various forms of pronunciation should we learn? No two persons belonging to same nationality pronounce their own language exactly alike. The difference may be due to the locality in which they live; social surroundings or early influences, and there may be individual peculiarities for which it is difficult or impossible to account.

3.2 Objectives

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

- a) Have an idea on the extent to which pronunciation can vary
- b) Identify the reasons of variation
- c) Learn on the processes of variation
- d) Understand grapheme-phoneme correspondences

3.3 Variation due to Location

It is often noticed that the pronunciation of English among people brought up in

Manchester is different from those from Exeter and both differ from the pronunciation of those brought up in Edinburgh or in London. Let's take an example. Differences of English pronunciation according to locality may be found in the treatment of letter 'r' in such word as 'part'. In Scotland it is pronounced as slightly flapped /r/ while /r/ is not pronounced until it is followed by vowel sound. So the pronunciation of 'part' is /pa:t/. According to their rule /r/ is not pronounced when it is in the final position of the word or when it is followed by a consonant sound. So they pronounce as /pa:t/ or /ka:/ (for 'car') but /verI/ or sorI/. In many parts of North and West of England /r/ appears as **Retroflex**. In southern England the vowel sounds in 'boot' and 'book' are different where as in Scotland a short closed /u/ is used for both the words.

3.4 Variation due to Style

Pronunciation is also influenced by the difference of education. People of limited education in different parts of England omit /h/ and pronounce /elp/ for the word 'help'. In London (Cockney) words like 'name' is pronounced with the diphthong, /aI/ or /æI/ instead of /eI/ and words like 'house' or 'about' are pronounced with /æ u /, or sometimes /ðbæut / In uneducated Yorkshire speech the vowels of 'put' /u/ and cut / ^ / are labeled to a vowel intermediate between these two.

Because of the so many variations it is really very difficult for the foreign learners to know which types of pronunciation should be learnt and which one should be accepted as the standard variety. But certainly the most useful type is the one which is based on the speech that is used in the southern England [where city of London is situated]. It is generally used by the people, educated at Public Schools and Preparatory Boarding Schools. It is easily legible in all parts of English – speaking countries. It is more widely understood than any other variety. The term Received Pronunciation (RP) is often used to designate this type of pronunciation. Among several different styles of pronunciation notable ones are the rapid familiar style, the slower colloquial style, the natural style used while addressing an audience, the acquired style of the stage while acting and the acquired styles used in singing. Of these the slower colloquial style is perhaps the most suitable for beginners.

Activity –I

Contracted forms are a distinct feature of English. They are found in written conversations, in the spoken form of the language. They maintain rhythm in connected speech. Many words have more than one contracted form.

Write the following combinations as contractions(monosyllable, if possible), using the phonetic symbols(one is done for you):- Example – she will = øIL.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| a. I will _____ | g. I would _____ |
| b. You will _____ | h. You would _____ |
| c. He will _____ | i. She would _____ |
| d. It will _____ | j. It would _____ |
| e. We will _____ | k. we would _____ |
| f. They will _____ | l. They would _____ |

Activity –II

Nicholas, a 6-year old child used a creative spelling ‘*thingck*’ to spell the word ‘*think*’. What assumptions on his part produced this spelling?

In American English, /r/ is often one of the most difficult features of pronunciation for speakers of other languages to learn. Sometimes it is even difficult for the native speakers themselves, being one of the last sounds the children acquire when they learn American English. It is also one of the sources of extreme dialectical variation, for example, it was evident in the pronunciation of ‘*fire*’ by Ted Kennedy, the US senator from Massachusetts or in that of a country music singer George Jones and Tom Brokaw /far/. Even when beginning students of Linguistics often transcribe the word *fear*, they often use the tense vowel /i:/ —. /fir/ Here the vowel sounds higher than the lax vowel /j/ as in ‘bid’. In reality the vowel in ‘fear’ lies between /j / and / i:/ Even though they admit that it does not seem quite as high as the tense vowel /i/ as in ‘bead’ as in /bId/ Same thing can be seen in pronunciation of word like ‘sir’ as /sIr/ These vowels are basically called r-coloured vowel that refers to English vocalic sounds that have an r-like quality.

I hope, by this time you have understood, to some extent, the variation of pronunciation with respect to American dialectic English. Now it is necessary to test up to what extent you have perceived this variation. Let us engage in a relevant activity.

Activity –III

Transcribe the following words exhibiting vowels before /r/:-

- | | | | |
|-----------|----------|-----------|------------|
| i) boor | ii) bore | iii) poor | iv) care |
| v) car | vi) dear | vii) fir | viii) mire |
| ix) sewer | x)mirror | | |

3.5 Clear /l / and dark /ɫ /

The English language has two types of /l/ ——— dark l (/ɫ/) and light or normal l (/l/). The /ɫ/ occurs in words like ‘lark’ and ‘tail’ and has a lower sound than /l/

which occurs in the words like ‘lead’ or ‘light’. Even /l/ or light /l/ occurs in a word when it is preceded by bilabial sound like /p, b/. In English dark-/l/ is basic. Its dark quality is due to a co-articulation effect caused by an accompanying raised and retracted tongue body. Light-l is a positional variant occurring before front vowels such as /I/ and / i: /. Before front vowels /l/ is not produced with a retracted tongue body and the body is more forward and thus the light variant is produced. An English speaker, learning French, Spanish or German must learn to produce all of the ‘l’s in these languages as light since none of them has /ɫ/.

Activity IV

Write the lateral: clear or dark /l/ for the following words:

Love	ball
Live	able
Light	pillow
Language	doll house

Answer: for the left hand column it is clear /l/ and for the right hand column it is dark/l/.

In English phonology, a strange behaviour is seen among some of the voiced consonants. Depending on where they occur, sometimes, they become voiceless. This is due to the influence of the environment. E.g. Take a word like ‘absolute’ – the second consonant /b/ is voiced in normal circumstances. In this word, since it is followed by /s/ which is a voiceless sound, /b/ tends to lose its voice quality and is pronounced as /p/. This is just one example, and you may find similar occurrences in different words. Here is an activity to help you understand this better.

Activity –V

In some of the following words the /l/s and /r/s are voiceless. Identify these words and try to establish the conditions under which /l/ and /r/ lose their voicing:- (You may use a dictionary to do this activity.)

- | | |
|------------|-----------|
| a) Alpo | f) try |
| b) archive | g) splat |
| c) black | h) spread |
| d) play | i) leap |
| e) dream | j) read. |

3.6 Variation from grapheme to phoneme

A grapheme is the unit of written language, and we know that the unit of spoken language is a phoneme. From our background knowledge we know that a single grapheme can have more than one sound. For example, a grapheme [f] has its phonemic correspondences in the utterances of the words; family, laugh, philosophy, different, etc. We all had learnt the spellings of words in English and their pronunciation at the same time. We had to learn the ways words are spelt and the ways they are said. This was phonological awareness. Phonological awareness is one of the critical skills of becoming a good reader. Let us work on few activities on phonological awareness.

Activity –VI

Write the following words using the phonetic symbols:-

- | | | | |
|------------|--------------|----------|-------------|
| i) Water | ii) splat | iii) lit | iv) tin |
| v) eaten | v) beading | vi) pull | vi) beating |
| vii) craft | viii) knight | | |

Now check your answers using a dictionary.

Activity –VII

Write the speech sound symbol for vowel sounds in each of the words. One is done for you:-

For the word ‘fish’ it is/ I / and for ‘fear’ it is /Ið/.

- | | | | |
|----------|------------|-----------|-----------|
| i) mood | ii) caught | iii) cot | iv) and |
| v) tree | vi) five | vii) bait | viii) toy |
| ix) said | x) soot | | |

Activity –VIII

Write the speech sound symbol for the first sound in each of the following words:-

- | | |
|---------------|--------------------|
| i) psychology | vi) though |
| ii) use | vii) pneumonia |
| iii) thought | viii) cyberneticsa |
| iv) cow | ix) physics |
| v) knowledge | x) memory |

Activity –IX

Write the speech sound symbol for the last sound in each of the following words:-

- | | |
|---------|----------|
| a) cats | f) judge |
|---------|----------|

- | | |
|-------------|-----------|
| b) dogs | g) rough |
| c) bushes | h) tongue |
| d) sighed | i) garage |
| e) bleached | j) climb |

Activity –X

Describe each of the following speech sound symbols using articulatory features:-

- | | |
|----------|------------|
| i) /n/ | ii) /a/ |
| iii) /l/ | iv) /e/ |
| v) /s/ | vi) /h/ |
| vii) /z/ | viii) /a / |
| ix) /m/ | x) /ʌ/ |

3.7 Sound Change

A sound change is a replacement of one sound by another. There are two types of sound changes; Phonetic change or change in a single phonetic feature and Phonological change or merging of two sound units to the creation of a new word. The reason behind a sound change is ease of pronunciation. There are three kinds of phonological processes in English, assimilation, deletion, and addition. Assimilation is changing to similar phonetic features and dissimilation is change to dissimilar phonetic features.

Progressive assimilation happens when the preceding sound influences the following sound. In English this happens in continuous speech. For example: ‘understand the’ /ʌndəˈstændð/ becomes /ʌndəˈstænd/. The final sound of the first word /d/ (alveolar stop) influences the first sound of the second word /ð/ (dental fricative) and turns it into /d/.

Regressive assimilation occurs when the following sound influences the preceding sound. For example: ‘with this’ /wiθðɪz/ becomes /wiððɪs/ when uttered together. That is the dental voiced fricative /ð/ of the following word influences and dental voiceless fricative /θ/ of the preceding word and makes it voiced.

Deletion of a sound is ‘cope’. Syncope, Apocope, and procope are deletions. Deletion or elision is omission of one or more consonant, vowel or a syllable from a word or phrase. Apocope is deletion of the final sound segment. For example ‘first light’ is often pronounced fɜːslɑɪt. The final /t/ is deleted if it is followed by a consonant. Another example of deletion is ‘Just don’t’ dʒʌsdeɪnt is uttered as /dʒʌsdeɪnt. Similarly, deletion of an initial segment (([k]nie→fnaif)) is procope and deletion of medial segment is syncope (chocolate → choclate, restaurant → restrant).

Addition of a sound is ‘thesis’. Prothesis (special→especial), epithesis (‘blue’ [blu]→/bɒlu/, are additions. Metathesis is switching of places. For example ‘ask’ becomes /aks/.

Activity –XI

Examine the following data and state whether it is progressive and regressive assimilation:-

1. Health = _____
2. Comfort = _____
3. Keep going = _____
4. happen = _____

Activity –XII

Examine the following examples and tell whether they are apocope or syncope :-

- i) Just for fun /dʒʌstfəʃʌn/
- ii) Abhor /əbɔː/ → /əbɔː/
- iii) Hand bag /hændbæɡ → hɛnbæɡ/ → /hæmbæɡ /
- iv) White pepper /waɪt ‘pepə/ → /waɪt ‘pepə /

3.8 Structural zero and process morphemes

In morphology structural zero or null morpheme is a morpheme that has no phonetic form, indicating that the derived form is same as the stem. For example, sheep + plural morpheme is also sheep. When there is a contrast in the phonemes or in the order of phonemes then we have overt formal difference or process morpheme. For example ‘foot’ /fʊt/ and ‘feet’ /fi:t/. We will learn more on morphology in Paper 6.

Activity –XIII

Identify the forms which have a structural zero and those which illustrate process morphemes:-

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------|----------|
| i) ran | ii) hit | iii) met |
| iv) cut | v) split | vi) spat |
| vii) sang | viii) bought | ix) deer |

Activity –

Give two words for each of the following words which differ in only one sound segment [one is done for you]:

few : mew waste : _____ cat : _____
leisure : _____ try : _____ Chew _____
battle : _____ bought: _____ out : _____
gate : _____

3.9 Summary

The unit is designed as a revision on earlier units on Phonetics and Phonology along with theoretical inputs in variations in Phonology. This is spread over a vast area, covering phonetic changes in phonology, morphology, grapheme-phoneme correspondences, sound changes in phonological processes, and variations due to style and location. Here are few review questions at the end of the unit to check your comprehension.

3.10 Review Questions

1. What is sound change? Illustrate with examples of deletion in English
2. Cite five examples each for Metathesis and prothesis in English.
3. Explain Structural Zero and Process Morphemes with examples.
4. Distinguish between clear /l/ and dark /ɫ/.
5. Compare variation in pronunciation due to location in English and your first language.
6. Discuss variation in pronunciation due to style from your first language and English.
7. What is assimilation? Discuss different types of assimilation in English.
8. Give the phoneme-grapheme correspondences:
 - a) off, enough, photography, different
 - b) machine, ashamed, station, wish
 - c) closure, provision, garage, usual
9. Mention the common vowels in the following sets and their grapheme correspondences.
 - a) earth, world, bird, her, turn

- b) daughter, horse, yawn, tall, paw
 - c) pat, trash, exact, damp, lamb
10. Mention the common diphthongs in the following sets and their grapheme correspondences.
- a) air, mare, there, chair, rare
 - b) cable, may, great, same, weigh
 - c) road, sole, sow, bureau, soul

3.11 Recommended reading

1. Akmajian, Adrian., et al., (2017). *Linguistics - An Introduction to Language and Communication*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
2. Balasubramaniam. T., (2001). *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students*. Chennai: Macmillan India Pvt Ltd.
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Unit 4 □ Features of RP

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Objectives

4.3 Standards of Pronunciation: Historical perspectives

4.4 Standards of pronunciation: The situation now

4.5 Teaching Implications

4.6 The G.I.E.

4.6.1 The vowels of G.I.E.

4.6.2 Difference between the vowels of R.P. & G.I.E.

4.6.3 The consonants of G.I.E.

4.6.4 Difference between the consonants of R.P. & G.I.E.

4.7 Spelling Pronunciation

4.8 Summary

4.9 Review Questions

4.10 Reading List

4.1 Introduction

The English are particularly sensitive to variations in the pronunciation of their language. Such extreme sensitivity may make the people claim that modern speech is becoming more and more slovenly, full of ‘mumbling and mangled vowels’ and ‘missing consonants’. There is, however, little evidence to show that English is spoken in a more ‘slovenly’ manner now, than it was a few centuries ago. However, what is more significant, socially as well as linguistically is the attitude that considers a certain set of sound values as more acceptable or ‘more beautiful’, than another. The factor suggests that there definitely exists a standard for comparison although it is never explicitly imposed by any official body. Let us judge the English pronunciation style or stress pattern in the historical perspective.

4.2 Objectives

After reading the unit you will be able to

- a) Learn how to teach Pronunciation
- b) Distinguish features of RP and GIE
- c) Design a pronunciation syllabus for your class

- d) Understand spelling-pronunciation relationship

4.3 Standards of pronunciation: historical perspectives

The introduction of the term Received Pronunciation is usually credited to Daniel Jones after his comment in 1917 “In what follows, I call it Received Pronunciation (abbreviation RP), for want of a better term.” However, the expression had actually been used much earlier by Alexander Ellis in 1869 and Peter DuPonceau in 1818 (the term used by Henry C. K. Wyld in 1927 was “received standard”). According to Fowler’s *Modern English Usage* (1965), the correct term is “the Received Pronunciation”. The word received conveys its original meaning of accepted or approved – as in “received wisdom”. The reference to this pronunciation as Oxford English is because it was traditionally the common speech of Oxford University; the production of dictionaries gave Oxford University prestige in matters of language. The extended versions of the Oxford English Dictionary give Received Pronunciation guidelines for each word. RP is sometimes known as the Queen’s English, but recordings show that even Queen Elizabeth II has changed her pronunciation over the past 50 years.

RP is an accent (a form of pronunciation), rather than a dialect (a form of vocabulary and grammar as well as pronunciation). It may show a great deal about the social and educational background of a person who uses English. Anyone using RP will typically speak Standard English although the reverse is not necessarily true (e.g. the standard language may be pronounced with a regional accent, such as a Yorkshire accent; but it is very unlikely that someone speaking RP would use it to speak Scots).

RP is often believed to be based on the Southern accents of England, but it actually has most in common with the Early Modern English dialects of the East Midlands. This was the most populated and most prosperous area of England during the 14th and 15th centuries. By the end of the 15th century, “Standard English” was established in the City of London. A mixture of London speech with elements from East Midlands, Middlesex and Essex, became known as RP. However, the notion that one variety of pronunciation was socially more acceptable than others has existed in England. For reasons of politics, commerce and presence of the Royal Court, the pronunciation of south-east of England, and more particularly that of London region became more prestigious. Even the Public Schools of the nineteenth century also helped in the dissemination of the speech of the ruling class. With the spread of education a bulk of educated people whether belonging to the upper class or not, and those who heartily aspired for the social advancement, changed their accent to sound more like the socially accepted standard.

4.4 Standards of pronunciation: The situation now

4.4 Standards of pronunciation: The situation now

Like all accents, RP has changed with time. For example, sound recordings and films from the first half of the 20th century demonstrate that it was usual for speakers of RP to pronounce the /æ/ sound, as in *land*, with a vowel close to [ɛ], so that *land* would sound similar to a present-day pronunciation of *lend*.

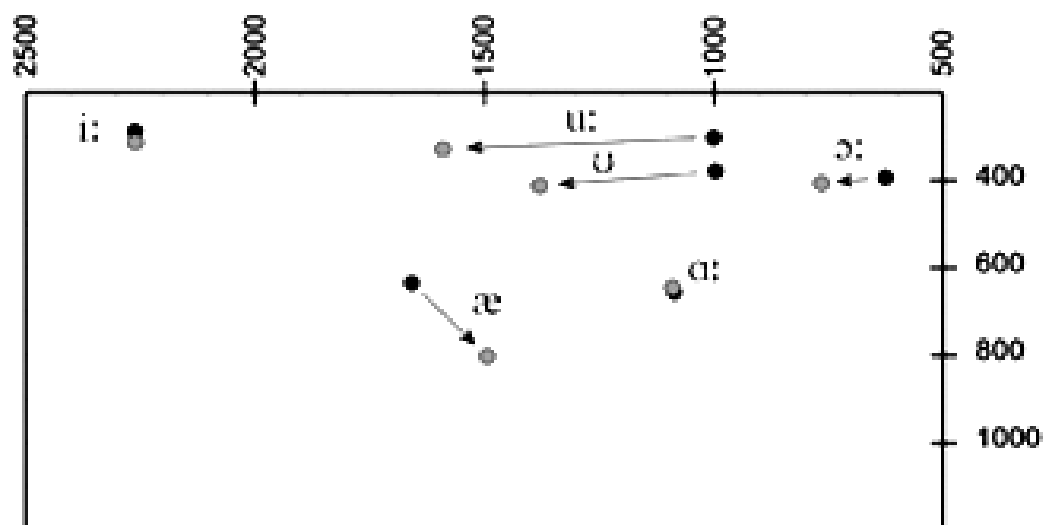


Figure – 7 [A comparison of the **formant** values of /i: æ a: ɔ: u:/ for older (black) and younger (light blue) RP speakers (Fromde Jong et al,2007:1814)]

The 1993 Oxford Dictionary changed three main things in its description of modern RP, although these features can still be heard amongst old speakers of RP. Firstly, words such as *cloth*, *gone*, *off*, *often* were pronounced with /ɔ:/ (as in General American) instead of /ɒ/, so that *often* sounded close to *orphan*. The Queen still uses the older pronunciations, but it is rare to hear them on the BBC any more. Secondly, there was a ***distinction between horse and hoarse*** with an extra diphthong /ɔ:/ appearing in words like *hoarse*, *force*, and *pour*. Thirdly, final ‘y’ on a word is now represented as an /i/ - a symbol to cover either the traditional /I/ or the more modern /i:/, the latter of which has been common in the south of England for some time.

Before World War II, the vowel of *cup* was a back vowel close to **cardinal**[ʌ] but has since shifted forward to a central position so that [ɜ] is more accurate; phonetic transcription of this vowel as <ʌ> is common partly for historical reasons.

In the 1960s the transcription /ə/ started to be used for the “GOAT” vowel

instead of Daniel Jones's /oɪ /, reflecting a change in pronunciation since the beginning of the century. Joseph Wright's work suggests that, during the early 20th century, words such as *cure*, *fewer*, *pure*, etc. were pronounced with a triphthong /iuə/ rather than the more modern /juə/.

The change in RP may even be observed in the home of "BBC English". The BBC accent of the 1950s was distinctly different from today's. A news report from the 1950s is recognizable as such, and a mock-1950s BBC voice is used for comic effect in programmes wishing to satirize 1950s social attitudes such as the Harry Enfield Show and its "Mr. Cholmondley-Warner" sketches. There are several words where the traditional RP pronunciation is now considered archaic: for example, "medicine" was originally said /medsɪn/ and "tissue" was originally said /tɪʃju:./

4.5 Teaching Implications

All should agree that pronunciation is an important part of foreign/second language learning. For many learners, again, it creates impediments on the way of learning a language. Naturally, a relevant question arises: when should we start teaching pronunciation and how? – Should we begin teaching with phonic drills even before teaching grammar or vocabulary? Or should we start it in the early age considering that the children are the better adapters than the adult learners? – Or should pronunciation be taught overtly or should it be introduced gradually or unobtrusively? Should one teach stress and intonation relatively earlier in the course or when the sound pattern along with vocabulary and grammar has been already mastered? Answers to these questions, although varying in nature, still now evolves with the development of linguistics to which phonetics and phonology belong to.

In the 1940's and 50's when a systematic approach to phonology based on the concept of the phoneme was introduced into structural and audio-lingual language teaching, it was believed that the information gathered from the contrastive study of speech sounds across languages (in order to identify the similarities and dissimilarities between target and original languages) would systematically help learners to overcome the phonological impediments presented by the new language.

The trend as established in 1960's is still being followed. It emphasizes the teaching of segmental phonemes, phonemic contrast and contrastive analysis using a variety of practical exercises. It also recognizes the importance of the supra-segmental features and offers practice in stress and intonation. Most training takes place early in a course and pronunciation is introduced more gradually and unobtrusively. The emphasis, then, is shifted to the global listening, speaking activities and grammar teaching and so on.

Another method advocates mimicking and imitating the teacher without offering any explanation. Specific exercises are used to deal with particular pronunciation problems as and when they arise. Phonetic or phonological explanations may be offered if none of the above procedures work.

It is said that in 1980's, with the introduction of the communicative language teaching, the sufficient exposure is not given in pronunciation teaching and this type of negligence creates obstacles for the learners to communicate effectively. It is important to note the changes that the socio-linguistic view of language has brought about in the definition of objectives in teaching pronunciation. **Firstly**, it is now accepted that acquisition of a native-like pronunciation is no longer necessary. The most important consideration is that the learners' pronunciation should be *intelligible to the native speakers*. **Secondly**, attention is paid mostly to the acceptability of the pronunciation (may be considered a social criteria). It means that learners should avoid any sort of feature(s) of pronunciation that might in any case be very offensive as well as irritating to the native listeners. It is, therefore, advisable that *learners should be taught to articulate clearly using a neutral pronunciation avoiding strictly local characteristics*. **Thirdly**, greater attention is now paid to the teaching of rhythm, stress and intonation. It is especially important to keep in mind that the changes in pronunciation occur when we utter larger units of speech than when we utter isolated words or sentences out of context. This is the area where discourse analysis has particularly influenced teaching pronunciation.

4.6 The G.I.E.

In this context you should have a fair concept of General Indian English [GIE] because you are supposed to interact those students who are already influenced by the Indian version of the RP pronunciation thereby creating a severe communication gap. Let's explore the vowel sounds of GIE first:-

4.6.1 The vowels of G.I.E.

Key words	GIE	Key words	GIE
feel, bead, beak, beat, heat	i:	shoe, boo, boot, hoot	u:
tin, bid, bit, hit	ɪ	about, buck, but, come	ə
bake, bait, bay, came	e:	bike, bite, buy, height	aɪ
bed, bet	e	boy, toy	ɔɪ
man, bad, back, bat	æ	bout, bow	au
par calm	a:	peer, stir, clear, rear	ɪə

cot, hot, lot, nod	ɒ	pair, fair, rare, chair	eə
boat, go, pour	o:	poor, tour, sure	ʊə
book, look, put, suit	ʊ		

Activity 1 Give the GIE symbols for the vowels in the following words.

- i) exact / / ii) what / / iii) new / / iv) suppose / /
v) four / / vi) free / / vii) sea / / viii) city / /
ix) should / / x) fruit / /

Activity 2 Give the GIE symbols for the diphthongs in the following words.

- i) either / / ii) coin / / iii) town / / iv) cheer / /
v) there / / vi) moor / / vii) steward / / viii) wear / /
ix) loyal / / x) night / /

4.6.2 Difference between the vowels of R.P. and G.I.E.

In general, Indian English has fewer peculiarities in its vowel sounds than the consonants, especially as spoken by native speakers of languages like Hindi, which in fact has a vowel phonology very similar to that of English. Among the distinctive features of the vowel-sounds employed by some Indian English speakers are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Many Indian languages (with the exception Western Hindi and Punjabi do not natively possess a separate phoneme /æ/ (as in <trap>). Thus, many speakers do not differentiate between the vowel sounds /ɛ/ (as in “dress”) and /æ/ (as in <trap>), except in cases where a *minimal pair* such as <bed>/<bad> exists in the vocabulary of the speaker. Such a speaker might pronounce “tax” like the first syllable of “Texas”. Speakers of Southern languages and **Sinhalese**, who do differentiate /ɛ/ and /æ/, do not have difficulty making this distinction. Eastern languages, notably Bengali does have the /ɔ̃/ sound for both the vowels â: (hâñcco—the sneezing sound—pronounced as hæñcco) and /e/: (henglâ—greedy—pronounced as hēngla). The vowel **a:** has two sound values in Bengali: as au in **a:**ro (‘more’) and **as o:** (Kalikâtâ). It lacks the short vowel value for **a:** (parâthâ).

Chiefly in Punjab and Haryana states, the short [ɛ] becomes lengthened and higher to long [e:] making <pen> sound like <paenn>.

When a long vowel is followed by “r”, some speakers of Indian English usually use a *monophthong*, instead of the *diphthong* used for many such words in many other accents. Thus “fear” is pronounced [fîr] instead of [fiə]

Indian English often uses strong vowels where other accents would have unstressed syllables or words. Thus “cottage” may be pronounced [kʌtɪdʒ] rather than [kɒtɪdʒ].

A word such as “was” in the phrase “I was going” will be pronounced [ʊðz] or [ʊɑs] in Indian English: in most other accents it would receive the unstressed realization [wðz]. Another example is that many Indian English speakers often pronounce <the> as /ði:/, irrespective of whether the **definite article** comes before a vowel or a consonant, or whether it is stressed or not. In native varieties of English, <the> is pronounced as [ð] when it is unstressed and lies before a consonant, and as [ði:] when it is before a vowel or when stressed even before a consonant.

Continuing the above point, the indefinite article <a> is often pronounced by many Indian English speakers as [e:], irrespective of whether it is stressed or unstressed. In native varieties of English, <a> is pronounced as [ə] when unstressed and as [eɪ] when stressed.

The RP vowels /ʌ/, /ɒ/ and /ɜ:/ might be realized as /ə/ in Indian English. Bengalis often pronounce all these vowels as a, including the <r>-colored versions of these vowels. Thus, <firm> may be pronounced the same as [farm]. “Van” as bhan etc.

General Indian English realizes /eɪ/ (as in <face>) and /oʊ/ (as in <goat>) as long **monophthongs** [e:], [o:].

Many Indian English speakers do not make a clear distinction between /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/. In English, some Indian speakers don't pronounce the rounded /ɑ/ or /ɔ:/, and substitute /a/ instead. This makes <not> sound as [nat]. The phoneme /ɔ:/, if used, is only semi-rounded at the lips. Similarly in North India “coffee” will be kaafi, “Copy” will be kaapi etc.

Words such as <class>, <staff> and <last> would be pronounced with a back <a> as in British English but unlike American English, i.e., [kla:s], [sta:f] and [la:st] rather than American [klæ:s], [stæ:f] and [læ:st] and in South of India “Parent” is pa:rent.

Most Indians have the **Trap-bath split** of **Received Pronunciation**. Those who don't, are usually influenced by American accents. Not using the trap-bath split is often popularly construed as attempting to imitate an American accent.

4.6.3 The consonants of G.I.E.

Key words symbol Key words symbol Key words symbol Key words symbol

Key words	symbol	Key words	symbol	Key words	symbol	Key words	symbol
<u>p</u> in	/p/	<u>j</u> am	/dʒ/	<u>T</u> hem	/dd/	<u>r</u> am	/r/
<u>b</u> in	/b/	<u>m</u> at	/m/	<u>S</u> un	/s/	<u>y</u> es	/j/
<u>t</u> in	/t/	<u>n</u> ose	/n/	<u>Z</u> oo	/z/	<u>w</u> ater	/w/
<u>d</u> am	/d/	<u>s</u> ong	/ŋ/	<u>s</u> heep	/ʃ/		
<u>k</u> ite	/k/	<u>f</u> an	/ð/	<u>g</u> arage	/ʒ/		
<u>g</u> et	/g/	<u>v</u> an	/ʒ/	<u>H</u> en	/h/		
<u>ch</u> at	/ct/	<u>th</u> ink	/t̪ ^h /	<u>L</u> eaf			

Activity 4 Give the GIE symbols for the fricative and affricate sounds in the following words.

- i) half / / ii) view / / iii) heathy / / iv) than / /
 v) almost / / vi) school / / vii) ship / / viii) revision / /
 ix) rich / / x) age / /

Activity 5 Put the GIE symbols for the consonant sounds.

- i) heap / / ii) buy / / iii) tea / / iv) dear / /
 v) car / / vi) ago / / vii) my / / viii) any / /
 ix) singer / / x) learn / / xi) yet / / xii) why/ /

4.6.4 Difference between the consonants of R.P. and G.I.E.

Most pronunciations of Indian English are rhotic, but many speakers with higher education are non-rhotic.

Standard Hindi and most other vernaculars (except Punjabi & Bengali) do not differentiate between /v/(**voiced labiodental fricative**) and /w/(**voiced labiovelar approximant**). Instead, many Indians use a frictionless **labio-dental** approximant [ʋ] for words with either sound, possibly in free variation with [v] and/or [w]. So *wet* and *vet* are homophones.

Because of the previous characteristic many Indians pronounce words such as <flower> as [fla:(r)] instead of [flaɪ ə(r)], and <our> as [a:(r)] instead of [aɪ ə(r)].

The voiceless plosives /p/, /t/, /k/ are always unaspirated in Indian English, whereas in RP, General American and most other English accents they are aspirated in word-initial or stressed syllables. Thus “pin” is pronounced [pɪn] in Indian English but [pʰɪn] in most other accents. In native Indian languages (except Tamil), the distinction between aspirated and unaspirated plosives is phonemic, and the English stops are equated with the unaspirated rather than the aspirated phonemes of the local languages. The same is true of the voiceless post alveolar affricate /tʃ/.

The **alveolar** stops English /d/, /t/ are often **retroflex** [ɖ], [ʈ], especially in the South of India. In Indian languages there are two entirely distinct sets of coronal plosives: one **dental** and the other retroflex. To the Indian ears, the English alveolar plosives sound more retroflex than dental. In the *Devanagari script* of Hindi, all alveolar plosives of English are transcribed as their retroflex counterparts. One good reason for this is that unlike most other native Indian languages, Hindi does not have *true* retroflex plosives. The so-called retroflexes in Hindi are actually articulated as apical **post-alveolar** plosives, sometimes even with a tendency to come down to the alveolar region. So a Hindi speaker normally cannot distinguish the difference between their own apical post-alveolar plosives and English’s alveolar plosives. However, languages such as Tamil have *true* retroflex plosives, wherein the articulation is done with the tongue curved upwards and backwards at the **roof of the mouth**. This also causes (in parts of Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh) the /s/ preceding alveolar /t/ to allophonically change to [ʈ] (<stop>/stap/ → /ʈtap/). Mostly in south India, some speakers allophonically further change the voiced retroflex plosive to voiced **retroflex flap**, and the nasal /n/ to a nasalized retroflex flap.

Many Indians speaking English lack the **voiced post alveolar fricative** (/ʒ/), the same as their native languages. Typically, /z/ or /dʒ/ is substituted, e.g. *treasure* /trɜːzɔːr/, and in the south Indian variants, with /f/ as in <“sh”ore>.

All major native languages of India lack the dental fricatives (/θ/ and /ð/; spelled with *th*). Usually, **the aspirated voiceless dental plosive** [tʰ] is substituted for /θ/ and the unaspirated **voiced dental plosive** [d*], or possibly the aspirated version [dʰ±]. is substituted for /ð/. For example, “thin” would be realized as [tʰɪn] instead of /θɪn/.

South Indians tend to curl the tongue (retroflex accentuation) more for /l/ and /n/.

Most Indian languages (except Urdu) lack the **voiced alveolar fricative** /z/. While they do have its nearest equivalent: the unvoiced /s/, strangely, it is not used in substitution. Instead, /z/ is substituted with the voiced palatal affricate (or post alveolar) /dʒ/, just as with a **Korean** accent. This makes words such as <zero> and <rosy> sound as [dzi:ro] and [ro:dzi:]. This replacement is equally true for Persian and Arabic loanwords into Hindi. The probable reason is the confusion created by the use of the **devanagari** grapheme <:z> (for /dz/) with a dot beneath it to represent the loaned /z/ (as <:ẓ>). This is common among people without formal English education.

Many Indians with lower exposure to English also may pronounce /f/ as aspirated **voiceless bilabial plosive**[p^h]. Again note that in Hindi (devanagari) the loaned /f/ from Persian and Arabic is written by putting a dot beneath the grapheme for native [p^h] <:̣>: <:̣:̣>. This substitution is rarer than that for [z], and in fact in many Hindi-speaking areas /f/ is replacing /p^h/ even in its native words.

Inability to pronounce certain (especially word-initial) **consonant clusters** by people of rural backgrounds. This is usually dealt with by **epenthesis**, e.g., *school*/is.ku:l/, similar to Spanish.

Sometimes, Indian speakers interchange /s/ and /z/, especially when plurals are being formed. Whereas in international varieties of English, [s] is used for pluralization of a word ending in a voiceless consonant, [z] for that ending in a voiced consonant or vowel, and [hɪz] for that ending in a sibilant.

Again, in dialects like **Bhojpuri**, all instances of /ɔ̃/ are spoken like [s], a phenomenon which is also apparent in their English. Exactly the opposite is seen for many **Bengalis**.

In case of the post alveolar affricates /tʃ/dʒ/, native languages like Hindi have corresponding affricates articulated from the palatal region, rather than postalveolar, and they have more of a stop component than fricative; this is reflected in the English of Hindi Speakers.

While retaining /ɔ̃/ in the final position, Indian speakers usually include the [a] after it. Hence /rɪŋ.ɪŋ/ → rɪŋ.gɪŋ (*ringing*)

Syllabic/l/, /m/ and /n/ are usually replaced by the VC clusters [ɔ̃l], [ɔ̃m] and [ɔ̃n] (as in *button*/but.tɔ̃n/), or if a **high vowel** precedes, by [ɪl] (as in *little*/lit.tɪl/). Syllable nuclei in words with the spelling *er* (a **schwa** in RP and an r-colored schwa in **GIE**) are also replaced VC clusters. e.g., *meter*, /mi:tɔ̃r/ → /mi:tɔ̃r/.

Indian English uses clear [l] in all instances like Irish English whereas other varieties use clear [l] in syllable-initial positions and dark [l] (velarized-L) in coda and syllabic positions.

4.7 Spelling pronunciation

A number of distinctive features of Indian English are due to “the vagaries of English spelling” Most Indian languages have a very phonetic pronunciation with respect to their script, and unlike English, the spelling of a word is a highly reliable guide to its modern pronunciation.

In words where the digraph <gh> represents a **voiced velar plosive** (/g/) in other accents, some Indian English speakers supply a murmured version [g⁴], for example <ghost>[g⁴h^o:st]. No other accent of English admits this voiced aspiration.

Similarly, the digraph <wh> may be aspirated as [v^h] or [w^h], resulting in realizations

such as <which>[v^hIt̪], found in no other English accent (except in certain parts of Scotland).

In unstressed syllables, native English varieties will mostly use the schwa while Indian English would use the spelling vowel, making <sanity> sound as [sæ.ni.ti] instead of [sə.nə.ti]. Similarly, <above> and <ago> can be heard as [e.bʌv] and [e.go] instead of [ə.bʌv] and [ə.go].

English words ending in grapheme < a > almost always have the < a > being pronounced as schwa /ə/ in native varieties (exceptions include words such as <spa>). But in Indian English, the ending < a > is pronounced as the long open central unrounded vowel /a:/ (as in <spa>) instead of schwa. So, <India> is pronounced as /In.dI.a:/ instead of /In.dI.ə/, and <sofa> as /so:.fa:/ instead of /sov.fə/

The word “of” is usually pronounced with a /f/ instead of a /v/ as in most other accents. Use of [d] instead of [t] for the “-ed” ending of the past tense after voiceless consonants, for example “developed” may be [dɛvələpt] instead of RP /dɪvələpt/.

Use of [s] instead of [z] for the “-s” ending of the plural after voiced consonants, for example <dogs> may be [dɔgs] instead of [dɔgz]

Pronunciation of <house> as [hauz] in both the noun and the verb, instead of [haus] as noun and [hauz] as verb.

The digraph <tz> is pronounced as [tz] or [tdʒ] instead of [ts] (voicing may be assimilated in the stop too), making <Switzerland> sound like [svɪt.zɪr.lænd] instead of [swɪt.səlænd].

In RP, /r/ occurs only before a vowel. But many speakers of Indian English use /r/ in almost all positions in words as dictated by the spellings. The allophone used is a mild trill or a tap. Indian speakers do not typically use the retroflex approximant /ɻ/ for <r>, which is common for American English speakers

All consonants are distinctly doubled (lengthened) in General Indian English wherever the spelling suggests so. e.g., <drilling>/drɪl.lɪŋ/.

<Here> is sometimes pronounced [heə(r)] (like in <hair> and <hare>) instead of [hɪə(r)].

English pronunciation of the grapheme < i > varies from [ɪ] to [aɪ] depending upon the dialect or accent. Indian English will invariably use the British dialect for it. Thus, <tensile> would be pronounced as [tɛn.səl] like the British, rather than [tɛn.sɪl] like the American; <anti> would be pronounced as [æ.n.tɪ] like the British, rather than [æ.n.taɪ] like American.

While Indian English is historically derived from British English, recent influences from American English can be found to have created their own idiosyncrasies. For instance, it is common to both spellings “program” and “programme” being used in both formal and informal communications. (Two examples from Indian newspapers providing both spellings are provided here)

4.8 Summary

In this unit we have discussed in detail, the peculiarities associated with the English language, and attempts made to standardize the pronunciation. Though there had been concerted efforts put in by many scholars, it was formalized by Daniel Jones and came to be called Received Pronunciation. This is largely restricted in use and even this model has undergone changes over the years. This standard is compared with the General Indian English and an attempt has been made to contrast both the vowels and consonants in both the systems. Adequate illustrations are provided to make these discussions clear. Finally, the role spelling has in determining the pronunciation is discussed.

4.9 Review Questions

1. What should you consider when you choose a standard pronunciation to teach?
2. Write a brief note on the changing trends of pronunciation teaching from the 1940's through the 90's.
3. Identify at least two problem zones in the consonant features that students find difficult to master. How would you alleviate these problems?
4. Suggest ten exercises for alleviating problems with consonant features.
5. Identify at least three problem zones with vowel sound features that are difficult to master. How would you alleviate these problems?
6. Suggest ten exercises for alleviating problems with vowel features.
7. What should be the objectives of pronunciation teaching? Suggest objectives from your own experiences and for your needs.
8. Suggest five examples for each of ten consonants with varied spelling pronunciation.
9. What would you consider a useful and workable syllabus for your students while teaching pronunciation?
10. What are the variations in RP and GIE for the fricatives of English?

4.10 Reading List

1. Gimson, A.C. 1972. *Introduction to Pronunciation Teaching*, Edward Arnold.
2. Stern. H.H. 1972. *Issues and Options in Language Teaching*, (ed. Patrick Allen and Birgit Harley), Oxford India Press.
3. Stevens, P.D. 1977. *New Orientations in the Teaching of English*. Oxford India Press.

MODULE - 2 : VOCABULARY STUDIES

Unit 5 □ Language Function as Situations

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objectives
- 5.3 Language Functions
- 5.4 Role of Language in performing a function
 - 5.4.1 Introducing someone
 - 5.4.2 Bargaining
- 5.5 Recap of Language Functions
- 5.6 Developing conversations with cue cards
- 5.7 Classroom procedures with cue cards
- 5.8 Model Dialogue
- 5.9 Summary
- 5.10 Review Questions

5.1 Introduction

This module has a focus on Language Functions and the various ramifications it can have in the process of communication. In this module we shall look at four of these aspects in some detail. The features being discussed here are situations and meanings that language facilitates, as well as form and discourse that is employed for conveying the ideas. We will provide you with as many examples as possible and keep the theoretical discussion to the minimum possible level. This is to help you infer the principles and concepts on your own. ‘Language Functions as Situations’—

Look at the title of the unit. Of the four words included two are called operative words. We are sure, you are able to guess which two are operational or carry the meaning to be conveyed. Please enter these two words in the space below:

Your response:

We have discussed in detail what language is, and its salient features in Paper 4. (Take a look at Module I of Paper 4.) Since we know enough of what language is,

this word cannot be an operational word in our present context. The third word in the title is a preposition or a structure word. Therefore, this cannot be an operational word either. That leaves us with two more words ‘functions’ and ‘situations’. These are new to us. These are our operational words. We are sure while choosing your answer, all these thoughts passed in your mind and you arrived at the correct answer. Let us go forward.

5.2 Objectives

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

- a. Understand the term language function properly,
- b. Appreciate the role language plays in making functions operational,
- c. Identify various language functions from our daily life,
- d. Use materials and strategies for using language functions in the classroom.

5.3 Language Functions

Language is abstract. This means, we cannot see it or feel it, but can use it. If something is as abstract as air, how can it perform any function? And how can such function have a variety of operations? Did you think of these questions? If ‘yes’ we are happy. They are the right questions to ask to clear our doubts and make progress.

In order to understand the concept of function, we need to revise a bit of our previous lessons, especially module 1 of Paper 4. We learnt that language is living, it was born long time ago, it was one of the inventions of human beings to help them live in comfort, it varies according to space and time and it is something unique to human beings.

Some linguists also say language is life. What do they mean by this? Is this a tall claim? They say that it is impossible for human beings to live without language? Do you agree with this? State your response.

Your answer:

We do a variety of things in our life. Perhaps each of the things we do is connected with language. To understand this, let us make a list of things we normally do every day since the time of getting up from bed to retiring at the end of the day. Here is a possible list – freshen ourselves up, have tea, bath, dress, breakfast, go to school/office, work, lunch, meet friends, get back home, shop around, dinner, watch television, get into bed. There may be a few additions or deletions, the order may change, but you would agree most of us go through this routine day after day. How many of these jobs are done in silence without any use of language. Take for example your bath – do you talk to yourself (be honest), while eating or having tea though there is no need to talk, the food and tea will not taste the same when you have it alone in silence. So is your work in office, and the conversation with your dear ones while watching television etc. Language is intricately woven into our life and the two cannot be separated. Therefore, some linguists rightly say ‘language is life’. We hope you agree with this, and perhaps begin to believe that language is life or it is very important in our life to be happy.

We have largely agreed on the fact that language is life. But we are yet to look at the operational words in our title – ‘function’ and ‘situation’. Let us now turn to each one of these individually. Let us begin with function.

In life we do several things as you saw it previously. Let us look at life a little differently now. Here is a list of some action verbs. Take a close look at them and then complete the grid that we have provided based on your own experience. The list of action verbs is as follows: making requests, introducing friends, apologizing, enquiring, giving directions, giving instructions, offering advice, thanking someone, accepting a proposal, refusing a suggestion, quarrelling, bargaining etc. Have you involved yourself in doing one or more of these things at some time or the other almost everyday of your life? The frequency may vary. Based on your experience, fill in the following grid. The first column has the action verb, in the second column you need to say either ‘yes’ or ‘no’ and in the third column give the frequency that is probably true of you. You may choose one of these options – everyday, once a week, once a month, occasionally, rarely, never. Here is the grid. The first item has been completed as an example. The last three rows are vacant for you to fill more verbs of your own choice.

Action verb	Yes/No	Frequency <i>(everyday, once a week, once a month, occasionally, rarely, never)</i>
Making a request	Yes	Almost every day.
Introducing someone		
Apologising		
Bargaining		
Thanking		
Enquiring		
Arguing		
Accepting (a proposal)		
Refusing (a proposal)		
Giving advice		
Giving instructions		
Giving directions		
Persuading		
Getting angry		
Explaining		
Narrating a story/anecdote		
Sharing a joke		

Take a close look at the words in column 1. Each of these denotes a function. Now you should be able to see the relation between language and function. Each action of ours is in some way associated with language and it is the language that performs the function – for example can you scold someone in silence or ask for something you need in silence?(Of course, one may use what is called ‘mime’, but this is severely restricted and needs a lot of talent on the part of the communicator. And not all may understand the mime the same way.)

5.4 Role of Language in performing a function

We have now established that language can perform functions. We need to be more specific. How does language perform these functions, or what aspects of language do we need in order to perform these functions? That makes our understanding of language as performing functions much more clear. Let us take a few examples from the above list and analyse them so that we understand the role of language in performing a function.

5.4.1 Introducing someone

Let us begin with a very basic function – Introducing someone. Look at the conversation given below:

There are three people A, B and C. A and B are friends. A and C are also friends. But B and C do not know each other. A introduces B to C in this conversation.

Akbar: Hello, Bhaskar, how are you? It is a long time since we have met.

Bhaskar: Hello, Akbar. So nice to meet you here. I was not in town for the last six months. I was deputed to Darjeeling on a project.

Akbar: I hope you enjoyed being there. It is a beautiful place, cool and nice.

Bhaskar: I am afraid not. It is a good tourist place, but not good enough to stay there for long. It is pretty expensive.

Caroline: Hello Akbar. What have you been doing here? Who is this young man with you?

Akbar: Good afternoon, Ms Caroline. I came out here for a stroll and a good cup of tea with some buttered scones. Why don't you join us?

Caroline: Thank you, but I have an appointment with my dentist. I will join you some other time. Incidentally, who is this young man?

Akbar: I am sorry Ms Caroline, I forgot to introduce my friend Bhaskar. He works for Tata Tea Estates. He is a renowned tea taster. We did our schooling together.

Caroline: Hello, Mr. Bhaskar. Nice meeting you.

Akbar: Bhaskar, meet my teacher, Ms Caroline. She teaches English at the Xavier University. I was her student in my M A Class. She is a well-known author and a critic.

Bhaskar: Pleasure meeting you madam. I hope to keep in touch with you.

Caroline: It is my pleasure. I will be in touch and we will all meet some time for a good cup of tea and butter scones. Bye for now.

Akbar: Bye, madam. See you soon.

Bhaskar:

Bhaskar: Akbar, I may need to leave immediately after tea, I have to meet a few clients down the lane.

Akbar: Sure Bhaskar, do come home some time. My parents often remember you.

Bhaskar: Sure, I will. I miss the Id party in your house. Bye for now.

Read this conversation a few times and make a note of some of the structures

Here is a quick analysis:

- a. It begins with a few polite expressions – ‘Hello’ and ‘How are you’ These expressions do not carry any meaning, except helping in building a rapport. These are essential in most conversations at the beginning.
- b. We meet a new person Ms Caroline. The way Akbar addresses her indicates that she is a senior person. (Is there any other clue that suggests she is older and senior to Akbar and Bhaskar?)
- c. Akbar introduces Bhaskar to his teacher. This is part of the etiquette. Younger people to be introduced to the senior people. Men to women and not the other way around.
- d. Look at some more expressions: ‘meet my teacher’; ‘he is my friend’; ‘nice meeting you’; ‘pleasure meeting you’; ‘he works for’; ‘he/she is’; ‘we were’; ‘tea taster’; ‘teacher’; ‘keep in touch’ etc.

Do these phrases indicate the presence of any grammar? We call them formula expressions. They are used on occasions like introducing people and we hardly use them in other contexts. It is polite to use these expressions as a matter of courtesy and etiquette.

However, introduction is not without grammar. We generally use simple present tense: ‘he is a tea taster’ ‘she teaches English’ etc. We also use adjectives such as ‘a renowned tea taster’; ‘a well-known author/critic’ etc.

While introducing people, we need the following:

- a. Familiarity with formula expressions which are polite.
- b. Use of simple present tense,
- c. Adjectives to qualify people,
- d. Names of professions,

5.4.2 Bargaining

Let us take a look at one more function and analyse it in a similar way. This time we will take up the function of bargaining. Obviously, we need to have two people for this function – a seller and a buyer. The goods sold should be worth being bargained. So let us think of someone buying a second hand bicycle. The buyer is a student (St) studying in IIT Kharagpur and the seller is a cycle repairer (Cr). Here is the conversation.

- St: Hi, Abdulla. Do you have some cycles to sell?
- Cr: Oh, Navin, yes, of course. They are over there.
- St: (Looking at a few bicycles): This one seems good. How much is this?
- Cr: You have chosen a good bicycle. This is a Raleigh bicycle and it is just three years old. Quite new! I will sell it for Rs 1,200. This is a special price for you.
- St: That is too much for an old bicycle. Make it Rs. 750/-
- Cr: Sorry, I cannot reduce the price so much. I may reduce it by Rs 100/-
- St: No, that is too much. I will have to change the seat cover, fix a carrier; I have more expenses to meet after buying. Give me your last price.
- Cr: Rs.1050/- and nothing less.
- St: No, make it Rs.900/- and with a new seat cover and a carrier, I will pay you Rs 1,000/-
- Cr: It is a loss to me. But since I know you, take it.
- St: Here, take these Rs.500/-. Clean the bicycle thoroughly, fix the seat cover and the carrier and also oil all the parts. I will come back in the evening.
- Cr: Bring the rest of the money, I don't want you to hear you say, 'I will pay the rest later'.
- St: No, Abdulla, I will pay the rest in the evening and take the bicycle. But remember to keep it ready.
- Cr: Thank you, Navin, you can trust me for that. Bye.

Read this dialogue a couple of times and identify some of the grammar items. Let us analyse this and find out.

- a. The two people in conversation know each other. How do we know this fact? They address each other by their name. Their relationship is not formal, therefore, greetings like 'Hi' and "Oh" are used. The conversation begins with a greeting. This is always a good sign and helps to establish a rapport.

- b. There are questions beginning with ‘Do you have. .?’ Navin is making enquiry about the availability of bicycles. The question can be answered with ‘yes’ or ‘no’.
- c. Suppose Navin were buying sugar in a grocery store, he would still ask the same question. But there is a difference between sugar and bicycles. Sugar is quantity noun (uncount) while bicycles is countable.
- d. Do we have different types of questions with these two types of nouns? Yes, ‘How much’ for uncount and ‘How many’ for count nouns.
- e. Look at the bargaining part. Was it a tough bargain? In Navin’s place, how much would you have paid for an old bicycle? Look at terms like – No, last price, reduce, add something, etc. You must be familiar with all these words and expressions.

While bargaining we need:

- a. Greetings – either formal or informal depending on our relationships.
- b. We need to have good vocabulary and familiarity with nouns or names of different things we need to buy or parts of the object we want to buy.
- c. We should know to frame questions with ‘Do you. .’ of ‘Can I have. .’ and also ‘How much. .’ and ‘How many. .’
- d. We should be familiar with expressions for suggesting alternatives – ‘not this, but. .’ ‘a little different’ ‘in a different size or colour’
- e. We should be familiar with formula expressions like ‘Here you are’; ‘You are welcome’ etc.

We have given you a description of two language functions and the type of grammar and vocabulary you need to transact these functions. Go back to the grid and choose two more functions and analyse them in a similar way. It may be easy, if you think of a conversation that takes place between the two people involved. For this we can use cue cards, and in the next part we will talk about cue cards.

5.5 Recap of Language Functions

Before we proceed, let us take a quick look at what we have discussed so far. Would you like to write a brief summary? Please do so, before reading the next part of the unit.

Your response:

In this unit, so far we have looked at the following.

- a. We have tried to establish how language is very important in our life and that it can be considered a synonym for life.
- b. We have made an analysis of our daily life using a set of action verbs.
- c. We have demonstrated that each of these action verbs is also a life function and involves language use.
- d. Since language and life are synonymous, life functions can be considered as language functions.
- e. We have looked at a few language functions and checked how frequently we use them in our life.
- f. We have elaborated on two language functions with the help of simple conversations and also looked at the language inputs.

We shall now look at the materials to develop good conversations among our learners with the help of cue cards.

5.6 Developing conversations with cue cards

Are you familiar with the word ‘cue’? Just refer to a dictionary and note down the meaning as it is given there.

Your response:

Oxford Advanced Learners’ Dictionary defines the word cue as follows:

cue/kju:/ *noun, verb*

noun 1 *an action or event that is a signal for sb to do sth. John’s arrival was a cue for more champagne.*

2. *a few words or an action in a play that is a signal for another actor to do sth. She stood in the wings and waited for her cue to go on,*

3. *a long wooden stick with a leather tip, used for hitting the ball in the game of billiards.*

Verb 1 *to give somebody a signal so they know when to start doing something. Can you cue me when you want me to begin speaking.*

Here are four meanings of the word cue. When we say, ‘cue cards’ this word becomes an adjective qualifying the cards which carry cues. There is some information on the card which provides a cue to the persons who has to do or say something. Take a look at these cue cards.

Remember, cue cards always occur in pairs. Therefore, this is well suited for use in pairs. Take care to see that each pair partner has a different card, and does not get to see the card the other person has. This is important to maintain the principle of

information gap. (We have discussed this during the last semester in our lessons on communication strategies.) Once you have looked at the cards, we will discuss how to use them in the class and also provide a model response.

<p>(B is your friend)</p> <p>A: Greet B</p> <p>B: _____</p> <p>A: Make a request</p> <p>B: _____</p> <p>A: Rephrase your request</p> <p>B: _____</p> <p>A: Accept the condition</p> <p>B: _____</p> <p>A: Thank B close conversation</p> <p>B: _____</p>

<p>(A is your friend)</p> <p>A: _____</p> <p>B: Respond</p> <p>A: _____</p> <p>B: Don't understand</p> <p>A: _____</p> <p>B: Put a condition</p> <p>A: _____</p> <p>B: Agree to help</p> <p>A: _____</p> <p>B: Close conversation</p>

These cue cards can be used fruitfully to involve the class in a conversation based on a set of functions. The present one serves the functions of making a request, and accepting the same between two friends. How do we use it in our class? Here is a step wise procedure.

1. Divide the class into pairs.
2. Give instructions about the cue cards.
3. Distribute the cue cards to each pair.
4. Allot a fixed time within which they need to complete the task of writing the conversation. Make sure nobody gets any extra time.
5. Ask some of the pairs and to come to the front of the class and enact their roles.
6. Ask the rest of the class to listen and suggest improvements.
7. Provide your feedback.

We have suggested seven steps of classroom procedure. Are you sure how to go about these? We will briefly discuss each step in the next part and then arrive at a model dialogue.

5.7 Classroom procedures with cue cards

1. Divide the class into pairs. This is a simple activity. You may use a variety of strategies to do this. You can ask the class to form pairs on their own choice or you may allot partners randomly. There are other strategies which you can learn from your books on methods of teaching.
2. Instructions: The instructions you give should be very clear. Ask the pair partners not to show their cards to the other member. They should read the cue and develop an utterance based on this cue.
3. Distribution. Make sure the two members in the pair have different cards which are complementary.
4. Time: Depending on the function specified in the cue card, the time may be allotted suitably. The time allotted should be adequate enough to allow the participants to think, note down their utterances, correct them, check with each other and arrive at the final dialogue. Make sure nobody exceeds the time allotted.
5. Reporting: Pick a few pairs of students randomly to report to the class or present their dialogues.
6. Ask other students to listen carefully, take notes and give feedback.
7. Listen to all the pairs making their presentation and also listen to the comments from other students. Make notes and provide feedback. Point out the weaknesses without mentioning the student who made the error. Let the errors be the errors of the class rather than being errors made by an individual.

This cycle can repeat with other cards.

5.8 Model Dialogue

Finally, before concluding the unit, we will look at the possible dialogue that can be developed based on the cue cards given here as a sample.

The cards say A and B are friends. Therefore, the conversation needs to be less formal.

A: Hello Bashir, how are you?

B: Hello, Andrew, fine thank you, and how are you?

A: Bashir, I am in some trouble, I need some money, could you lend me a thousand rupees.

B: Beg your pardon.

A: You see, my mother is in hospital. I need to deposit some money, the banks are all closed. I need money urgently, could you lend me a thousand rupees.

B: I do have the money, but I need it for paying my rent which is due the day after tomorrow. If you promise to return it tomorrow as soon as the banks open, I will part with this.

A: Certainly. You can trust me for that.

B: Here is your money.

A: Thank you so much, Bashir, I will see you tomorrow.

B: See you. Take care.

Here is a small task for you. Rewrite this dialogue slightly differently. What type of conversation will happen if A and B are strangers and not friends. (A need not ask only for money). If A and B are relatives, or friends but who have had a quarrel recently.

Your response:

We will conclude this unit with a brief summary.

5.9 Summary

Language is closely related to life and it is difficult for us to live without language. In our life, we need to perform a variety of functions, and these demand the use of language. Therefore, the functions assigned to life become functions of the language. There can be a variety of functions which we are compelled to fulfil every day using language. We need to sensitise our learners to these functions and there are a variety of ways of doing it. One very easy way of doing it is to use cue cards. Any teacher can prepare cue cards with a little bit of imagination and practice.

In the next unit we will look at we will look at the relation that exists between these functions and situations on the one hand and meaning on the other. We will introduce some new concepts in the next unit. Bye till then.

5.10 Review Questions

- a. How is language defined here?
- b. Do you agree with the definition? Give reasons,
- c. Are language functions the same as life functions?
- d. Give some examples of language functions?
- e. Mention a few language functions you use commonly.
- f. Mention some language functions that are not common.
- g. How is grammar related the language function?
- h. Do all language functions have the same grammar?
- i. What materials can be used to teach language functions?
- j. Why is pair work a useful strategy for teaching language functions?

Unit 6 □ Language Functions as Meaning

- 6.1 Introduction**
- 6.2 Objectives**
- 6.3 Language use in contexts and situations**
- 6.4 Language use in situations with different meanings**
- 6.5 Question Words**
- 6.6 Contextual Language Analysis**
- 6.7 Concept of Block Grading**
- 6.8 Summary**
- 6.9 Review Questions**
- 6.10 Reading list**

6.1 Introduction

This unit is a continuation of the previous unit which discussed the close relationship that exists between language and life and how language is an inseparable aid to fulfil life functions. In the previous unit we looked at the functions a language can perform in isolation. In this unit we will try and discuss how these language functions can be bunched together as situations and the specific meanings they can be assigned.

6.2 Objectives

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

- a. Understand the concept of language functions in greater detail,
- b. Bunch a few language functions based on contexts/situations.
- c. Understand how the complexity of functions vary with situations,
- d. Understand the concept of block grading for purposes of teaching,

6.3 Language use in Context and Situations

In this unit let us attempt to explore the meaning of the two words ‘situation’ and ‘meaning’. The word ‘situation’ is commonly used, and often you must have uttered ‘In my situation, you would not behave like this.’ Though we say this fairly frequently, what do we mean by such an utterance? The second word is ‘meaning’ which is

equally common. Both these words have intricate interpretations, and this unit helps you gain some understanding of these two words in the context of language use.

To begin with let us look at the various definitions of these two words provided in *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary*.

situation (noun) /sɪtʃueɪʃ(ə)n/

1. *circumstances and things that are happening at a particular time and in a particular place: e.g. to be in a difficult situation.*
2. *(formal) a kind of area or surroundings that a building or a town has: e.g. the town is in a delightful situation.*
3. *(old fashioned or formal) job or situations vacant: an advertisement where jobs are advertised.*

Out of these three meanings, the first one is more common than the other two. We can rephrase the first meaning as 'context' for our purposes and relate it to life and language. In our everyday life we pass through a variety of contexts or situations and let us make a list of these to begin with. Perhaps you can make one and later compare it with what is given.

Your response: Please note down your list here:

This is called a remembering exercise. Recollect the routine in your daily life and think of the various contexts you need to pass through (or negotiate). Some of the contexts can be as follows:

- a. Eating
- b. Travelling
- c. Shopping
- d. Banking
- e. Coping with job
- f. Attending a function/wedding, etc.
- g. Playing (as a member of team)
- h. Organising an event such as a conference, get together, etc.

Look at these situations from a different angle by rephrasing them slightly

At the post office; In a bank; At the Railway station; In a restaurant; In a supermarket; In the vegetable market; On a train/plane/bus/tram/shared taxi/ autorickshaw etc.; At a party, wedding, birthday; Watching television; On a picnic; In a friend's place etc.

We have provided about eight situations, but this list can grow endlessly and we are sure your list is longer and better than what we have given. Good job, keep it up. We need to look at these situations in some more detail and see how language use is unique to each one of them. Before getting to that, let us also look at the word 'meaning' and how it is used in the context of a situation.

6.4 Language use in situation with different meanings

The Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary provides the following definitions for the word meaning.

meaning (noun) / 'mi:nɪŋ/

1. *Of sound/word/sign - the thing or idea that a sound, word or sign, etc. represents. e.g. what is the meaning of this word?*
2. *Of what somebody says – the things or ideas that somebody wishes to communicate to you. I don't quite get your meaning.*
3. *Of feeling or experience – the real importance of a feeling or experience e.g. With Anna, he learnt the meaning of real love.*
4. *Of book/painting – the ideas that a writer/artist wishes to communicate e.g. There are of course, deeper meanings in the poem.*
5. *Sense of purpose – the quality or sense that makes you feel that your life is valuable. e.g. Having a child gave new meaning to their lives.*

There are five meanings which are all equally important. For our present purposes, let us take definitions 2, 3 and 5. What do they convey to us? How are they related to the word 'situation' and in turn to language use? These are some questions you can ponder on and note down your responses below.

Your response:

We need to take up a situation, look at it carefully and see how many meanings it can lend itself to. Once we do this, then, it will be possible for us to delve into the question of language use. We shall do it now with some examples.

Let us choose a situation to begin with. In the previous unit you have looked at the term function, and looked at the illustration for a function like bargaining. Suppose we want to locate it in a situation, where would it fit best? Perhaps in the Supermarket or in a vegetable market (at the green grocer) or it could be a saree shop etc. Bargaining is a function, and shopping is the situation. A language function though it is independent, is often situated in a context, and depending on it, the language use can vary. Let us elaborate this point a little more. Imagine the situations where you bargain – very often in a vegetable market (fish market) and perhaps a store that sells sundry things like items of grocery in small quantity, some small household items. Depending on how important the item you want to buy, the urgency with which you want to have it, and depending on the time of the day when you are bargaining, the language use is likely to vary. (Recall your bargaining with a vegetable vendor in the morning and evening and on prices for different types of vegetables.)

6.5 Question Words

In the previous paragraph, while elaborating a situation, we used terms like: quantity, urgency, time of the day, mood of the person, etc. Along with these, you can add terms like age of the customer, seller, gender etc. These factors also constitute meaning in relation to the situation. Now do a remembering exercise of a different kind. Try and enact buying selling function in a specific situation. You need to find a partner for this who understands the situation. Let this be a purely thinking exercise and not a writing exercise for the present.

In order to participate in this role play, you need to remember the following. Read these lines from a poem written by Kipling:

I KEEP six honest serving-men
 (They taught me all I knew);
Their names are What and Why and When
 And How and Where and Who.
I send them over land and sea,
 I send them east and west;
But after they have worked for me,
 I give them all a rest.

We are sure you are already familiar with this poem. What is its significance? Take a second look, and find out the names of six people who are poet's serving-men? Write down their names below:

Your response:

You got six words as your response – What, Why, When, How, Where and Who. What do these words suggest? They all occur at the beginning of a question, and so they are called question words or 'Wh_' words since all of them begin with these two letters. (In 'how' you still have these two letters, but not in the same order, and hence qualify to be in this group.) These six question words are very important while speaking to someone. What do these words signify? Take a look and in our discussion, we will change the order of words for their priority.

- a. Who:** This word signifies the relationship that exists between the speaker and the listener. The relationship can vary widely from intimate to formal to unknown stranger. Within this, we can also have hierarchy as follows:
- Friends – close old, new, acquaintance etc.
 - Relatives – siblings, parents, in-laws, grandparents, children, elders, youngsters etc.
 - Workplace: teachers, boss, subordinate, helper, colleague, visitor, client etc.
 - Strangers: people we meet on street, fellow travellers on train/bus etc. at the reservation counter, officials in different offices etc.

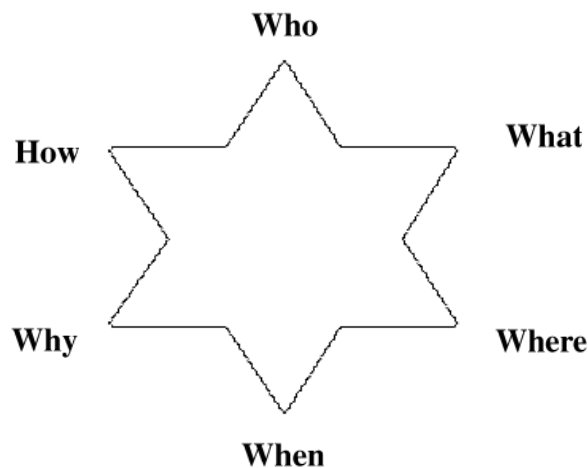
(In speaking to each one of these persons, the language we use varies because of the relationship we have with them.)

- b. What:** This word signifies the topic of discussion. The topic could be serious, light-hearted, casual, personal, gossip etc. Depending on the seriousness of the talk, the language we use gets modified.
- c. Where:** This word signifies the location or place where we talk to each other. You must have realised this as a student or a teacher. A teacher uses a language that is very formal in the class, and as soon as he walks out, if you have a question to ask he responds in a very informal manner. This is true of conversations that happen in the office, at home, on a picnic, while travelling

etc. The language we use is governed by the location where the conversation takes place.

- d. When:** This word signifies the time and duration of the talk. The point of time when you meet and speak to a person is very important. Equally important is the duration – if you can convey something in five minutes how well do you do it and the impact it has on the listener. On the other hand, if you need to convey a longer message which might take half an hour or more, the impact on the listener could be different. To make your message meaningful, you choose language appropriately.
- e. Why:** This word signifies the purpose. We need to speak in order to explain or describe something, convince a person, plead or request a person, or admonish someone. In each of these cases the language we use cannot be the same.
- f. How:** This word signifies the mode of communication. We may not always communicate by speaking face to face. It could be a telephonic talk, a video talk, a broadcast (as in the case of newscasters), or it could be through writing in various forms such as a hand-written letter, email, text message, or an informal note scribbled on a piece of paper. In each of these cases the language we use varies.

These six aspects are closely related to each other and they do not exist in isolation. The following diagram shows how closely they are connected with each other.



This should help you understand the complexity of our speech and how we make a number of adjustments in the language we use depending on various factors. This indicates, we are gradually attempting to relate situation and meaning and we have also referred to variation in language use without providing examples. In the next

part of this unit let us look at some examples and later analyse the language used.

6.6 Contextual Language Analysis

Look at the following situation and the five possible sentences you may get to hear.

At a party, the friends have gathered in a room. The host appears there and needs to ask them to vacate the room and move elsewhere. Here are the expressions and their meaning.

- a. I am afraid this room is needed for something else. Do you mind moving to the first floor please? (Frozen/very formal. The host feels a sense of hesitation in uttering these words. Perhaps, the friends are rather senior people and his relationship with them is not intimate.)
- b. We need this room, and I want you all to move upstairs. (Formal, but not frozen like the previous one. The host knows the people he is talking to fairly well, yet he uses polite expression.)
- c. Hey, you all, move upstairs, we need this place. (Informal. The host is very friendly with the people he addresses)
- d. Up you go, all of you. (Intimate. – the host need not observe any rules of formality, he relates to the people he is talking to very closely.)

(Adopted from Pit Corder)

These relations can be shown by developing different types of dialogues as illustrations. Rather than create dialogues, we will provide you situations and also the meanings with some grammar items that can go into each one of them. That will lead us to discuss one more aspect—gradation in language teaching.

In the illustration provided above, you saw one situation in four different meanings. The meanings are in terms of frozen, formal, informal, and intimate. Between any two of these relations, there could be degrees of variation. You do speak formally to your boss and also to your father. But the degree of formality is different between the two. This is also true of the way in which you talk to your father and mother. With mother you tend to be less formal bordering on intimate. You would have perhaps observed this. Next time when you engage yourself in a conversation with someone, be conscious and make a note of the following: your relationship, the context, time of speaking, place of conversation, reason and the mode. That will help you understand this unit better.

6.7 Concept of Block Grading

Let us also take one more familiar example and help you understand the concept of grading. In the previous unit we looked at the function of buying, selling. Let us analyse this in a little more detail with shopping as the situation in different contexts or meanings.

Meaning 1: A young boy of five years, gets Rs. 20/- as his birthday gift. He is allowed to spend it all by himself. There is a shop in front of his house, the shopkeeper knows him. The boy runs to the shop, places the Rs 20/ note on the counter and shouts (he is excited), “Uncle, biscuits and chocolates”. The uncle helpfully places on the counter some biscuits and chocolates and the boy runs back.

Meaning 2: The same boy grows up and in ten years’ time is studying in the final year of his school. His father gives him Rs 2000/- and asks him to buy a bicycle to cope with his heavy schedule of attending school, tuitions and other chores. The boy is happy, goes to a shop that sells bicycles. Now he has a longer conversation with the shopkeeper (not just uncle, a bicycle seller). He cares to choose a bicycle of his choice with proper saddle, a designer handle, proper pedal covers, a carrier etc. He also bargains on the price and finalises the deal before paying the money.

Meaning 3: The same boy a few years later has completed his education and has found a job for himself. He is getting ready to marry. He goes to a shop to buy his wedding clothes with a larger sum of money. The transaction here is much more complex in terms of choice of colours, design, fabric, size, price and many more factors. And if in this situation, it was a girl and bride to be, the complexity would be more severe.

Meaning 4: The boy is now nearly forty years old. He is well settled and he and his wife plan to buy a house. They go to a builder who has a few houses to sell and the transaction goes on for days before settling the deal.

You can imagine the conversation that takes place in each of the above situations. The grammar involved is not very different in each of these cases. The following items of grammar are necessary but with different degrees of complexity. One needs to be familiar with nouns, their variety (count or uncount), ability to frame questions with ‘do you. .?’ or ‘can I. .?’ responses with yes/no and formulas like ‘here you are’ and some greetings. These vary with each transaction and there is an increase in complexity. As the meaning changes and makes way for more complex expressions, we move to the next level of grading. We call this block grading. We will discuss this in greater detail in your course on curriculum and materials.

Let us now conclude the unit with a quick summary of what we have discussed.

6.8 Summary

We began with a revision of the previous unit where we discussed the relationship between language and life. If life has functions, these functions are performed by language. Then we began with an outline of this unit where we looked at the dictionary definition for the two operational terms ‘situation’ and ‘meaning’. We modified these to suit our purposes and made a list of various situations and how these alter in different contexts. Each context provides a meaning to the situation thus governing the form of language to be used in each case. We looked at some examples. We also became familiar with the six question words and their meanings in the context of our speech and how it is essential for us to observe etiquette in our conversation with others. We finally looked at some explanation that helps us to develop dialogues on our own.

In the next unit we shall look at function and form and while doing so we will help you recall the grammar you have studied earlier.

6.9 Review Questions

- a. What are language functions? (Look at the previous unit)
- b. Are language functions bound by situations?
- c. How do you define a situation?
- d. What is the difference between situation and meaning?
- e. How do you understand the term context?
- f. What are Wh words? Mention all of them
- g. How do the Wh words determine our speech?
- h. How does our speech vary from situation to situation? Illustrate.
- i. What type of language do you use with your mother?
- j. How important are these in social communication?

6.10 Reading list

1. Corder, P. (1973). *Introducing Applied Linguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
2. Deuter, M. et.al. (Eds). (2015) *Oxford Advanced Learners’ Dictionary of Current English*. (Ninth Edition). Oxford. OUP.
3. Kipling, R (1902). *Just So Stories*. Oxford: OUP (for the poem ‘I Keep Six Honest serving-men’)

Unit 7 □ Language Functions as Form

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Objectives

7.3 Language Functions and Language Forms

7.3.1 Some Language Functions

7.3.2 Some Language Forms

7.4 Syllabus

7.4.1 Features of a syllabus

7.5 Language Form and Function in a Structural Syllabus

7.6 Language Form and Function in a Functional Syllabus

7.7 Summary

7.8 Review Questions

7.1 Introduction

In the previous two units we looked at language as an integral part of life performing various functions in different situations. The functions vary according to the context lending meaning to them. We guard ourselves in negotiating these functions by observing rules of etiquette dictated by society or among members of a particular group or profession.

7.2 Objectives

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

- a. See how language functions are closely associated with forms,
- b. Understand the modified structure of a syllabus,
- c. Appreciate the functions as can be derived from a structural syllabus,
- d. Relate the items on a functional syllabus with necessary forms.

7.3 Language Functions and Language Forms

In this unit, we will continue the discussion on language functions in relation to the form. So we need to have an understanding of the term 'form' to begin with and see

how this relates itself to language. While discussing these aspects, we may need to bring in certain aspects of syllabus design to enhance our understanding.

We have provided a tentative list of language functions and forms for you to peruse and add your own items to the list. These lists are put together from reflecting on life and a few sources. These can be modified according to our local contexts. However, the forms largely remain unaltered for they are drawn from authentic sources i.e. grammar books.

7.3.1 Some Language Functions

- Explaining
- Summarising
- Sequencing
- Generalising
- Defending
- Persuading
- Analysing
- Evaluating
- Defining
- Drawing conclusion (cause and effect)
- Interpreting
- Arguing, agreeing with someone
- Hypothesising (predicting)
- Expressing likes and dislikes
- Narrating, retelling
- Enquiring, probing, seeking information

7.3.2 Some Language Forms

- ❖ Nouns in subject, object position e.g. **Ram** (sub) is a *teacher* (obj).
- ❖ Nouns showing agreement with verb, pronouns. e.g. **Ram** (N) *is* (V) a teacher, he(pro) works very hard
- ❖ Adjectives, their order and relevance e.g. six beautiful red roses.
- ❖ Phrases – prepositional phrases e.g. Children playing **in the park**.
- ❖ Verbs and their different forms – tense and aspect e.g. go, went, gone; go, going, gone.
- ❖ Modals e.g. will, shall, can, may.
- ❖ Adverbs e.g. quickly, lazily, etc.
- ❖ Questions – polar and content e.g. Are you a teacher? Who is a teacher?
- ❖ Sentence types e.g. Assertive, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory.
- ❖ Degrees of comparison e.g. good, better, best.
- ❖ Complex sentences e.g. Having practiced well, the child won the prize.

You have had a look at such lists earlier when you were studying in schools. You must have tried to establish a relation between the two. If not take a close look at the two lists and see if there is any relation between the two, and write your response below.

Your response:

The form and function are in fact, closely related to each other. A long time ago, while teaching English, the emphasis was on learning the form in isolation. This was found to be not very helpful, and hence, syllabus framers changed their strategies and introduced new types of syllabuses where forms were taught along with functions. The first approach was called the Structural Approach while the second one is known by several names – The Situational Approach, Notional-Functional Approach, Communicative Approach etc. Names do not matter for us now. We are interested in seen how language functions are realised by using appropriate forms.

7.4 Syllabus

Let us briefly familiarise you with the concept of a syllabus and types of syllabuses we have in ELT. Later, let us look at a small portion of the syllabus to see how closely form and function are related to each other.

All of you are familiar with the term syllabus. You have had syllabus to study as students and as teachers you were conscious of the topics included in the syllabus to help you cope with your work. Given this experience, would you like to define a syllabus. Please write your response here:

Your response:

A syllabus is a document that is produced by a few personnel in the department of education. Many of them are teachers who work under the supervision of an administrator to produce this document. What does this document do? Any guess?

Write your views on what does the syllabus do?

The syllabus as a document provides a checklist to the teacher. It specifies the topics to be taught, the sequence in which the topics need to be taught and also the time it takes to teach each of the topics on the syllabus. What is being said here should give you some idea of whether your views are right or not so. Let us define a syllabus in a broad sense.

A syllabus has topics that need to be taught. Therefore the syllabus becomes a list of topics. But can a list of any topics become a syllabus. Perhaps not. It needs to be further refined.

The list needs to be specific. That is a good development. Specific to what or who? It has to be specific to the course of study and also the level of the learners. Let us understand this with an example. English is taught in almost all the classes in school curriculum. Class VI children have a course in English. Class VII children also have a course in English. Though both classes have a course in English (subject is the same, but levels are not) the two classes have to have two different lists of topics to be taught, in other words, the two syllabuses are different.

Similarly, class VI children study English using syllabus for class VI English. They also learn another language like Bengali (Bangla). Can the syllabus (list of topics) in English be used for teaching Bangla? The answer is 'no'. This shows that syllabus has a specific list of topics according to the course of study or subject being taught. Thus in class VI we have a syllabus to teach English, and other syllabuses to teach Bangla, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, Hindi/Sanskrit and whatever other subject that they may have. This makes the point on the list of teaching items being specific in two different ways.

Now let us replace the word topics with the term 'teaching items'. Now our definition will read as follows: 'A syllabus is a specific list of teaching items for use by the teacher.'

This is reasonably a good working definition of the syllabus. This document which is produced by the authorities or a committee has to take care of certain aspects. We will not look at all aspects (except the contents) in some detail.

7.4.1 Features of a syllabus

A syllabus should begin with a description of the learners for whom the syllabus is meant. While describing the learners the following factors need to be addressed. The age of the learner, the socio-economic background, and the academic background (capability). This is essential entering behaviour.

Secondly, the syllabus should provide a clear statement of objectives or what it proposes to achieve in terms of learners learning output. This will have to be stated very clearly that the learning outcome can be observed, measured by the teacher and demonstrated by the learner.

The third aspect of the syllabus deals with the contents. It clearly delineates the materials that can be used to achieve the objectives stated earlier. (We will discuss this with an example to show the form function interphase.)

The fourth aspect deals with the methodology – it suggests how the materials or the content provided in the third part can be transacted in the class. This section also helps the teacher understand the flexibility in terms of sequencing the teaching items and the time that needs to be spent on teaching each item.

The syllabus concludes with a note on evaluation. This section helps the teacher understand the inherent weaknesses in the syllabus and suggests ways of modifying the syllabus for better utilization with a set of new learners.

Now let us look at sample extract from a structural syllabus and see how this shows the relation that exists between the form and function.

7.5 Language Form and Function in a structural syllabus

Sl No	Item	Illustration	Remarks
6	Simple present (Habitual)	I get up at six in the morning Do you get up at six in the morning? Yes, I do get up at six in the morning. Do you get up at five in the morning? No, I do not get up at five in the morning. What time do you get up in the morning? I get up at six in the morning.	Revise all the action verbs associated with daily habits or routine activities. Provide help with yes/no questions and their answers Familiarise the learners with wh questions and answers as well.

10	Simple past	I went to market yesterday. Where did you go yesterday? I went to market yesterday. Did you go to market yesterday? Yes, I went to market yesterday. Did you go to post office yesterday? No, I did not go to post office yesterday.	Introduce verbs and their past forms. Teach both regular and irregular verbs. Provide illustrations for assertive, negative and interrogative forms.
15	Past continuous	I was going to market when you called me.	

Let us look at the above illustration. This is not an authentic sample, but something construed to illustrate to help you understand the present discussion. This is a typical structural syllabus which is form focussed or deals with explicit grammar. This syllabus can be used in class VIII of a regional medium school.

There are two items illustrated (not two immediate items as is evident from the serial numbers). The items are mentioned in column 2 followed by illustrations in column 3. There are five illustrations and represent three different uses – use in an assertive sentence, an interrogative sentence and a negative sentence. Such illustration is said to be comprehensive. The fourth column helps the teacher understand the related items and some classroom strategies to be adopted. The focus is heavily on form and not on function.

7.6 Language Form and Function in a Functional Syllabus

Let us now modify this to include a function and see how a functional syllabus looks.

Unit	Topic and Functions	Language	Skills	Text types
10 Give Me a Hand	Helping people <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Ask for help ● Make and respond to requests ● Give excuses 	Vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Rural village vocabulary ● Vocabulary of asking for help: <i>lend, help, show, ...</i> ● Phrases with <i>give</i> and <i>hand</i> ● Verbs <i>bring, take</i> and <i>hold</i> Grammar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Verb patterns: <i>give me the brush</i> (verb + noun + noun) ● Subject and object pronouns ● <i>Can</i> for requests Pronunciation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Pronunciation of the letter <i>u</i> ● The sounds: /ʌ/, /ɑ/ and /ɪ/ 	Writing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A description of giving or being given help Speaking <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Conversation about giving people a hand and charities ● Describe important moments when you were helped Conversation strategies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Attracting attention ● Giving reasons when declining Reading <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Extract facts from a news story ● Understand meaning from context ● Recognise and understand reference in a text: <i>This improved ... That help came ...</i> Listening <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Understand the gist of a conversation 	Reading <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● An informative brochure about an aid programme ● A news story Listening <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A dialogue at a station

<https://www.netlanguages.com/blog/index.php/2017/08/28/what-is-functional-language/> (accessed on 27th November 2019)

Before we say something, would you like to take a close look at the two different syllabuses and comment on their similarities and differences? Please write your response below:

Your response:

There are quite a few similarities between the structural syllabus and the functional syllabus. Both syllabuses depend on language structures. The structural syllabus does not explicitly create a context for meaningful use of the structure. The functional syllabus on the other hand provides a lot of context and also includes more than one grammar item supported by vocabulary. It elaborates on different ways in which the

items can be exploited for developing all the four skills.

The topic suggested in the second column is not a grammatical item but a language function. Here the language function is 'Helping People'. In order to do this, we need language. We may need to request someone. So look at the words in column 3 *lend, help, show etc.* Think of sentences with these words e.g. Can you lend me a hand? (This box is too heavy for me to carry.) There are more words and phrases given.

In the same column under grammar certain structures are suggested and these will help us frame appropriate sentences which can be used in conversations as well as in writing. This is followed by some hints on pronunciation.

Column four has a focus on all the skills and tasks; for each skill is specified and the last column suggests the types of reading passages that can be used in the class to help learners grasp the function.

The second syllabus clearly illustrates to you how a language function cannot be performed without learning the structures. However, while teaching the focus should be on the function and by participating in the classroom activity, the learners will use and practice the structures without being aware of it. (This reiterates Prabhu's hypothesis 'meaning is best learnt when the focus is on meaning'. Sem 1, Paper 10, Module 2, Unit 8)

Before we conclude this unit, we would like to make one more point clear. This is in fact a repetition of what we have said earlier. While discussing functions, we cannot restrict ourselves to one item of grammar or one structure. The structures need to be bunched together to perform a function. (For example, while giving directions, you need to be familiar with prepositions largely spatial terms to denote distance, signposting terms, imperatives, caution and warning, some adjectives to qualify places etc.). Structures bunched together in this manner can express themselves at different levels of complexity e.g. giving directions to reach a nearby place, giving directions to travel to a different town, city or country, giving directions to negotiate a difficult terrain such as mountain, river bed or a jungle (as is done in the army) etc. Though the complexity increases, the bunch of structures remain largely the same with some modifications. Such modifications account for grading or selecting tasks suitable to our learners. We cannot ask our students in class IX to give directions to scale an unknown mountain or negotiate a forest to destroy enemy ambush. The increase in complexity and grading is known as block grading in a functional syllabus.

7.7 Summary

We will close this unit here with a quick recapitulation of the points discussed. We looked at the language function in relation to the form. Form has been the traditional

input in language teaching. But form alone cannot help a learner pick up the language unless a context or meaning is provided to the form. This is why we take resort to teaching language using functions without ignoring form. To illustrate this we have looked at two sample pieces of syllabuses and compared them to establish the need for fusing form with function.

In the next unit we will look at an entirely new concept called the discourse. We will introduce this topic and later you will learn more about discourse in your courses on sociolinguistics.

7.8 Review Questions

- a. How are language functions still form based?
- b. What are some of the language functions you are familiar with?
- c. What is the meaning of form?
- d. How useful is learning form helpful in communication?
- e. How do we modify the teaching of form to make it more useful?
- f. What is a syllabus?
- g. How is the term ‘specific’ understood in terms of syllabus?
- h. How many types of syllabuses are you familiar with?
- i. What is the type of syllabus you use in your class?
- j. How is meaning of a structure made clear in a syllabus?

Unit 8 □ Language as Discourse

- 8.1 Introduction**
- 8.2 Objectives**
- 8.3 Discourse and Discourse Analysis**
- 8.4 Language Expressions and Actions**
- 8.5 Speech Acts by Austin**
 - 8.5.1 Speech Acts by Searle**
- 8.6 Features of Narrative Discourse**
 - 8.6.1 Coherence and Cohesion**
- 8.7 Words as Cohesive devices**
 - 8.7.1 Ordinals**
 - 8.7.2 Prepositions**
 - 8.7.3 Conjunctions**
 - 8.7.4 Pronouns**
 - 8.7.5 Adverbs**
- 8.8 Summary**
- 8.9 Review Questions**
- 8.10 Reading List**

8.1 Introduction

This is the last unit of this module and discusses a different aspect of language function which is popularly called discourse. To understand this we need a little bit of background knowledge. You are familiar with language analysis. We have already introduced you to subjects like phonology, morphology and syntax. Phonology deals with analysis of language in terms of its speech sounds. The minimal unit of analysis here is a phoneme, which is defined as the minimal distinctive unit of speech. In morphology, we look at morphemes as minimal units of analysis. A morpheme is a syllable or a group of syllables that carry meaning. For example, a word like management, has two morphemes – ‘manage’ and ‘ment’. These are classified as independent morpheme (manage) and bound morpheme (ment). A bound morpheme needs the help of another morpheme to express itself. In syntax, the minimal unit of analysis is a clause (sentence). This has a definite structure which cannot be normally violated. But language often has units larger than clauses or sentences. In our daily

life, we do not usually speak in isolated sentences. Most of these have a context and are in the form of a response or addition to what is already said or exists. So we have longer units for analysis in the form of conversations, speeches and written texts (passages) which need to be analysed using a different system. Such system of analysis is called Discourse.

8.2 Objectives

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

- a. term discourse,
- b. nature of speech acts,
- c. terms coherence and cohesion,
- d. use of cohesive devices,

8.3 Discourse and Discourse Analysis

Let us begin with a definition of discourse and then look at the entire aspect historically which provides us with the essential background knowledge. Discourse analysis can be defined in simple terms as analysis beyond sentence level. This definition is certainly not adequate. So let us look at what discourse analysis does in some detail with a few examples. This will perhaps help us get an idea of this topic.

The field that studies discourse is called ‘discourse analysis’. This is a relatively new field and discusses how while using language either in spoken or written form is guarded by a few social and linguistic factors. Since this involves broader analysis, the unit of analysis is a longer text such as passages (referred to as texts) or conversations and speeches. The context in which the language is used forms an important part of the analysis. Let us look at a few examples:

Look at the following conversation which has just one turn:

A: Hi. What’s wrong? No television.

B: Match washed out, heavy rains.

Having gone through this, answer the following questions:

- a. What do you think is the relationship between A and B?
- b. What is the emotion expressed by A? (Anger, disappointment, surprise, annoyance, etc.)
- c. Give reasons for your choice of answer to question ‘b’.
- d. If B’s response was not preceded by A’s question, how would you understand it?

- e. What mood is B in? (disappointed, bored, annoyed, etc.)
- f. Give reasons for your choice of answer to question 'e'.

Write your responses here:

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

f.

It is not difficult to answer these questions. Besides, there are no definite or single answers to these questions. Your answer depends on your understanding of the conversation in terms of your understanding of the culture as well as the context. You may be able to justify your answer accordingly. When you come across a text, and you start analysing it from aspects as mentioned here, you are involved in discourse analysis. This is just one example and such analysis can become more complex.

8.4 Language expressions and actions

Now let us look at a bit of history. About seventy years ago, in 60s of the last century, two language philosophers Austin and Searle looked at the language as a performative entity. Austin wrote a book *How to do things with Words?* What was the premise that motivated Austin to write this book? Look at the following sentences:

- a. I declare you man and wife. (A priest in a church wedding)
- b. I name this ship Queen Elizabeth. (Launching a ship)
- c. Your time starts now. (A quiz master)
- d. Ready, steady, go. (A referee in athletics)
- e. I declare the session closed. (Chairperson in a meeting)

These sentences are utterances by different people, and the context is provided in the brackets. We would like you to take a second look at these sentences once again. Do they remain just sentences or do they perform an action. When the priest says ‘I declare you man and wife’, from the moment, the two young people get united in a holy wedlock. They are no longer single. The utterance enacts the beginning of a married life for the couple. Similarly, a vessel without a name acquires an identity as the Queen Elizabeth. Rest of the sentences also indicate the beginning or the end of an action. These are but a few examples, and there could be many more similar sentences. Austin and Searle were interested in such expressions.

8.5 Speech Acts by Austin

Austin used three different labels to identify such utterances – locution, illocution and perlocution. What do these three labels mean? Let us take a look.

- a. Locution: Locution comes from the root word ‘Loque’ (Latin) which means to speak. Locution or locutionary act refers to the actual words spoken by the speaker. These are understood without any context or they mean what each word in the utterance denotes. In this act, the listener does not attach much importance to what the speaker has been saying.
- b. Illocutionary act: When a speaker adds emphasis to what he says by using certain words like – request, ask, order, command, etc. the utterance acquires some force. This is understood as illocution. Such sentences can warn people, criticize or appreciate them, or assure them of something or express regret. Let us look at an example for each one of these.
 - i. **Don’t go there**, there is a snake hiding under the bag.(caution)
 - ii. I want you to **finish the work** by this evening. (order)
 - iii. I thought **your work would be more tidy!** (comment)
 - iv. I **like** what you have written. (appreciation)
 - v. I **promise** to meet you tomorrow in the morning. (commitment)
 - vi. I am **sorry**, I forgot to get your book. (apology)
- c. Perlocutionary act: This refers to the listeners’ response to the illocutionary act of the speaker. This depends on how the listener understands the words of the speaker and expresses it either verbally or non-verbally. For example look at sentence ‘iv’ above. It is an appreciation of somebody’s work. The listener obviously should be pleased to have this remark and express happiness with a smile or a ‘thank you’. However, caution needs to be observed in that there may be lack of consonance between illocutionary act and the perlocutionary act.

Let us take one utterance and see what its import is in all three acts.

A is visiting B in his house and the two are casually chatting. A tells B “I am thirsty”.

Locutionary: B does not react. He simply hears what A said.

Illocutionary: Understands it as a request, but does not budge.

Perlocutionary: B does not say anything, but gets up and goes to the kitchen to fetch a glass of water.

8.5.1 Speech Acts by Searle

The three aspects provided by Austin in 1962, were further refined by Searle and categorised into five classes of speech acts. These are: Representative, Directive, Commissive, Expressive and Declarative. Let us look at the definitions of each one of these and also illustrate them to help us in our understanding of the concepts.

1. Representative: This is also known as Assertive. Utterances pertaining to making a promise, expressing a belief, or concluding a talk. It could also extend to reporting events and denying something. Following examples illustrate Representative acts.

- a. I am told you are on the lookout for a new house.
- b. Finally, the deal is fixed, and we may now sign the document.
- c. The Prime Minister came on the television to declare the lockout.
- d. There is no truth in the statement that India is a poor country.

2. Directives: This is an act where the speaker largely uses a set of imperatives suggesting to the listener to act accordingly. The utterances could be in the form of requests, commands, insistence, plead, or even implore. Here are some illustrations to make the point clear.

- a. Could I ask you to type this letter for me?
- b. I would like you to finish this work before the end of the day.
- c. You better do it now.
- d. This is urgent, and you should understand and start working right away.
- e. Please, I need this to make my presentation, why don't you help me.

3. Commissive: These utterances suggest that the speaker is committed or decided to act in a particular manner. The speaker may swear or promise to do something or express his intention.

- a. The Government promises to provide shelter to all the people.
- b. The policeman swore to arrest the thief before the sun set.
- c. The president expressed his wish to visit all parts of the country to personally

inspect the progress made.

4. Expressive: The speaker expresses his feelings about something. This could relate to happiness, sorrow, pain, pleasure, likes dislikes, etc. Here are a few illustrations

- a. I am delighted to see such a beautiful garden.
- b. I am sorry to hear about your bereavement.
- c. I like these cakes very much. They are delicious.
- d. I am happy that you graduated. My heartiest congratulations.
- e. Thank you for the lovely message you sent on my birthday.
- f. Ouch, I sprained my ankle while getting off the stairs.
- g. I completely forgot to visit you last evening. My apologies.

5. Declarative: The speaker brings about a change in the status of something or somebody by uttering these expressions. These are the real performatives and here are a few illustrations.

- a. I declare the conference open.
- b. I name the baby Anand.
- c. I declare the man dead.
- d. You are dismissed.

This has become a long piece of writing without giving you a chance to interact with us. Now is the time for some questions. If you are doing a discourse analysis of this piece of writing, what functions would you assign such writing?

Your response:

Here is a small task. You have looked at three Speech Acts and a little later the same reorganised as five speech acts. Each of these has been illustrated by us. Take a close look at each one of these, and provide at least one additional illustration for each of the categories.

- i. Locutions:
- ii. Illocution:
- iii. Perlocution:
- iv. Representative:
- v. Directive:

- vi. Commissive:
- vii. Expressive:
- viii. Declarative:

Now let us look at the further uses of discourse analysis. We have begun this unit with a statement that discourse is beyond a sentence. Therefore, discourse analysis takes into account some continuous text which is either spoken or written. What are some of the features of such texts?

8.6 Features of Narrative Discourse

Think of what we can call narrative discourse. You are familiar with stories which can either be narrated or written. When we narrate, we use some supplementary techniques like, voice modulation, acting, gestures, etc. and we do this especially when we are narrating a story to young audience. While writing some of these aspects may be lost, but can be captured using illustrations. Both oral and written texts have some common features. Let us call the first feature **Unity**. We shall try and understand what unity means in the following section.

Unity is a simple word and all of you know its meaning. The word suggests coming together and staying together. We are now discussing language texts. These texts are made of sentences, and discourse makes sure that these sentences are held together using some mechanism. What is this mechanism? We will introduce two words and show how this unity can be achieved in our language texts.

8.6.1 Coherence and Cohesion

The first word is ‘coherence’ and the second ‘cohesion’. Have you come across these words? Do you know their meaning? Look up a dictionary and write their meanings in the space given below:

Your response:

Coherence:

Cohesion:

Did the dictionary meaning help you understand the qualities suggested by these two words. Let us try and understand the two terms by looking at some examples.

Coherence in simple words can be said to be a feature of good writing that makes it easy to read. The author should take care to introduce the topic properly at the

beginning. This introduction should help the reader anticipate what is to follow. Subsequently, the author should develop each of the points in a logical manner. Adequate examples or illustrations should be provided to help the reader understand each concept. Finally, the author should summarise the points so that the reader has a clear idea about what is read.

I am sure you have experienced this while reading some books. Some books are easy to read, and you feel you can understand them easily. They exhibit good qualities of coherence. There are some books which appear to be difficult to read. We are sure you have read both types of books in your life. Next time you read a book, try and see what qualities make it easy for you to read it.

Now let us look at the word ‘cohesion’. Coherence works at the level of a paragraph while cohesion works at the level of a sentence. A sentence (or an utterance in case of speaking) is made of words. These words need to follow a certain order which is governed by rules of grammar and logic. Take a look at these sentences and try and figure out what is incorrect:

- a. She is a tall boy. (Very easy for you)
- b. We bought this bicycle a new tyre. (What did you buy – bicycle or the tyre)
- c. The girl in the car needs water. (Who needs water, the girl or the car)
- d. Here is the pen that writes well and was presented to me on my birthday. (What is more important – the quality of writing or presentation or the occasion when it was presented.)

We can go on constructing more sentences like this. (You may look up some books in modern grammar for more examples.)

Both Coherence and Cohesion bring about a unity in our writing, but they do so at different levels. The term unity is defined by different people in different ways. The one I like most is from George Bernard Shaw and here it is for you:

Say what you want to say.

SAY

Say what you said.

This captures the sense of unity or these three phrases can be translated as introduction, development and conclusion.

Unity or coherence and cohesion are achieved by using what are called cohesive devices. These are simple words that can glue two words, sentences (ideas) and even paragraphs. Let us see what these cohesive devices are and conclude the unit.

8.7 Words as Cohesive devices

There are five categories of words that can work as cohesive devices. These are:

- i. Ordinals
- ii. Prepositions
- iii. Conjunctions
- iv. Pronouns
- v. Adverbs

Let us look at them with some examples.

8.7.1 Ordinals are words that suggest the order in which the events occur. You must have come across words like *firstly*, *secondly*, *finally*, *at last*, *next*, *lastly*, *in conclusion* etc. These words suggest a sequence of events. Here is how you can describe making tea.

First take a glass of water. Pour it into a vessel and put it on the stove to heat. As it is getting hot, add a spoon of tea leaves. Allow it to boil.

Then remove the vessel from the stove, and cover it. Leave it aside for awhile to brew.

Next, take a cup and strain the hot liquid into the cup using a strainer.

Finally, add a little hot milk and a spoon of sugar.

Sip your tea and enjoy it.

In describing how to make tea, five steps are used. You could use terms like *firstly*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, *fourthly* and *fifthly*. Alternately, you can use terms like *then*, *next*, *finally*, etc. to make the passage read a little better.

You could now describe a process using ordinals. Describe how to use the ATM to withdraw money.

Your response:

8.7.2 Prepositions

There are two types of prepositions – the spatial and temporal. Spatial prepositions refer to showing relationship across space while temporal prepositions establish relationship across time. Look at this example:

I will meet you at the theatre at six o'clock.

In this sentence, 'at' is used as spatial first and later as temporal. These prepositions bring about a sense of unity in the sentence. It will connect the two major nouns 'I' and 'you'. It also joins other nouns 'theatre' and time 'six o'clock'. Further, the two sets of nouns mentioned earlier also get connected because of these prepositions. Such bringing together of words to provide meaning is called cohesion.

Choose a short passage from a story, or your notes and mark all the prepositions. See how they bring about a unity of thought or meaning in the sentences.

Your response:

8.7.3 Conjunctions

It is the tacit function of conjunctions to bring about a unity between two words or phrases that belong to the same clause. You are aware of this. There are a few conjunctions that can bring about a unity between paragraphs. Here are a few conjunctions – although, because, whenever, wherever, in order to, no sooner, as much as, etc. The examples cited are either subordinating conjunctions (such as after, although, as, because, if, that, etc.) or correlative conjunctions (neither ... nor, both...and, not only) . You can look up some passages and see how these conjunctions bring about a unity in the passage.

8.7.4 Pronouns

These are very important words in English. They replace a noun and make a passage more readable by making it less monotonous. Look at the following Pronouns and see how they work in a passage. *It, that, those, he, she, etc.*

8.7.5 Adverbs

Adverbs like *however, therefore*, do the same job as prepositions and conjunctions described above.

We have not exhausted the list of words you can use in any of the categories cited above. There are other cohesive devices that bring about unity in a paragraph. We may discuss this later in a different course on sociolinguistics. Before we conclude let us summarise the unit quickly.

8.8 Summary

We began with a discussion of the term ‘discourse’. We did not offer any definition of the term, but we explained it using a variety of examples. Subsequently, we moved to look at speech acts as discussed by two language philosophers Austin and Searle. For each of the speech acts we also looked at some illustrations. Finally, we looked at two terms called coherence and cohesion. We discussed some aspects of these two terms in connected speech as well as written texts. We also mentioned how cohesive devices are responsible in bringing about coherence in thought and expression.

8.9 Review Questions

- a. What is the basic unit of analysis in grammar?
- b. How important is discourse in using language appropriately?
- c. Is a sentence (clause/utterance) a unit for discourse analysis?
- d. What do we mean by speech acts?
- e. Give examples of the speech acts as mentioned by Austin?
- f. What changes did Searle make to Austin’s classification?
- g. What do you understand by the terms cohesion and coherence?
- h. What are cohesive devices?
- i. Give examples of how a pronoun can be a cohesive device.
- j. What happens to a text without cohesion?

8.10 References

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MODULE - 3 : TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS

Unit 9 □ Presentation Skills: Introduction, Types, Essential Principles

- 9.1 Introduction**
- 9.2 Objectives**
- 9.3 Speaking in English**
- 9.4 Presentation Skills**
- 9.5 Types of Presentations**
- 9.6 The Three P's of an Oral Presentation**
 - 9.6.1 Planning**
 - 9.6.2 Preparation**
 - 9.6.3 Preparing Slides**
- 9.7 Summary**
- 9.8 Review Questions**
- 9.9 Reading List**

9.1 Introduction

Most of our waking time is spent in interacting or communicating with others around us. Communication can be through writing and through speaking. Research studies tell us that we use speaking skills to communicate with others more than through writing. In this unit you will learn what is meant by 'Presentation Skills' and in what ways does it help you in communicating with people effectively and the various situations you need to make presentations. You will also learn features of an effective presentation and the do's and don'ts you have to take care of while making a presentation. The entire Module is presented in two parts: making short and long presentations. Then there are two units on how to teach speaking skills.

9.2 Objectives

After reading the unit you will be able to

- a) Understand what is meant by 'presentation,'
- b) Learn on Presentation Skills,
- c) Develop communication skills.

9.3 Speaking in English

You have already learnt in Paper 3 what is meant by phonetics, phonology, how important stress and intonation are in speaking English, how to develop speaking skills and how to remedy some speech problems. You have also learnt language functions, language form and meaning as well as what is meant by discourse. In this module we will proceed further and understand the nuances of presentation skills and how to teach speaking skills. But before that, answer these two questions:

1. Why do you think stress and intonation are important when we speak English?
(Clue: think of the features of a speech and how do these two aspects help attain clarity)

Your answer:

2. What do you understand by language function and how is it different from form?
(Clue: think of grammar and use of language)

Your answer:

What is discourse?

(Clue: go to unit 2 and read the features of a discourse)

Your answer:

[Correct answers for the questions :

1. *Language is for communicating with others. When we speak to people in English it should be clear. Stress and intonation lend clarity when we speak in English.*
2. *Grammar gives the rules of the structure of the language. It is important to know the rules to construct sentences correctly. Language function refers to what we do with language as they engage with content when we interact with others.*

3. *Discourse is any unit of connected speech or writing longer than a sentence.]*

94 Presentation Skills

Let us first take up Presentation skills. Let us understand what is meant by presentation. If we understand language as communication, we should also know the different situations in which we communicate with each other. Basically there are four contexts in which we communicate:

- i. One-to-one communication where we are engaged in conversation. Debates take place in formal contexts where there are two parties or two individuals.
- ii. Many-to-one communication which is in the context of interviews. Here a group of people ask questions to one person and get the responses.
- iii. Many-to-many in the context of a meeting and also group discussions where a group is engaged in discussing a topic or problem.
- iv. One-to-many in the context of presentation. The context is one person addressing a group of people.

Each context and the way communication takes place have their own features and principles. Each of these contexts needs specific skills. In each case one has to be a good listener as well as an engaging speaker. Some people are called ‘good conversationalists’ while some are called good debaters. Yet some others take part in discussions very efficiently. Public speaking and presentation is done in the context in which one person speaks to a group of people. This means, you have to keep a group of people pay attention to you for a specific time. Now, reflect on your abilities and decide in which contexts are you best at.

Question: What are the different modes of communication?

Your answer:

Let us focus on the presentation skills. Since this is a context in which you have to keep a group of people or an audience engaged for a while you have more responsibility as the speaker to communicate your ideas clearly. As the rule goes, the onus of making the listener understand depends on the speaker. Does that make you feel a little nervous? In fact, many people feel uncomfortable speaking to an audience. But actually there is no need to be so if you keep a few points in mind. In this unit we will discuss these points which are common for short presentations as well as longer presentations.

9.5 Types of Presentations

Let us now understand what we mean by Presentation.

Presentation is the art of packaging an idea and effectively, delivering it to an audience to achieve an objective. In professional and business world effective presentation is important, because an idea, however brilliant it may be, may not be accepted if it is not ‘presented’ effectively. Learning presentation skills is therefore very essential in our professional career.

We make presentations on various occasions. Presentations can mainly be classified as formal and informal. Depending on its nature, we can say whether it is public or closed door presentation. Again, the type of audience determines whether it is a presentation for experts or for laymen, whether it is to introduce or update knowledge of the audience. The subject also can determine the type of presentation, whether it is a Project proposal, or reporting the progress, or about the completion of the project.

Oral presentation involves essentially three factors:

- i. The presenter,
- ii. The medium/ materials,
- iii. The target audience.

9.6 The Three ‘P’s’ of an Oral Presentation

In the first place when you make an oral presentation you have to remember the three P’s. *Plan, Prepare, and Present*, in that order. When you plan and prepare for a presentation you must ask yourself the following questions. These questions will give you a clear concept of the three aspects of presentation mentioned earlier.

9.6.1 Planning

It is said that a well-planned job is as good as the job half done. Planning and preparation for the presentation will give you confidence that you can perform well. While planning you should keep in mind the 6Ws:

Who – the audience, their profile.

What – the subject you are dealing with.

Where – is it a formal occasion or an informal one; whether it is a public place or a closed door meeting?

When and how much time – is it an after-dinner speech, are you one of the speakers, and if so when is your turn and who are the other speakers and how much time do you have to make the presentation?

Why – what is the purpose? Is it to motivate the audience, or to give new information, or to update their knowledge?

How – the most important point is how to convey the message to the audience. These days, we can add one more dimension – is it face to face or online mode of presentation.

For planning a presentation it is essential that you know the topic well in advance, the target audience for who the presentation will be delivered, and the time at your disposal. Depending on these factors, you can plan the limitations of the points you can deal with. Then, you should decide how much time it would take to collect the materials and where and how the materials can be gathered. You can plan a time frame for preparation at this stage.

9.6.2 Preparation

Thorough preparation is a guaranteed way to produce a good presentation. Very experienced and senior professionals may give the most appalling presentations because of lack of preparation, while a junior and less experienced executive who is honest and worked hard to prepare well might give a brilliant performance. If you are well prepared for the presentation you may say that you have won half the battle.

Now, how do you prepare for the presentation? Keep the following points in mind when you prepare for a presentation.

- Once the topic and the time given to you are understood, if the subject needs some reading, then, get the books and journals that are relevant. Make notes while you read.
- Take down quotations within quotation marks; cite names, illustrations and references. If you are using someone else's materials, acknowledge the source.
- Sequence the points. Wherever necessary add illustrations and examples. Prepare audio visual materials to support your presentation. Even if you are planning a simple chalk and board presentation, work carefully.
- You may like to refer to your notes when you are presenting. Write down only the points in large letters on 3x 5 inch cards. Indicate the places where you want to show the audio visuals. Do not overcrowd the cards. Number the cards as per the sequence of points and stack them in order so that you may refer to them when making the presentation.
- Make sure of the infrastructure, equipment and power connection at the place of presentation.

These days it has become very common to make presentations using the power point slides. A Power Point slide is a visual support to oral presentation. It helps you to remember all the points as well as helps the audience understand the presentation better. You prepare the slides to support your presentation. Therefore it is important

to carefully prepare the slides.

Now, try and answer the following questions to check if you have understood what you have read so far.

Question 1: What are the three essential factors in making presentations?

Question 2: What are the six points the presenter has to keep in mind and why?

9.6.3 Preparing slides

In the first place write down the presentation. Then take the main points to prepare the slides. The first slide could show the title and the points you are going to deal with as an introduction. Each slide should deal with one thought or concept or idea. Remember they are points. So don't write sentences. Make them into bullet points. Keep them simple. Don't clutter the slides with too many points. Each slide should have only four or five bullet points. It is better to use short bulleted phrases. As far as possible avoid punctuations.

Now let us look at how the layout of the slides should be. In the first place, you must take care of the font size. Choose a size which is visible to the audience in the last row. Normally for an audience comprising fifty people for the title, the font size 38 to 44 is used and nothing smaller than 28 for the text. Choose the background and colour of the letters carefully. Choose two or at the most three colours. Avoid yellow as it is not very much visible. Red is too harsh to the eye. Contrast the template and the font colours.

While preparing you may choose animation so that one point appears at a time. Choose simple animation. Normally in academic presentations we don't use sound effects. Use pictures, cartoons, graphs and maps wherever relevant. Once the slides are prepared, go through them, check the facts, and edit the content, spelling and lay out. Pay attention to spelling and grammar errors on your slides as they look very glaring once the slides are projected and create a poor impression on the audience.

A very important point you should remember is that you should decide on the number of slides depending on the time given for your presentation. If the presentation is short don't use too many slides.

After you plan and prepare the materials for your presentation, run through the entire material once.

9.7 Summary

In this unit you have learnt what is meant by presentation skills, the various contexts in which you make presentations, types of presentations, the factors involved in making presentations and planning and preparing, the two stages involved in making presentations.

Once you plan and prepare your presentation, you are ready to make the actual presentation to the audience. You will read about it in the next unit.

9.8 Review Questions

1. What do we mean by a good presentation?
2. How many types of presentations are discussed here?
3. Is there a difference between presenting, and communicating?
4. What are some of the important features to keep in mind while presenting?
5. How important is planning a presentation?
6. What are the six important aspects of planning?
7. What are the responsibilities of a presenter?
8. What does preparation involve?
9. How has technology made presentations easier?
10. What are some of the features of a slide used for presentation?
11. Prepare two slides about what you have read on 'preparing slides'. Remember to use bullet points only.

9.8 Reading List

Mohanraj, J. et.al. (2012). *Speak Well*. Hyderabad: Orient BlackSwan (ISBN 978 81 250 4665 3)

Unit 10 □ Presentation Skills: Short speeches (JAM), Longer discourse, Components, Do's and Don'ts

- 10.1 Introduction**
- 10.2 Objectives**
- 10.3 Structure of a presentation**
- 10.4 Short Presentation (JAM)**
- 10.5 Factors in Making Presentations**
 - 10.5.1 The Content**
 - 10.5.2 The Manner**
 - 10.5.3 The Personality of the Presenter**
- 10.6 Summary**
- 10.7 Review Questions**
- 10.8 Reading List**

10.1 Introduction

In the previous unit you have learnt that we make presentations in various contexts. In fact, we make many informal presentations in our professions as well as in the world outside our institution or place of work. For example, when guiding a new colleague through the basic office procedures, reporting some investigation in a departmental meeting, giving an overview of a new product to the board members, presenting yourself when you are asked in an interview to talk about yourself, are occasions you make formal presentations. If you look at each of them carefully, you will realize that the approach in each presentation is different. In all these contexts we are communicating and make an effort to communicate effectively. In the interview context when you present yourself you have to think of the most important skill you have relevant to the job to talk about. When selling a product you don't talk about the price first but about the benefits the product will give to the client in a particular field. Similarly, in academic contexts like presenting a project report your focus will be different.

10.2 Objectives

After going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

- a. Appreciate the various occasions when one needs to make a presentation.
- b. Differentiate between a formal and an informal presentation.
- c. Plan and deliver a good presentation suitable to the context.

10.3 Structure of a Presentation

When it comes to personal life too we make presentations. For example, when the son wants to buy a higher grade mobile phone which is expensive, he has to tell the parent why he needs it and what the advantages are etc. to justify the cost. When the parents ask the children to do a particular chore they need to explain to their children and they need to present the matter in a convincing way. You must have realized by now that whatever we have discussed so far about making a presentation corroborates with the questions we said we should ask in the section on Preparation. (Recall the six questions that we have highlighted in the previous unit.) Once we are sure of the target audience, the purpose of our talk and have a grip over the subject, we can be confident of our presentation.

Whatever be the subject and context of the presentation it should be done in a systematic manner. You have to structure your presentation carefully. As said earlier, in the context of presentation there are three main factors – the presenter, the audience and the subject. The onus of making the subject interesting and easy to understand for the audience lies with the presenter. So you can see how huge a responsibility lies on the shoulders of the presenter. However, it is a skill you can achieve if you work towards it.

10.4 Short Presentation (JAM)

Before we proceed further, we should understand that sometimes we make short presentations, for example, JAM or ‘Just A Minute’ speeches in the academic contexts or in the context of some recruitment procedures. While everything else remains the same whether it is a long or short presentation, in case of planning and preparation we have to be more careful in the case of short presentations. Someone has said, ‘if you want me to speak for one minute-allow me two weeks to prepare, if it is for half-an-hour give me a week; if it is for an hour, ask me and I can do it now.’ What he meant was that if it is a limited time given for presentation the presenter has to make

careful consideration of how to begin, how many points to deal with and the right sequence of the points and also the conclusion to make the entire speech effective.

10.5 Factors in Making Presentations

Making presentations involves three factors:

- i. the contents,
- ii. the manner,
- iii. the personality (of the presenter).

10.5.1 The content

Earlier we said that while preparing we should pay attention to the subject and should think of what we are going to present. So, when we are making the actual presentation also we should be alert and focus on the contents. The contents should be relevant and adequate points have to be dealt with within the given time. Do not try to cram your presentation with too many points if the time given is short. Deal with only the essential points in such cases. *How much* of the content depends on *how much time* is given. The presentation should be well structured. It should have a beginning, a logical development of points, and an effective conclusion or summing up. This is very well expressed by someone who said, ‘when making a presentation you tell the audience what you are going to tell them, then tell them, and finally tell them what you have told them and why.’

Secondly, remember to break the subjects into smaller chunks so that it is easier for the audience to absorb the subject in small doses.

Choose the illustrations and examples appropriate to the topic and also level of the audience.

10.5.2 The manner of presentation

Whatever is the subject/topic of presentation, however heavy and technical the topic is, some people make it very interesting and easy for the audience to understand. It is important *how* you present the topic. Let us discuss how to make a presentation effective.

We already said that the presentation should have an ‘introduction’. Now let us see what your introduction should be like. In the first place remember that your introduction should catch the attention of the audience. There are several effective ways in which you may introduce a topic. You can begin the talk with a famous quotation. Choose

a quotation relevant to the topic. Choose to quote someone who has credibility with your audience. If the audience is of scientific temperament take a quotation from a scientist, if it is a general talk and you want to present some general truth you may choose to say ‘Once Mahatma Gandhi said....’, or ‘Once Winston Churchill said.....’, or ‘Dr. Abdul Kalam always said....’ and so on. Another way of catching the attention of the audience is to start your talk with humour. Wit and humour puts the audience in a relaxed mood and they become receptive to the talk. A witty presenter is anytime a favourite of the audience. A third way of introducing a topic is to ask a question. Asking a question is a good way of letting the audience know what you want to communicate with them. It makes them instinctively get *involved* in what you are going to say. It is better to ask a question which does not make them think very hard and also structure the question in a way that they can answer with a ‘yes/no’. Yet another effective way of beginning the talk is showing the audience an interesting picture relevant to your topic. This will *prepare* them to receive your talk. For example, if your topic is on communication skills you may show them a picture with people in conversation. Then you could ask them a couple of questions on what they *think* the people are talking about.

Let us have another example. There is a picture or a cartoon of a group of people just rolling over each other with laughter and then the next one is a person entering the room and one of them tells the new entrant ‘Oh we were just talking about you’. Let the audience have a look at the picture and then ask them a series of two or three questions about the picture. You must have noticed that in this example you are combining two strategies of introducing the topic; that of showing a picture and asking questions. Actually you have combined a third aspect of humour because you are using a cartoon.

The next aspect of the content is ‘development of the points’. In the section on Preparation we have learnt that the points we want to convey need to be developed logically. We should remember that the points should be arranged sequentially and in a logical manner. Now, what is sequence and logic? It means the points need to be arranged in such a way that one point should ‘lead’ to the next. They should in no way be presented in a ‘disjointed’ way. This takes away the effectiveness of the presentation even if all the points you are making are very important. You should also know that some points need more elaboration than some others. So, do not devote too much time on points which need no elaboration and ‘gloss over’ more important ones.

The third aspect of the content is the conclusion. We normally ‘wrap up’ our presentation with a conclusion. The conclusion should actually be a summary of the presentation. It should give the audience a comprehensive view of the entire

presentation. So, even if they forget a couple of points during the course of the presentation the conclusion may act as a recapitulation of those points. This is all the more important in a long presentation. In case of short presentations, it is enough to mention the few points you have made in a sentence or two.

While *what* we are presenting is an important aspect, *how* we convey the subject is all the more important. The manner in which we make our presentation either sustains or mars the interest of the audience. What you say in the introduction should establish a rapport with the audience. As said earlier, begin your presentation well to attract the attention of the audience. The attention span of the audience is just about 20 minutes. So you have to use strategies to sustain their attention for longer periods if your presentation is not brief. A long talk can be monotonous. Therefore you may make it interactive. You may also ask them a question intermittently. But remember to frame the question in such a way that they do not feel that you are testing their comprehension but getting a feedback from them. If it is a long presentation, use a combination of strategies using audio, visuals and also varying your tone.

In the first place, remember that your voice should reach the last person among the audience. Modulate your voice according to the size of the audience. What does this mean? This means if the size of the audience is large speak louder. If you are provided with a microphone, don't shout into the microphone. Similarly, if the audience size is small and you do not need to speak into a microphone, avoid it. Another important factor you should remember is to use a language appropriate to the level of the audience. For example, if it is a technical subject and the audience is well versed with the technical field you can use the technical jargon. But if you are explaining a technical subject to laymen it is best to avoid jargon and put the information in as simple a language as possible. As far as possible, use short and simple sentences. Remember the acronym KISS (Keep It Short and Simple) when constructing sentences.

The nature of the visual aids and the manner in which you use them assume a lot of importance in making presentations. Integrate the aid with the matter you are presenting orally when you reach the point. Make sure that everyone in the audience is able to see clearly what is projected. Do not stand between the screen and audience and create a shadow play. Use a pointer or cursor when you want to draw their attention to a specific point. Talk to the audience and do not read from the screen. If you are using a chalkboard, write down quickly and legibly on the board. Do not speak to the audience turning to the chalkboard.

10.5.3 The personality of the presenter

We have said earlier that the onus of presentation lies on the presenter. Hence the personality of the presenter assumes a lot of significance. We should understand that

in a face-to-face situation the general bearing of the presenter, i.e., the facial expression, gestures, the voice, the dress and the appearance help in effective communication. So keep the following points in mind while making a presentation.

In the first place, relax before presentation. It is but natural for the beginners and inexperienced to feel nervous when speaking to an audience. Even if you are well prepared, a little bit of nervousness is natural. So take a deep breath and walk with confidence to the podium of stage in front of the audience.

Remember to have a good look at the audience before you begin. Adopt a posture which looks relaxed and friendly. Give them a smile. A smile certainly wins over people. A smile lights up a smile in those you are looking at and will in turn give you confidence.

Eye contact establishes a rapport with the audience. It is important then, that you maintain eye contact with the whole of your audience during your presentation. A key element that ensures a dynamic eye contact is the 'aura effect'. This means, when you are actually looking at one friendly face in the middle of the audience at least three people behind the person would think you are looking at them. If you are looking at a person in the last row at least four-five people sitting in the audience would believe you are looking at them. This is because the field of your vision appears to 'fan out' as it gets farther away, extending to the sides, in front of or behind the person you are actually looking at. You need not look at everybody nor do you need to keep your gaze on a person for too long. But remember to keep eye contact with people sitting at different places in the audience to give them a feeling of 'inclusiveness'. It also gets you feedback from the audience. You will know whether they are 'with' you or are distracted.

As said earlier, the voice quality is important. Your voice should be modulated depending on the size of the audience. It should be clear enough to reach all the members of the audience. Vary the pitch to avoid monotonous tone. Secondly, pronounce the words clearly. If you are not sure of the pronunciation of any word, refer to the dictionary and learn the correct pronunciation. Another factor you should remember is to maintain pauses at appropriate places. Do not hurry through your presentation. Fluency does not mean speaking rapidly, but keeping to normal speed and maintaining pauses for comfortable listening.

Keep your note cards with you. They should be numbered and kept in right sequence so that you don't get confused. Refer to your notes if you forget a point. But do not read from the notes.

At the end of your presentations invite questions. Listen to the questions carefully, understand them properly and give an answer sincerely. Do not dismiss any question even if it is a trivial one. If you do not know the answer, admit it.

Above all, the attitude of the presenter is of great importance. Have a positive attitude towards your audience and respect their intelligence. You should be flexible enough to change your approach if they do not feel involved. This is essential to sustain the interest of the audience in your presentation.

10.6 Summary

In this unit you have learnt many factors about presentation skills. You learnt that making short presentations require more careful preparation than long presentations because of the time limit. You have also learnt that there are three stages in acquiring presentation skills: planning, preparation and actual presentation. In each stage you have to follow a few principles and strategies.

10.7 Review Questions

1. How many types of presentations are discussed here?
2. What do you understand by JAM?
3. Give reasons why it is difficult to prepare for a short presentation.
4. How is content organisation an important aspect of presentation?
5. What are the three 'Ps' of a presentation?
6. What care needs to be taken during the presentation?
7. In how many ways can you introduce a topic?
8. What are the presentation strategies discussed here?
9. What does 'aura effect' mean?
10. What role do visuals play in a presentation?
11. How can the presenter sustain listener interest during a long presentation?
12. How are the points developed logically in a presentation?
13. How important is a good conclusion to a presentation?
 14. What relevance does the question answer session have in a presentation?
 15. What care should the presenter take while answering the questions?
 16. What role does the presenter's dress and appearance have in a presentation?

10.8 Reading List

Theobald, T. (2019). *Develop Your Presentation Skills*. California: Kogan Page.

Unit 11 □ Teaching Speaking Skills: 1

11.1 Introduction

11.2 Objectives

11.3 Approaches to Teaching Spoken English

11.4 Theories related to speaking

11.5 Teaching of Pronunciation and other aspects of Spoken English

11.6 Selection of appropriate variety of English as model

11.7 Teacher competence

11.8 Summary

11.9 Review Questions

11.10 Reading List

11.1 Introduction

In the earlier units you have learnt certain aspects of spoken English like what is phonetics, what is phonology, what is stress and intonation etc. Knowledge of these helps us become better speakers of English. In this unit and the following unit you will learn factors pertaining to how to teach spoken English. In this unit, in particular you will learn the various approaches to spoken English, theories related to speaking, importance of teaching pronunciation and other aspects of English speech. Besides these you will also learn how to select an appropriate variety of English. You will also learn about native and non-native speakers of English, the importance of teacher competence, and how to select materials for teaching spoken English.

We know that in the globalized world communication in English is possible across the world. Today, even those countries like Japan and Germany and the Arab countries, where English has not been used for communication within the country and only a limited number of people learnt English for specific purposes of communicating with other countries for trade and commerce, have started teaching English increasingly. Therefore, we can understand that for greater outreach and effectiveness, learning to speak English with clarity and confidence is imminent.

11.2 Objectives

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

- a. Appreciate the spread of English as a global language.
- b. Understand the need to teach spoken English properly.
- c. Learn about how to teach spoken English.
- d. Differentiate different approaches to teaching spoken English.

11.3 Approaches to Teaching Spoken English

If it is important to know the various aspects of spoken English in order to learn as well as teach speaking skills, it is all the more important to know the various approaches to teaching spoken English. So, let us have a historical perspective of teaching spoken English.

Looking at the history of teaching English we can understand that the place and approach to teaching spoken English has changed significantly over the years. The emphasis has shifted from teaching accurate production of individual speech sounds and teaching discrete items of pronunciation to broader communicative aspects of connected speech. In the years when Grammar and Translation Method was prevalent very little systematic attention was paid to teaching spoken English. The Direct Method advocated intensive oral communication skills in a carefully graded progression in terms of question and answer between the teacher and the student. The Structural Approach aimed at the aural-oral training in the form of listen and repeat drills. Here accuracy was emphasized and language laboratories became popular. When we look at the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching, we find teaching begins with spoken English. Oral practice of controlled sentence patterns is given in specific situations. Emphasis moves to presentation of brief dialogue and a gradual movement from guided to free communication is seen in the Notional/Functional Approach. When the Communicative Approach made its advent, emphasis shifted from accuracy to fluency, and in the Natural Approach we find that the learner is not put under any anxiety, and speech is allowed to 'emerge' gradually. Emphasis on communication continues in the Post Method era.

11.4 Theories related to speaking

Over the centuries as the teaching of English underwent various changes in terms of Approaches to language learning and teaching, we see an evolution of different

theories of teaching speaking. Among the theories the most prominent ones are the Behaviourist, Innate and Interactionist theories. Up to 1960s the Behaviourist approach gave prominence to speaking since it was assumed that language was primarily an oral-aural phenomenon. So the teaching and learning of language followed a stimulus-response-reinforcement pattern involving constant practice and formation of habit. Teaching of speaking skills involved imitation, repetition and memorization of the input given to the learners. The audio-lingual approach emphasized the process of teaching in the order of listening-speaking-reading-writing. Later, with Chomsky's assumption that every child is born with an innate capacity to acquire language the Innate Theory evolved. The belief was once the basic grammar was provided learners become active and creative in their use of language. In the 1970s and 1980s the Interactionists propounded that providing a linguistic environment for interaction was necessary for efficient language learning. It was thought that for production of speech the messages need to be 'planned'. This plan should have a basis of four major processes like conceptualization, formulation, articulation and monitoring. For example, if the child has to understand the use of past tense, she/he has to understand the concept of time, and, that the action is over, and, then how this concept is expressed. Once this becomes clear the child would be able to form the past with regular or verb in the irregular form of the verb. This allows the child to articulate sentences using the correct form, may be after a few errors and corrections monitored by adults. The functionalists viewed speaking in a contextualized process where the context of culture and context played an important role in the language use.

Bloom B.S. is known for his *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (1965) has identified three domains of educational activities: a) Cognitive(deals with knowledge) b) Affective(deals with feelings and attitude) c) Psychomotor(deals with manual or physical). He also identified levels within the cognitive domain ranging from simple recall or recognition of facts to the highest order of evaluation. The levels are; knowledge; understanding; application; analysis synthesis; and evaluation. It is assumed that a good use of Bloom's Taxonomy would help both teaching and learning. In teaching spoken English moving from the simple level to the complex level gradually would create a relaxed atmosphere for the learners and they would learn to speak with increasing confidence. So the learner should be made familiar with the grammar and vocabulary of the language, understand the meaning and apply the gained knowledge in various contexts, analyze as well as compare and contrast and judge their own thought and ideas. All these pertain to the cognitive domain. They should also have a positive attitude towards the language and learn it willingly. This pertains to the Affective domain. In the psychomotor domain tasks could be provided that need some physical activity like miming and performing.

Humanistic Theory propounded by Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, Constructivist

Theory made popular by Jean Piaget, Socio-cultural Theory propounded by Vygotsky belong to the field of Educational Psychology, have influenced educational methods, goals and objectives and are relevant in teaching speaking. You need to know two other names: Krashen and Lenneberg. Krashen's monitor theory also known as Input Hypothesis and Lenneberg's Critical period Hypothesis influenced the teaching methods and brought in many changes in the classroom methodology. All these theories mentioned here have their influence in teaching listening and speaking skills.

We understand that that over the decades the teaching and learning of English have acquired new dimensions. Given this background, many issues and questions arise in teaching spoken English. Some questions that we need to ask are:

- What is the status of pronunciation? When and how should we teach pronunciation?
- At what level should segmental features be taught? Is drilling of individual sounds and pattern practice effective?
- Do learners transfer the accurate sounds to connected speech?
- Can we really 'teach' the more subtle features like rhythm and intonation?
- How much of the mother tongue influence is acceptable?

A large number of these questions are addressed by researchers and experts in teaching language.

11.5 Teaching of Pronunciation and others aspects of Spoken English

We know that teaching of pronunciation assumes importance in any language, more so in English. There is no one to one correlation between spelling and pronunciation unlike in the Indian languages. Therefore teachers need to make an extra effort in terms of pronunciation and of words in English. Pronunciation and stress at word level lend accuracy which contributes to intelligibility. Therefore, teaching pronunciation is crucial to teaching spoken English. Having said that let us understand that the 'when' and 'how' of teaching pronunciation depends on the situation and the target students. If the target students are adults, concepts and the articulation could be explained and if they are young then imitation and repetition including gestures and action oriented teaching.

As teachers we know that learning is more effective if teaching is contextualized. So setting contexts which involve stress and intonation, and explaining the change in meaning if stress at the word and sentence level is changed would help. Practice in word stress and intonation in meaningful contexts could be given. For example, take

the case of the words like ‘present’ and ‘object’. We have learnt that if the stress is on the first syllable it is a noun and if it is on the second syllable it is a verb. A simple sentence like ‘I **object** to so many unnecessary **objects** lying all over the floor’ or ‘All the delegates invited are **present** today and all of them are going to **present** their reports’ would go a long way in making the meaning of the word as noun and verb very clear.

You may make the learners acquire a basic knowledge in phonology of English. Opportunities to understand the sound pattern and language structure and a scope for self-reflection could give a better understanding of the spoken form. Another important aspect of teaching in the non-native context is to make them understand and diagnose the problem areas in the target language. The problem areas are mostly for the second language learners of English. In India there are learners of English belonging to more than 22 major languages. Hence the problem areas differ depending on their mother tongue. For example a word like ‘school’ could have different problem areas in pronunciation or, for some speakers there may not be any problem at all pronouncing the word.

Another important feature of English is the contractions and reductions. A word in isolation is carefully pronounced. But in connected speech the sounds of certain words are changed and they sound different from what they are like when pronounced in isolation. For example ‘will not’ becomes ‘won’t’. Again, in a sentence articles and prepositions are not stressed normally. As teachers we need to draw the learners’ attention to such characteristic features of English.

11.6 Selection of appropriate variety of English as model

We understand that English is spoken by those who have learnt it as their mother tongue and those who have some other language as their mother tongue but learn English also. People who speak a language as their mother tongue are called ‘native speakers’ of the language, and those who speak the language which is not their mother tongue are called ‘non-native speakers’. These learners are called the second language learners. The non-native speakers learn the language based on the native speakers as model. In case of English, there are at least three major varieties of native versions of English to choose from: British, American and Australian apart from the notional standard Received Pronunciation.

The second language learner may also have a choice of not sounding like any of the native speakers of English and retain their own cultural and social identity. The choice depends on the needs of the learners, why they learn to speak English, and to what use they want their competence to be put to use. Those who want to interact

at international level for business and profession will have different use of English from those who want to use English only to communicate with the non-native speakers of English. Whatever be the reason, there is one factor which is very important, which is intelligibility or clarity of speech. When non- native speakers learn to speak English it is natural that they have the influence of their mother tongue in articulating the sounds in English.

Native-like speech in second language learning situation takes time, and often it cannot be achieved easily. In fact, very few can achieve native-like pronunciation in another language. Non-native speakers, even if they pronounce words and sentences very well, problems with stress and intonation and other phonological nuances may still cause misunderstandings or even communication break-down. Therefore it is better to focus on global aspects of English. What is required of the learners is that they try and erase the gross mother tongue features which ‘interfere’ with the English sounds and make them sound different from what they should be. Then we can say that the learner has attained a ‘neutral’ variety of English which is universally understood. This is possible with practice. For this we can choose the RP or Received Pronunciation as reference point. The advantage is that RP is well described variety and internationally acknowledged. Standard dictionaries indicate this pronunciation and also display the British and American variants separately.

What the second language learners of English should remember is, that it is near impossible to achieve native-like pronunciation nor is it really necessary. What is important is clarity and global intelligibility of speech. If an African speaks English and he is intelligible to an Indian, an Indian is intelligible to a Russian and when a Russian speaks English and a German understands, we can say that we are moving towards global English.

11.7 Teacher competence

Teacher competence in the area of spoken English is of crucial importance in the second language teaching context. A competent teacher goes a long way in making learners attain reasonable proficiency in English. This is because the learners primarily learn to speak by emulating the teacher. When it comes to teaching spoken English, for a long time the non-native speaking world preferred to employ native speakers of English even if they were not trained as teachers, because they spoke English with authority as they owned the language. However, with the changing perspectives and needs of the learners this attitude has changed. ‘In today’s complex and globalized world, well-trained, multilingual and culturally sophisticated teachers are needed to teach learners of English. It is time for those involved in the ELT profession to resist

the employment of untrained native speaker teachers.’ (Graddol 2007, p.121). Teachers who have acquired speaking skills as second language can use their experience to understand their learners’ needs. Of course, teachers themselves should be aware of the nuances of English pronunciation and should be able to speak neutral variety of English for the learners to emulate. Teachers who do not develop ‘neutral’ variety or do not work towards ‘global intelligibility’ are not received well by the learners.

A competent teacher of English would use strategies effective for the learners to practice speaking. The materials used should be familiar and easy to use. This would reduce the learning anxiety. We can use authentic materials like newspaper clippings of advertisements, headlines, pictures, hoardings seen posted in different parts of the city, Railway tickets, instructions written in hospitals and other places, and many more materials available around us to motivate learners to speak in English.

Again, as a teacher you should focus on achievable goals instead of focusing on elements which are out of control of the learners. We should understand that the thinking in teaching pronunciation has shifted from ‘what is convenient for the teacher to teach?’ to ‘what is effective for the learners to learn?’ Some fine native-like features in the phonology which do not come in the way of intelligibility could take a secondary place in the pedagogy. Certain phonological features which cause intelligibility problems for listeners need to be identified and more emphasis could be given in learning these features accurately. A common phonological core for Indian speakers of English has been identified as Indian English by R. K. Bansal and various other researchers. We as teachers of English need to be aware of this.

11.8 Summary

As teachers of Spoken English we also should be able to identify appropriate materials for practice. The materials should be familiar and easily accessible for the learners. Materials should take care of all the aspects of spoken English from articulation of sounds, pronunciation of words, stress at word as well as sentence levels. We should also give practice to the learners in terms of attaining fluency. ‘Since speaking involves two people, materials could have activities involving two or more learners and make them more communicative and closer to real-life situations. Above all, the learners’ needs and the use they will put the language to should be kept in view while designing materials for them.’ (Jayashree Mohanraj 2015). In the next unit we will see a number of tasks for practising various aspects of spoken English and also learn how to use them in the classroom. Let us now check if we remember what we have read so far. Answer the following questions.

11.9 Review Questions

1. What is the importance of spoken English?
2. How important is good pronunciation?
3. What are the finer aspects of good pronunciation in English?
4. What are some of the changes that have taken place in the teaching of spoken English?
5. How is Bloom's taxonomy useful in teaching spoken English?
6. What are the major varieties of spoken English seen around the world?
7. Which model is normally recommended as standard?
8. What do we mean by 'global English'?
9. Why should a teacher be competent to teach spoken English?
10. Can a second language learner achieve native speaker competence? Is it essential?

11.10 Reading List

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- Vygotsky. L. (1970). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Unit 12 □ Teaching Speaking-2

- 12.1 Introduction**
- 12.2 Objectives**
- 12.3 Task for Teaching Spoken English**
- 12.4 Task on Accurate Pronunciation**
- 12.5 Task on Spelling-Sound Relationship**
- 12.6 Task on Breaking Long Words into Syllables**
- 12.7 Task on Word Stress**
- 12.8 Task on Cue Cards**
- 12.9 Task on Practice Speaking on Telephone**
- 12.10 Task on One-Minute Speech**
- 12.11 Task for Debate**
- 12.12 Task on Group Discussion**
- 12.13 Task on Making Presentation**
- 12.14 Summary**
- 12.15 Review Questions**
- 12.16 Reading List**

12.1 Introduction

In the previous unit we learnt what are native and non-native varieties of English, how to select the model for learning to speak English as second language learners, and the various aspects of teaching spoken English. We must remember that a fair number of tasks developing speaking skills, include developing listening skills. In fact listening is like a springboard to speaking. Careful listening helps in not only articulating sounds accurately but also in understanding the nuances in pronunciation and stress and intonation. So, practically, teaching of listening and speaking go hand in hand.

12.2 Objectives

At the end of going through this unit, the learners will be able to:

- a. Prepare tasks for different aspects of teaching spoken English,
- b. Understand the concept of spellings in English,

- c. Identify the stressed syllable in a polysyllabic word,
- d. Understand the nuances of speaking on phone,
- e. Understand the etiquette for participating in group discussions and other social conversations.

12.3 Task for Teaching Spoken English

Now, let us look at some tasks that can be used to teach spoken English. These tasks are arranged in a graded manner of teaching segmental features, supra-segmental features as well as fluency. You will also have some sample tasks which will develop communication skills in English. Each task is accompanied by a brief account of at what level the task can be used and what materials are used and also how much time would the task take approximately. The market is full of books which give practice in spoken English. However, what we should learn from them is to develop or modify the tasks for our learners. Now, let us look at the sample tasks one by one.

12.4 Task on accurate pronunciation

This task is to help learners become aware of the accurate pronunciation of words with the sounds which pose a problem to them.

The material used is a list of words prepared by the teacher.

Take a list of ten pairs of words which are minimal pairs like:

<i>sit – seat;</i>	<i>bit – beat;</i>	<i>cattle – kettle;</i>	<i>lamp - lamb</i>
<i>ship – sheep;</i>	<i>fast – past;</i>	<i>bird – bud;</i>	<i>thin – chin;</i>
<i>torn – turn</i>		<i>rant – rent:</i>	

Dictate the words to learners. Ask them to write down the words in pairs as they hear.

Ask each of them to read out what they have written in the same order. This will ensure what sounds they have listened to and how they pronounce the words. If the teacher finds there is a problem in their articulating the sounds in the words, more practice could be given. They could even be made aware of how to articulate the specific sounds by explaining the position of the lips, tongue etc.

This activity can be given to learners as beginners. Time that can be allotted could be 20-30 minutes.

You may think of modifying, extending this task by asking the learners to think of similar pairs of words and exchanging the list with their partners in the class to

pronounce the words.

Another modification, which is slightly more challenging, is to make them use the words in meaningful sentences and speak them aloud with the correct pronunciation. This will ensure their articulating the sounds correctly in connected speech.

12.5 Task on Spelling-Sound relationship

To make them understand the spelling-sound relationship in English. The material required is a list of words.

Give learners a list of words which are homophones i.e. sound the same but spelt differently. For example:

rest – wrest; blew – blue; principle – principal;
sew – sow; ring – wring; cheque – check
whether – weather;

Jumble the words up and ask them to put them in order and then pronounce the words.

This task can be given to the beginners. 15 minutes may be allotted for this task.

As modification and extension of the task you can give the learners to prepare another such list of words. They could use the dictionary to look up for such words. This will, to some extent, help them develop dictionary-skills. These lists could be shared with other learners in the class. You may ask them to write and read aloud sentences using these words with distinct meanings.

12.6 Task on breaking long words into syllables

Generally, second language learners in India feel a little intimidated when they encounter long words in English. This in turn affects their levels of confidence while speaking. If they are taught to break the words in terms of syllables, they will be able to handle any long words. The following task is an example.

In the first place show the learners how to break a word into syllables. For example: Institution can be broken as in-sti-tu-tion for convenience of articulation. Then write a reasonably long word on the chalk-board. Pronounce the word yourself showing the syllabification. Ask the learners to repeat. The third step could be presenting longer words like *Floccinaucinihilipilification* and *Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane*. Then ask them to pronounce the word using the strategy of syllabification.

This task can be used for high school/intermediate level of learners. The purpose is to enhance their confidence in pronouncing words in English. The task may take about 15 minutes.

12.7 Task on Word Stress

Stress at the word as well as sentence level plays a very important role in intelligibility. A second language learner should try to learn to maintain stress at the proper syllable and word when speaking English. When we speak Indian languages we stress every word as there is no significance attached to stress in normal speech. The task involves a list of words, a couple of suitable pictures as suggested here and a poem or a few sentences.

We may begin to make them repeat words with two syllables with stress on first syllable and then the second as learnt earlier in words like *object* and *present*. The second step could be to draw a picture like a tree or cloud and fill up the picture with words, phrases related to that picture and ask the learners to read them out. The third step in the task could be to ask the learners write down the sentences within the picture. For example, you may draw a picture of an urn and within that you may write a stanza of Keat's Ode to a Grecian Urn and ask the learners to recite it aloud with proper stress on words to make the reading rhythmic.

This task could be given to Intermediate level learners. The task may take 20-25 minutes.

Using pictures to motivate the learners to speak is found to be effective. You may use an interesting action oriented picture or even a picture with just two characters. You may give a few questions about the picture like: who are the people in the picture?; Do you think it is a special occasion?; Do you think the two people in the picture are happy?; Do you think the two people are related?

The questions vary depending on the picture. If the learners are a little advanced you may take the task from controlled to free and more challenging task by not giving any leading questions but ask the learners to interpret the picture.

Another idea is to use a series of three or four pictures which stand for a story. Don Byrne used picture stories to motivate learners to narrate a sequence of events. A third variation is to project a set of six to eight characters in front of the class and ask one of the learners to describe one picture and the rest of the group to guess the character that is being described. This works as a good guessing game which is interesting for the learners.

Yet another idea of using pictures is to give a pair of learners a cartoon strip with the speech bubbles empty. The learners have to guess what the characters are saying and speak out. This activity makes them think, guess and also can be fun.

These tasks with the variations mentioned can be used in elementary to intermediate levels. The task should take 15- 20 minutes.

For advanced level learners what is required is an opportunity to speak. We can create this opportunity by making the task purposeful. Role-play gives this purpose. You may begin with conversation. Conversation is open-ended and may develop further. For elementary level you may prepare cue cards and make it a pair work task.

12.8 Cue Cards

A typical set of cue cards for elementary learners may look like this:

A	B
A: Hello .	A: _____
B: _____	B: Hi.
A: Are you free this evening?	A: _____
B: _____	B: Hm, I guess so.
A: Shall we go for a movie?	A: _____
B: _____	B: Great idea! I'd love it..
A: Fine. Let's meet at Grand theater at 6 then.	A: _____
B: _____	B: Alright.
A: See you.	A: _____
	B: Bye.

Each learner in the pair gets one card and reads out his part. As a teacher you will have to give proper instructions like they need to take turns in speaking. The same task could be made more challenging and may look like this:

A	B
A: Greet B	A: _____
B: _____	B: Reciprocate A's greeting.
A: Ask what B is doing in the evening.	A: _____
B: _____	B: Say you are free.
A: Suggest you go for a movie.	A: _____
B: _____	B: Accept with pleasure.
A: Arrange to meet at theater at	A: _____
B: _____	B: Respond.

This activity can be used with learners at various levels of learning depending on how challenging it is made. It may take about 20 minutes.

12.9 Task on practice speaking on telephone

Telephone conversation assumes a lot of importance in today's context. Create a situation for the learners where you can give them practice speaking on telephone. Before assigning the task make them aware of the telephone etiquette like speaking softly and not shouting into the phone, introducing yourself first if you are the person calling, speaking clearly and precisely because your body language does not aid the receiver of the call, putting expression in the voice and so on. Then give the task with clear instructions to follow when working out the task. One such task could be as follows:

The task requires you to prepare a small advertisement for rentals. The task is:

You are looking out for an accommodation. Here is an advertisement. Call the number given in the advertisement and have a telephone talk with the landlord/lady. Work in pairs.

Available. Two bedroom apartment
Fully furnished. Good location. Small family preferred.
Telephone: 11012345

You may simulate the situation by asking them to sit at two different corners in the class facing away from each other. If necessary give a few cues to carry out the conversation.

Repeat the task with different situations for different pairs. The task will take about 20-25 minutes.

12.10 Task on One-minute speech

You may give topics for the learners or ask them to choose any topic they like and ask them to come prepared for a one-minute speech. You may even give them a topic like '*If I win rupees one million in lottery...*' Give them guidelines before they prepare. Tell them to choose only limited number of points, to have an introduction and a conclusion. While they are speaking observe them, take down notes discretely and after everyone finishes, give your feedback. Give general feedback, and if any specific point needs to be made about a particular speaker, tell them. But remember

not to interrupt their speech and also not to dwell on negative points. Encourage them to speak.

This activity can be followed up and made a little more challenging after you feel that the learners have gained confidence speaking to an audience. Fish-bowl is a very suitable activity. Write down various topics on strips of papers and place them in a bowl. Each learner picks up one strip and speaks on the topic assigned there for one minute. You may give them five minutes to prepare before they speak.

This task takes about 30 minutes of the classroom time if there are 20 learners in the class.

12.11 Task for debate

It is important to give intermediate and advanced learners practice in speaking independently in debates and group discussion contexts. A task for debate could be as follows:

Divide the entire class into two groups. Give a topic like *'Online shopping is better than going to the market'* or *'Mobile phones are a boon to the society'*. Ask each group to take a stand for or against the topic. Pair them taking one from each group to speak. Set time limit of two minutes for each speaker. Give them about ten minute's preparation time.

This task may take more than 30 minutes depending on the number of learners.

Modification to this task could be forming another smaller third group or pair who can act as observers and give comments on the overall performance of each group. This is more challenging and can be tried with an advanced group.

A simple task for group discussion may be given to initiate the class for more serious problem-solving exercises. Some relevant topic could be given to them for discussion. For example: You are planning an educational tour to a historical place. As a group plan the details. You may discuss the following points: suitable date and time of travel, duration of the tour mode of travel like train, bus etc., things to carry, place of stay, how to keep notes, division of responsibilities and other details.

The total time for this task could be 30-40 minutes. The initial 10 minutes for the teacher to give instructions. Then the actual discussion of 20 minutes and then the teacher's feedback of the discussion may take about 10 minutes.

12.12 Task on Group-Discussion

Create some situation for discussion and assign roles to a group of learners. Form groups to assume roles of members involved in the situation for discussion. Before

you assign tasks explain how each member of the group needs to get a chance to speak, and also the politeness principles to be observed by members respecting each other's views and so on. A sample of one such task is given here:

You are students of Institution for Excellence. Your institution has won awards for clean and green environment for the past five years. However, of late a small mound of garbage has been accumulating close to your institution because of the placement of the garbage bin. You have observed that people have started dumping garbage in and around the bin which gives rise to a stink, inconveniencing the students in the Institution. An emergency meeting has been called by the principal to discuss the problem. You want to submit a memorandum to the Municipal Commissioner to get the Bin relocated.

Members attending the meeting:

Principal,

2 Members of the Faculty,

2 Student Representatives,

1 Municipality Ward Member,

1 Member of Society for Protection of Environment and Quality Life (SPEQL),

2 Journalists of local newspaper (Special Invitees).

This task will take about 50 minutes. 20 minutes could be given for instructions and time for the group to assume roles and prepare for discussion. The actual discussion may take 20 minutes and the teacher's feedback another 10 minutes.

You may think of several such situations for problem solving tasks.

12.13 Task on Making Presentation

In advanced levels of learning, presentation skills assume importance. Hence learners need to be initiated to make presentations to a group of audience. For this relevant topics can be chosen and some preparation time be given for the learners to make their presentations. The learners need to be instructed how to prepare materials like slides, and how to present themselves before the audience and then be given the topics.

A couple of such topics as cases for presentation are given here:

- i. You are an officer deputed by the Municipal Corporation of your city to convince a group of residents about rain water harvesting in their residential complex. Present the process, benefits and their responsibility etc.
- ii. You are a student volunteer who has taken the responsibility of bringing awareness in a close-by residential complex about the harmfulness of plastic. Explain the hazards of plastic use and suggest alternatives to plastic on various situations.

For this task, the topic may be given to the learners on the previous day. Guidelines and help need to be given to them. They may even be guided to the sources for collection of materials and points to speak about. Each learner may be given about 10-15 minutes to make presentation. You may have to prepare several such topics depending on the number of learners. It is a good idea to have a repository of such relevant topics collected over a period of time. Such tasks help the learners use language in real life situations too.

12.14 Summary

In this unit we have discussed a few sample tasks in developing different aspects of speaking skills at various levels. The list is not exhaustive. Each sample task should be able to generate several ideas in you to be used in different situations in different levels. The main objective of these tasks is to give confidence in speaking English. These tasks give practice to the learners not in a clinical environment of a language laboratory but, in a real life-like situation simulated in the classroom. Thereby they help the learners perform reasonably well with confidence when encountered by a demand to speak English in life. Your experience in learning the various aspects communication in English should help you develop several such tasks when you need to teach in a class.

12.15 Review Questions

1. What is the best technique to teach pronunciation of individual sounds?
2. How are pairs of words with similar sounding words helpful in classroom teaching?
3. What is the easiest way to help students understand the concept of stress?
4. What exercises can be used to show the relationship between spelling and pronunciation?
5. How do we help our students to learn the spellings of longer words?
6. Is syllabification an easy process?
7. What method can be used to teach natural conversation?
8. Prepare a set of Cue-cards based on the model provided?
9. How is group discussion a good activity?
10. Suggest two topics for group discussion and debates.

12.16 Reading List

Ref: Graddol, David (2007) English Next, UK, British Council.

Jayashree Mohanraj (2015) Let Us Hear Them Speak, new Delhi, Sage Publishers.

MODULE - 4 : TEACHING VOCABULARY

Unit 13 □ Collocations, Idioms, Phrases 1

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Objectives
- 13.3 The Term Collocation
- 13.3 Definitions of terms
- 13.4 Definitions of Collocations
- 13.5 Characteristics of Collocations
- 13.6 Multi-level Classification of Collocations
- 13.7 Summary
- 13.8 Review Questions
- 13.9 References and Reading list

13.1 Introduction

This Unit initiates you to the scope and potential of the Lexi-grammatical axis of Collocation-Idiom-Phrase in acquiring a *second language* to the point of mastery or command of English as it should be spoken and written with native fluency. As lexeme or morpheme a word is a bi-referential signifier: it refers to itself as a visual and aural/articulate entity, lending itself to texting and articulation in a coherent and communicable structure. Language can enhance, restructure and undercut phenomenal reality by the force of self-reference, that is, how the words sound in a speech and look like in a script, how much they touch and evoke our sense-impressions, and how much they transmit data and information with the least possible distortion and refraction mediated by the user in the act of speaking and writing. Therefore, viewing language from the other side, each word literally in itself and variably, with figurative charges in a set of relationships, is a referent to an object or ideation outside itself.

13.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit, the learners will be:

- Familiar with a range of vocabulary items,
- Able to use the words learnt appropriately,
- Able to spell the words correctly and use them in their own language,
- Pronounce the words as per the norms of English language,

- Able to use the words in appropriate contexts and combinations.

13.3 The Term Collocation

Language of all varieties, in all possible ramifications, is associative, collocative and additive, stretching beyond letters of the alphabet and phonemes (articulatory unit or speech sound). What is interesting is that a lexeme or word has a natural tendency to gravitate to or attract another or at places a chunk of other words in order to convey proper meaning in both spoken and written forms. This phenomenon of linguistic intra-compatibility between two words or among a number of words generates from long-term and widely accepted usage by the native speakers. In this, even though grammatically permissible and syntactically correct, a sequence of words may appear strange and ludicrous to the native speakers, to the point of incomprehension at times. Therefore, Collocation is important for L2 or FL learners (Second Language Learners or Foreign Language Learners), so much so that knowing Collocation and Mis-collocation (Rayan, 2016) and Collocational Clash may adequately compensate for the paucity of learning the rules and intricacies of grammar.

The term Collocation is a noun, by inflectional morphing of the prefix-compounded lexical stem verb, ‘locate’ [co + locate]: collocate, meaning ‘go together’ or ‘co-occur’. In all Collocations cutting across its several types there has to be at least two parts: *base/node and collocate/collocator*.

Base/node and collocate/collocator combine or associate in a lexico-grammatical chunk that is meaningful and take on the flair and fluency of English as spoken and written by the native speakers of the English language.

The syntax of a given sentence determines the positioning of the collocation in spoken part or in a grammatically complete written sentence.

Lewis (1993) coined the term ‘collocation’ as the key focus of lexical approach to a second/foreign language teaching/learning while emphasizing the fact that vocabulary should be the centre of any language teaching because every language should focus primarily on lexis, instead of grammar. He states that vocabulary should be the key feature in teaching English. The lexical approach is based on the assumption that “an important part of language acquisition is the ability to produce lexical phrases as chunks and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar” (Lewis, 1993, p.1).

Lexical word combinations or chunks contribute significantly to L2 vocabulary development. The teaching of vocabulary is usually confined to learning a unique word and its usage. Axiomatically, knowledge of collocations should develop in tandem with their knowledge of single items in their vocabulary. Achieving proficiency

in SLA is more complex than simply learning individual words and their literal meanings. Knowing the rules of grammar is not adequate enough as ‘guidance for acceptable combinations of words (O’Dell & McCarthy, 2008)’. Teaching collocations, however, provides a rationale for focusing on chunks and their applications (Lewis and Conzett, 2000) as an easy pathway to SLA or Second Language Acquisition.

The collocations presented in this Unit throughout are largely selected from the CANCODE corpus of spoken English, developed at the University of Nottingham in association with Cambridge University Press, and the Cambridge International Corpus of written and spoken English (now known as the Cambridge English Corpus).

13.3.1 Definitions of Terms

A collocation is “usually described as the tendency of certain linguistic items to habitually co-occur with certain others” (Firth, 1957). The level of occurrence of phrases and words is high and sounds correct for native speakers, for example, *healthy food* rather than *fit food*.

A collocate/collocator is a word which usually occurs with a specific word. For example, *healthy food* and *food consumers*. Here *healthy* and *consumers* are collocates/ collocators.

A base/node refers to a specific word or phrase. Most of the time the node is generally introduced with another word, for instance in *healthy food* or *food consumers*, food is a node (O’Dell & McCarthy, 2008).

13.4 Definitions of Collocation

Linguists by and large come to the conceptual consensus that the term ‘collocation’ means *the habitual co-occurrence or combination of words* established by the use of native speakers. Collocation has its roots in the Latin verb *collocare* which means to place together (Deignan, 1999). Léon (2007) defines collocations as an abstraction at the syntagmatic level. For instance, one of the meanings of *water* constitutes its collocability with *cold*, and of *cold* with *water*. In fact, appropriacy and reciprocity are two aspects of collocation. Nesselhauf (2004) defines a collocation as a regular arrangement between/among lexical items, and their intrinsic tendency to closely associate or co-occur in speech and text.

Celce-Murcia (cited in Mongkolchai, 2008) defines collocations as the co-occurrence of lexical units in a fixed, strong or weak combination, with variations in frequency or acceptability. Words that collocate with each other are generally habitual and popular irrespective of any *prescriptive interference of grammar*:

For instances,

...tell a lie, crack a joke, raise an issue, raise an alarm, run a show, sit on the fence, trigger (off) a problem, pay attention, start from the scratch, narrow escape, a figment of imagination, the blows of fate, the prime of life, the bloom of youth, and so on.

Incidentally Shakespeare's works are a rich source of collocations which have passed into popular usage, and a native English speaker may frequently use a Shakespearean collocation with a *blissful ignorance* (another collocation) of its root in a play or a sonnet of Shakespeare. The character, Jacques alone in Shakespeare's romantic comedy, *As You Like It* is springing a fusillade of beautiful collocations that are now established in native and fluent English.

Smadja and McKeown (1990) define collocations as a marked tendency of certain words to co-occur with frequent regularity in a specific language. Lewis (1993) defines collocations as a subcategory of multi-word chunk comprising individual words which tend to go together in speaking and writing acts. Therefore, the term 'collocation' signifies a predictable combination of words e.g. *An instant box-office hit, Home-made food, Housing complex, High-rise building, Matinee idol, Movie star, Towering personality, Business tycoon, Corporate giant*, so on and so forth.

Woolard (cited by in Mongkolchai, 2008) defines collocations as "the co-occurrence of words which are statistically much more likely to appear together than random chance suggests" (p. 29). McCarthy and O'Dell (2006), state that a collocation is used to refer to several words that appear together, either because they always occur together like "run a risk" or because the group meaning is far too obvious from the meaning of its parts, as in 'by the way'.

According to the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002), collocation is a way of combining words within a language in order to produce natural-sounding speaking and writing. Inappropriate combinations like *severe rain* or *strong rain* do not sound natural in the English language.

Benson and Ilson (cited by in Bahns and Eldaw, 1993) point out the inherent incapacity of an L2 learner or the learner of English as a Second/Foreign Language to cope at par with the fluency of collocations that naturally goes with the native speaker of English:

Collocations are arbitrary and non-predictable. Non-native speakers cannot cope with them; they must have a guide. They have no way of knowing that one says in English make an estimate, (but not make an estimation), commit treason (but not commit treachery). In English once one says commit fraud and perpetrate fraud. However, only the collocation, commit suicide is possible, one does not say perpetrate suicide. One says bake a cake, but make pancakes (not bake pancakes) (p. 258).

To sum up, ‘collocation’ as viewed and defined by linguists and ELT scholars funnel to a focal point that ‘collocation’ signifies a pair or group of words that normally appear proximate or close to *each other*, when in a *pair* or *one another* when in a *group* in a way that sounds natural to native speakers of the given language. [As Grammatical collocation *each other* applies to a pair, but *one another* applies a group more than two.]

13.5 Characteristics of Collocations

There are several ways to identify the attributes of and categorize collocations, which is often confusing among the learners and teachers as well, of ELT (Lopez, 2016).

Bahns (1993) pinpoints the keytraits of collocations as follows:

- i) Collocations retain the meanings of their constituent parts (unlike idioms)
- ii) They are spoken and written frequently and with fluency, springing to mind readily,
- iii) They are psychologically salient (unlike free combinations).

There are, however, ‘transitional areas’ (Cruse, 2000: 41) between free collocational combinations and collocational idioms.

Task 1: Identify the traits of the Collocations from the following:

- a) **Take a seat** while I get you something to drink.
- b) I **caught her eye** and smiled.
- c) We came to **say hello** as we were passing through
- d) I’ll **take a look** at the website and let you know what I think.
- e) You must learn to **keep your balance** in skating.

Your answer:

Boonyasaquan (cited by in Mongkolchai, 2008) clusters the characteristics of collocations as follows:

They are co-occurrences of terms allowing no space for an additional word to come in between them. For instance, in *downward curve* there is no provision for a new word to settle between them, even though it is syntactically possible to insert words between them. For example, *downward the steep curve*. Here the insertion of ‘*the steep*’ is normally a misfit. Interestingly, *down the steep curve* is a valid collocation. The rationale for collocation in terms of the rules of grammar is blurred.

Their components are not replaceable by a synonym. For instance, *in a fit of fury/anger*, but not *in a fire of fury*. It is *minimal impact*, but not, *marginal impact*. In both

the cases, the replaced order will be treated as unique, pejoratively a deviation from the normative language. It may be noted this kind of collocational deviations may be pampered by a poet or creative writer for special figurative effect left willingly to the inference or interpretation of the listener or reader.

They are no-interchangeable binomials. The order of the collocation's terms is fixed, for example, *day and night*, but not *night and day*, *cats and dogs*, but not *dogs and cats*, *bread and butter*, but not *butter and bread*, *fork and knife* but not *knife and fork*.

Generally collocations are predictable chunks of lexemes, handed down to their users. Factors that generate the range of collocations are as follows (Callow and Kopesec, 1981) :

A certain level of specificity vis-à-vis generality: "the more general a word is, the broader is its collocational range, the more specific it is, the more restricted is its collocational range" (p. 50). For example, the verb *bury* has a wider collocational range than *entomb*. The word *go* has a wider range of collocation than *start*. For instance, in the collocation, *go of the day* 'go' means 'vogue' or fashion. This colour of the shirt will not *go with* my blue trouser: here *go* signifies 'match'. Like 'do', 'go' enjoys a wider generality in collocational forms, often with idiomatic overtones.

The senses a particular word evokes, are multiple and variable. The Structuralists like Ferdinand de Saussure points out that a word has, even literally, no unalterable, intrinsic authority of meaning. Most words lend themselves to a contextual reformulation of signification, in a changed set of relationships. In this sense collocation is downscaled to free and open combinations. For example the word *fast* can make a *broad spectrum*[but not *wide spectrum*] of free collocations, each with a different sense or meaning, such as *fast friend*, *fast colour*, *fast life*, *fast food*, *fast track*. Words like this goes with other words in yielding a *wide variety*[but not *broad variety*] of meanings. For example, *put* collocates with different adverbial particles to produce a variety of meanings. If it is possible to say 'run' goes with words like 'a business', 'a company' or 'an institution'. However, in the sense of *provide*, it goes with words like *a service* or *a course*.

Collocations generally have specific characteristics and their recurrent co-occurrences are perceived as constant and, therefore, cannot change, with the exceptions of transformational collocation where collocation spills itself to be transfigured into idiomatic, metaphoric and figural collocations, in transitional areas of lexical collocations.

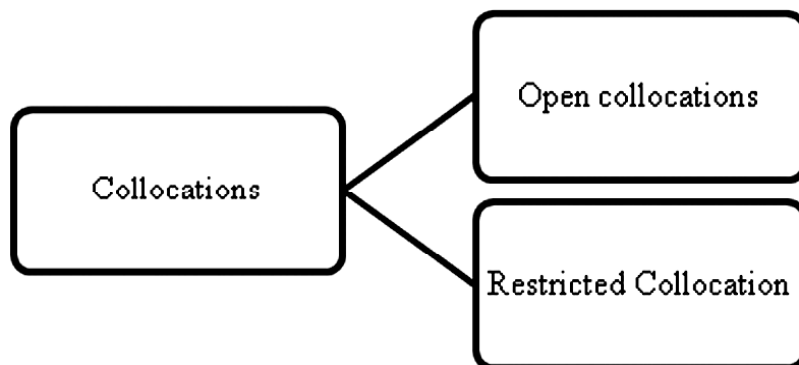
Task 2: Discuss the characteristics of the following collocation

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| a. I can't put up with it any longer | To write |
| b. Put away any valuable or breakable objects | To apply for something |
| c. He was trying to put across a serious point | To tolerate |
| d. Try to put by a little bit each week | To clean up, to tidy |
| e. Never put off until tomorrow what you can do today | To explain something clearly |
| f. She put on a new pair of cotton socks | To delay |
| g. Put down your name in capitals | To save money |
| h. It took two hours to put out the fire | To wear |
| i. I decided to put in for a job as a manager | To connect with the phone |
| j. He asked to be put through to the front office | To stop burning |

Your answer:

13.6 Multi-Level Classification of Collocations

Herbst (1996) explains that there are *two basic types of collocations* as given in the figure below:



Open collocations deal with nodes capable to cluster with a wide variety of words e.g. a *red car*, an *expensive car*, a *hybrid car*, etc.

On the other hand, restricted collocations deal with clusters already fixed like idioms e.g. *rain cats and dogs*.

Further, Fan (2009) focuses on lexical collocations and adopts Herbst's (1996) categorizations as follows:

Free combinations, which refer to a combination where the meaning comes from the literal meaning of each element, for example, *blow a kiss*.

Restricted combinations, which is used in a specific context, and the number of collocations is few, like *blow a fuse*.

Figurative idiomatic collocations which refer to a metaphorical meaning that can somehow be derived from a literal interpretation, for instance, *blow your own trumpet*.

Idioms, where there is a unitary meaning, totally unpredictable based on the literal meaning of its elements e.g. *blow the gaff*.

Yet at another level Boriskina (2009) and Lewis (2000) categorize collocations in the following manner:

Unique collocations which refer to fixed and irreplaceable collocations, such as *to foot the bill, blond hair, bull shit, cow dung, in fine*, among others.

Strong collocations, which are very strong but not unique, such as *pay attention, commit crime; moved to tears, turn a deaf ear to, heavy rain, peak hour, and burial ground* among others.

Another example of strong collocation is the participle ‘*mitigating*’. It almost always collocates with *circumstances* or *factors*; it rarely collocates with any other word.

Although she was found guilty, the jury felt there were *mitigating circumstances*.(O’Dell & McCarthy, 2008)

A few other examples:

Inclement weather is very formal. (meaning: unpleasant weather)

Inclement collocates almost exclusively with *weather*.

She has auburn hair. Auburn collocates only with words connected with hair (e.g. curls, tresses, locks).

I felt *deliriously happy*.(meaning: extremely happy)

Deliriously is strongly associated with *happy*, but not used with *glad, content, sad*, etc.

The chairperson *adjourned the meeting*.(meaning: *have a pause or rest during a meeting/trial*)

Adjourn is very strongly associated with *meeting, session* and *trial*. (O’Dell & McCarthy, 2008)

Fixed collocations: All *Idioms* are *Fixed Collocations*. Fixed collocations are collocations so strong that they cannot be changed in any way.

For example, we can say *I was walking to and fro* (meaning I was walking in one

direction and then in the opposite direction, a repeated number of times). No other words can replace *to* or *fro* in this collocation. It is completely fixed. The meaning of some fixed collocations cannot be guessed from the individual words. These collocations are called idioms. Elaborate lists of idioms are made available to the language users in Mobile downloadable applications. L2 learners can make use of these applications on their Mobile devices.

Weak collocations, which comprise a number of co-occurrences that are descriptive and literally meaningful, and easily inferred, such as a *red shirt*, *a red cap*, *a red car*, *a dark red rose* etc.

Medium-strength collocations, which can be weak, such as, *to hold hands* or *to make a deal*, or *to draft a deed* etc.

Latinated Collocations: This subcategory of collocation is highly formal, and infuses a tone of gravity into the expression. For example: this is a problem- social, economic and political. This is a *song very solemn*. This is a *lyric proper*. Milton spoke of writing his pastoral elegy with '*forced fingers rude*'.

Poets like Milton and Wordsworth preferred this type of Latinated Collocations to add a note of poignancy or seriousness to their poetic texts: we find in both the poets' works a bristling use of *Latinated collocations* with Noun as Base followed by adjectival collocates or in cases, placement of a Noun between two adjectives; for example, *vale profound* in Wordsworth's poem, *The Solitary Reaper*; *forced fingers rude* in Milton's *Lycidas*, a pastoral elegy.

In fine, Benson and Ilson (1986) separate collocations into two principal categories: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations are content words, such as a noun, a verb or an adjective plus the infinitive or a preposition. Lexical collocations do not contain infinitives and prepositions

Task 3: State whether the following collocations are restricted or open

- a. A brave soldier
- b. Pretty girl
- c. Job market
- d. Express admiration
- e. Close friends

Your answer:

The constituents of the two groups in their basic patterns- *Grammatical Collocations* and *Lexical Collocations* are as follows:

<i>Grammatical Collocations</i>	<i>Lexical Collocations</i>
<u>Pattern</u>	<u>Pattern</u>
Noun + Preposition	Noun + Noun
Adjective + Preposition	Verb + Adverb
Preposition + Noun	Verb + Noun

Grammatical Collocations Examples:

Noun + Preposition: extend to, abide by, consultation with

Adjective + Preposition: good at,

Preposition + Noun: at night, by the morning, from dawn till dusk

Lexical Collocations Examples:

Noun + Noun: a bit of advice, a flock of sheep, a bouquet of flowers

Verb + Adverb: Appreciate sincerely, participate whole heartedly

Verb + Noun: reject an appeal, withdraw a plan

Task 4: Say whether the following are Grammatical collocation or Lexical collocation?

- a) Chair a meeting
- b) Argue heartedly
- c) Close a deal
- d) Draw a conclusion
- e) In advance
- f) Come to the point
- g) By accident
- h) Dismiss an offer

Your answer:

Task 5: Identify the collocation from the following sentences and mention the type.

They are angry at the children

They are hungry for the news

Task 6: Mention the patterns for the following lexical collocations

- a) Deeply absorbed
- b) An article of clothing
- c) Best regards
- d) Strong tea

e) To be afraid that

Your answer:

13.7 Summary

To conclude, we have seen that there are several ways to classify collocations. Nevertheless, the most frequently applied classifications use the construct of lexical and grammatical collocations, followed by a taxonomy of unique, strong and weak collocations and their ramifications as set up by the linguists.

13.8 Review Questions

1. What is Collocation?
2. What are the varieties of Collocation?
3. Write a note on the significance of Collocation.
4. What is a lexical Collocation?
5. What is a grammatical collocation?
6. How are these two different?
7. Give two examples of strong collocations
8. Why do we call some collocations weak?
9. Can we call idioms as collocations?
10. What is the difference between a collocation and an idiom?
11. Collocation is important for L2 or FL learners (Second Language Learners or Foreign Language Learners). Give reasons to justify this statement.
12. All Idioms are Fixed Collocations. Explain with examples.
13. What are the differences between Lexical Collocation and Grammatical Collocation?
14. Compare and contrast Open and Restricted Collocation with suitable examples.
15. Collocations are arbitrary and non-predictable. How would you look at the statement. Do you support this view?
16. Write a note on Latinate Collocation.
17. Define the following terms and provide examples of their usages: a. Collocate or Collocators; b. Base or Node.

13.9 References and Reading List

- Lee. (2002). *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Lewis. M, (1993). *The Lexical Approach*. London: Cengage ELT.
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Unit 14 □ Collocations, idioms, phrases-2

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Objectives
- 14.3 Collocational Errors/ Miscollocations
- 14.4 Error Analysis
- 14.5 Lexi-grammatical Categories of Collocation
- 14.6 Complex Collocations
- 14.7 Aspects of verb collocations
- 14.8 Collocations and Compounds
- 14.9 Need for learning collocations
- 14.10 Summary
- 14.11 Review Questions

14.1 Introduction

We have already learnt that a collocation is a frequently occurring combination of two or more words which sounds natural and is tonally consonant with the native flair and competence of speaking and writing in English .

If someone says, ‘she’s got yellow hair’, they would probably be understood, but it is not what would ordinarily be said in English. We should rather say, ‘She’s got blond hair’ or simply, ‘She is a blond.’ In other words, yellow does not collocate with hair in everyday English. Yellow collocates with, say, flowers or paint. Collocations are not just a matter of how adjectives combine with nouns. They can refer to any kind of typical word combinations, for example, verb + noun (e.g. arouse someone’s interest, lead a seminar), adverb + adjective (e.g. fundamentally different), adverb + verb (e.g. flatly deny/contradict), noun + noun (e.g. a lick of paint, a team of experts, words of wisdom). There is much more about different grammatical types of collocation.

Task 1: Identify the V+ N structures from the following.

- a. Keep the change
- b. Keep clam
- c. Keep in touch
- d. Keep a secret
- e. Keep someone’s place

Your answer:

14.2 Objectives

At the end of the Unit, learners will be

- Familiar with different types of collocations,
- Able to use these collocations in their writing,
- Able to appreciate the aesthetic value of collocations in their speech.

14.3 Collocational Errors / Miscollocations

Collocations play a centrally important role in second language acquisition and learning. Collocations contribute to *oral communication, listening comprehension, and reading speed*. Collocations make the Second Language Learners [L2] aware of *language chunks* used by native speakers in speech and writing. An English teacher's common experience is that learners have difficulties with both lexical and grammatical collocations in their speaking and writing. In language courses, if teaching the collocations is underplayed, what is most likely to happen is:

1. Complex ideas will take long involute expressions rather than being put simply and precisely.
2. The fewer are the collocations made known to the L2 learners, the more are they compelled to use longer expressions and run into the pitfalls of grammatical errors and unusual phrasing [**miscollocations**] to communicate responses and information that a native speaker would have expressed with a felicity of precise lexical phrase and correspondingly little grammatical mistakes.

Collocation errors abound in the writings and utterances of English language learners. Two major factors that contribute to miscollocations are learners' lack of exposure to the English language and the interference of their mother tongue (such as subject verb agreement with number and person). Collocation errors are of different types, with Lexical miscollocation and prepositional miscollocation being the two common types.

Lexical miscollocation

The term 'lexicon' refers to the words used in a language. A collocation, by definition, is the co-occurrence of lexical items, the base and the collocate. In the case of *fast food*, food is the base and fast is the collocate. Similarly, in *heavy rain*, rain is the base and heavy is the collocate. The use of the collocate in a collocation

is restricted by the base. Here are some common lexical collocation errors:

small fortune NOT little fortune, take a walk NOT make a walk, inflict pain NOT create pain, make an appointment NOT take an appointment, make a mistake NOT do a mistake.

In British English, some verbs that collocate with the base are *have/arrange, book, fix* and in American English, the verbs that collocate with the base are *make, schedule and reschedule*.

Prepositional miscollocation

It is said that mastering prepositions is a challenge for the non-native speakers of English. In traditional approaches to grammar the appropriacy of prepositions to the base word is grouped under the title: APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS. O’Dell and McCarthy refer to certain examples given below:

deprived of NOT deprived from, denied of NOT denied from, suffer from NOT suffer with, die of NOT die from, absorbed in NOT absorbed with, good at NOT good in, addicted to NOT addicted with. The employees are deprived of their freedom and denied of their rights.

“*One forgets words as one forgets names. One’s vocabulary needs constant fertilising or it will die.*”- Evelyn Waugh(O’Dell & McCarthy, 2008).

This is presented in the tabular form;

Acceptable	Not acceptable
Deprived of: The employees are deprived of their freedom	Denied from:
Denied of: Prisoners were denied of their rights by the jail warden	Deprived from:
Suffer from:	Suffer with:

The Cambridge Learner Corpus, a corpus of language for students shows which kinds of collocation errors learners, especially L2 learners tend to make. These corpora show that there are many thousands of collocations in English, and many more miscollocations in speech and writing of the L2 learners.

14.4 Error Analysis

Error analysis in collocation may serve as an effective tool to improve L2 writing proficiency. Recent studies indicate that the sense of **collocational error analysis** as well as its implications for teaching strategies for the L2 learners can be a compensating and moderating factor in SLA. For example, Richards (1971) claims that error analysis is a technique to identify the sources and causes of the learners' errors and to access information on general problems in language learning as an aid to language teaching.

Lewis does not entirely reject grammar. He offers the importance of vocabulary in Lexical Approach. In his view, grammar is important in so far as it consolidates the lexical approach in teaching. Therefore, it is not the case to substitute grammar teaching with vocabulary teaching, but that both should be present in teaching a foreign language. A proper synthesis of lexical and grammatical approaches is conducive to learning English for the L2 learners or for SLA.

Lewis (1997) holds that lexical approach is not simply a shift of emphasis from grammar to vocabulary teaching, as 'language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary, but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks'. Chunks include collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and idioms, which in his view, occupy a crucial role in facilitating language production, being the key to fluency.

Smith (2007) contends that remembering and using vocabulary is easier in the form of collocations. As Lewis (2000) points out, knowing a word is much more a case of knowing *how to use it* and *what words collocate with it* than *simply knowing what it means*. He exemplifies 'wound' and 'injury', the difference being only their collocational range, for example 'a stab wound' but not 'a stab injury'. Gitsaki (1996) underscores the importance of the study of collocation in tandem with grammar.

At a deeper level of language lexis and grammar cannot be separated. They are intertwined. Consequently, the two categories - lexical and grammatical collocations - represent two distinctive but related aspects of one phenomenon. Grammatical collocations usually consist of a noun, an adjective or a verb plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as 'to+infinitive' or 'that-clause', e.g. *by accident, to be afraid of*, etc. Lexical collocations do not contain grammatical elements, but are combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs such as *reject an appeal, strong tea, hopelessly addicted* (Bahns, 1993). A grammatical collocation, in contrast to a lexical collocation, is a phrase that consists of a noun, an adjective, or a verb plus a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause (Benson et al., 1986).

Generally, *non-congruent collocations*, collocations that do not have translation equivalents in L1 have been demonstrated to present more difficulty for learners than *congruent collocations* which have L1 equivalents. Kaur and Hegelheimer (2005)

examine whether the use of an online *concordance programme* together with an *online dictionary* by the advanced second language learners is useful in the transfer of word knowledge to an academic writing task. Their experiments and results indicate that there is statistically a significant transfer of vocabulary knowledge to the writing task. They state that formal writing in an academic setting required by the L2 learners to have a strong linguistic foundation, including a vast range of lexical skills.

They call attention to the fact that the L2 learners do not have as much exposure to the target language as native speakers do. So they have a more limited command of the language as well as of vocabulary. Native speakers of English learn new words all their lives through interactions with other speakers and exposure to the language in formal and informal situations, but the L2 learners' exposure to and use of the target language is often limited.

Some Examples of *Miscollocation*:

It is *bull dung*. [shit]

1. It is *cow shit*. [dung]
2. Our company registered a *strong increase* in profit *previous year*. [steep/sharp/high; last]
3. You will face a *high peer competition* there.
4. Market leaders hope the new policies will *stimulus growth*. [stimulate/ promote]
5. He loves me *dearly*. [deeply/passionately]
6. It is a *little increase/decrease* in temperature. [marginal/slight]
7. Exports are now four times *larger than* imports. [higher/greater]
8. We are gradually *getting aware* of the negative effects of climate change. [becoming]
9. My friend takes a *different opinion* of the matter. [view]

In the examples given above, grammar in terms of syntax and morphology, except in example 5, has not been sacrificed. Yet they are ***Miscollocation*** as they do not meet the native speaker/writer's usage and style. They sound awkward or unnatural or even amusing to the native speaker, although they may be understood.

The Advanced Oxford and Cambridge Learners' Dictionaries provide the meanings of stem/entry words alongside illustrating each word's usage and collocations. Databases of language, known as **corpora**, are used to correlate speech and text to identification of the most frequent collocations. It is a prudent approach to pick collocations from looking up word-entries in these dictionaries for a L2 or Second Language Learner.

So, an awareness of collocation is *highly recommended* if we intend to impress people with our natural and competent use of language and to score more credits in English examinations. [Following the standard collocation pattern, it is *highly recommended*, or *strongly recommended*, not ‘severely recommended’.]

Collocational errors that the L2 learners are likely to commit are the transferences of L1 elements in their native language combinations which unfortunately are not always acceptable collocations in the target language. The L2 learners’ lack of knowledge of collocational patterns of lexical items makes them prone to all sorts of collocational errors, which can be more disruptive in communication than grammatical errors

From the traditional points of view of psychologists, linguists, and language teachers, *vocabulary is considered secondary* in importance for successful language learning and treated as separate from grammar. While vocabulary studies are often back-seated, the value of vocabulary acquisition has been recently recognized (Allen, 1983; Laufer, 1986; Coady, 1997; Zimmerman, 1997, & Shand, 1999, Lewis (1993), as of prime importance in second language acquisition.

Lewis (1993), one of the foremost scholars of ELT, shook the entire ELT world by stressing the importance of vocabulary in a broader area called **lexical approach**. According to this approach, an essential part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical patterns and phrases as chunks; these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar (Lewis, 1993). Certainly, this approach distinguishes between groups of individual words with fixed meanings and lexis which refer to word combinations that are stored in our mental lexicon. Accordingly, the lexical approach has redirected our attention to institutionalized utterances and expressions including collocations which are necessary to acquire native-like competence in the second language.

Task 2 Identify wrongly used Collocations and mention the correct forms

- a) She insisted me that I take a few days off from my work.
- b) We explained the client the situation.
- c) The interview was broadcasted live over the internet.
- d) Never before had I seen something quite like that.
- e) She is trying to concentrate herself on finishing her degree.

Task 3 Identify common mistakes in emails and correct them.

- a) Thank you for bringing this to our notice.
- b) As asked for, I have added a purchase order.
- c) Please let me know if you require any extra assistance.

d) Thank you for your fast response.

Your answer:

Answers for Task 2

- a. She insisted that I take a few days off from my work.
- b. We explained the situation to the client.
- c. The interview was broadcast live over the internet.
- d. Never before I had seen something quite like that.
- e. She is trying to concentrate on finishing her degree.

Answers for Task 3

- a. Thank you for bring this to our attention.
- b. As requested I have added a purchase order.
- c. Please let me know if you require any additional assistance.
- d. Thank you for your prompt response.

14.5 Lexi-Grammatical Categories Of Collocation

It is a synthetic approach to viewing collocations without any bias to their grammatical and lexical configurations. Studying different types of grammatical and lexical collocations provide insight into the order and pattern of their development in second language learning. By doing a systematic study and analysis of grammatical and lexical collocations, a second language learner can comprehend how collocations form an essential part of language as spoken and written.

The following tables include all possible variations of collocations:

LEXIGRAMMATICAL TABLES[LGT]

NOUN +NOUN(O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008)

Noun + noun collocations are descriptive Noun Phrases usually signifying a group or set or cluster of something. It may also refer to quantity, as *a spate of river water*. Examples: **a spate of crimes/ attacks/thefts a barrage/fusillade of questions/insults** from the angry audience

• Noun + noun collocations are also used with uncountable nouns:**A fit of fury; a stroke of luck a snippet of information ; a piece of information**

VERB + NOUN

verb	noun	example sentences/uses of collocations
drew up	a contract	Our agent <i>drew up a contract</i> for us <i>to sign it</i> .
pass up	chance	She does not want to <i>pass up the chance</i> of <i>visiting London</i> .
take	advantage	I failed to <i>take advantage</i> of <i>making the profit</i> .
works arrest	medicine growth	No <i>medicine works</i> to <i>arrest the growth</i> of the tumor.

NOUN + VERB

noun	verb	example sentences/uses of collocations
<i>opportunity</i>	arose	An <i>opportunity arose</i> for me to <i>go in for</i> Ph. D courses at IIT
<i>people</i>	feel; have	fallen/slipped People feel educational <i>standards</i> <i>have fallen/slipped</i> <i>these days</i>

OTHER EXAMPLES: **building collapses; crisis brews up etc.**

ADJECTIVE + NOUN [+ VERB]

adjective	noun	example sentences/uses of collocations
hardboiled	egg	<i>Hardboiled egg</i> is not <i>good for health</i> .
little	girl	This <i>little girl</i> is <i>extremely good at dancing</i>
small	machine	This <i>small machine</i> will not <i>serve/do the purpose</i> .

OTHER EXAMPLES: **idle threat; vain hope; abortive attempt; mounting concern/criticism/fury/unemployment; growing concern; simple/plain truth; high thinking, high time** etc.

NOUN + ADJECTIVE[LATINATE COLLOCATIONS]

noun	adjective	example sentences/uses of collocations
vale	profound	“O listen! for the <i>Vale profound</i> Is overflowing with the sound”[Wordsworth: The Solitary Reaper]
meadows	trim	“ <i>Meadows trim</i> with daisies pied” [Milton: L’Allegro]

ADVERB + ADJECTIVE

adverb	adjective	example sentences/uses of collocations
<p>Intensely; stunningly; highly; severely; technologically.</p> <p><i>NOTE: Adjectives with '-ly' suffix usually become Adverbs. Again nouns with -ly suffix, become adjectives.</i></p>	<p>personal;attractive; inflammable; sick; improved [past participle form]</p>	<p>Lyric <i>proper</i> is an <i>intensely personal form of poetry</i> account of the writer's relationship with his sons.She is a <i>stunningly attractive lady</i>.</p> <p><i>highly inflammable; severely sick; technologically improved</i> etc.</p>

VERB + ADVERB OR PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Verb	Adverb or prepositional phrase	example sentences/uses of collocations
<p>failed drive burst run</p>	<p><i>miserably</i> <i>recklessly</i> <i>into singing/into a song</i> <i>into an accident</i></p>	<p>Whenever I tried to write a poem, I failed miserably.</p> <p>Never <i>drive recklessly</i>, if you don't want to run into an accident.</p> <p>Looking at the moon-blanced seashore, she <i>burst into singing/a song</i></p> <p>The dog is <i>foaming at the mouth</i>; I apprehend [not expect] that it will not survive.</p>

14.6 Complex Collocations

ADJECTIVE + NOUN + ADJECTIVE [LATINATE TYPE]

adjective	Noun	adjective	example sentences/uses of collocations
<i>forced</i>	<i>Fingers</i>	<i>rude</i>	I come to pluck your <i>berries harsh and crude</i> ,And with <i>forc'd fingers rude</i> [Milton: <i>Lycidas</i>]
<i>sad</i>	<i>Occasion</i>	<i>Dear</i>	Bitter constraint and <i>sad occasion dear</i> Compels me to disturb your <i>season due</i> [Milton: <i>Lycidas</i>]

More Complex Collocations:

Don't be upset over what has happened;**take it easy for a while**.

It's time you **put the past behind you** and look to the future.

Task 4 Identify the adjective noun collocations from the following:

- The names are listed in alphabetical order.
- Success depends on a clear understanding of the problem.
- Beyond this close circle are more distant relatives and casual friends.
- I couldn't see familiar faces in the room.
- For the spoken language, students are taught by the native speakers.

Your answer:

14.7 Aspects Of Verb Collocations

[Except the simple present and simple past all collocating verbs are *aspects* of the tenses]

Tables of illustration: *Node / Base:* Do-Verb

Present aspect of collocating verbs	Past aspect of collocating verbs	Future aspect of collocating verbs	Modal aspect of collocating verbs
Is done Are done Is being done Are being done Is to be done	Have done Has done Has been done Have to do Has to do Have to be done Has to be done Had done Had been done	Will do Shall do Will be done Shall be done <i>Will have done</i> <i>Shall have done</i> Will be doing Shall be doing Will have to do Shall have to do [italicized verb-collocations in this group are obsolete]	Should do Should be done Should have done Should have been done Would do Would have done Would have been done Could do Could be done Could have done Could have been done Might do Might be done Might have done Might have been done

Task 5: Identify the verb collocations

- 'You and me, today we are going to break a record,' he said.
- The committee had made serious objections to that plan.
- It is easy to make a mistake.
- The old man is going to go crazy.
- You get wet in the rain.

Your answer:

14.8 Collocations and Compounds

It is not easy to separate **collocations** from **compounds**.

Both items form an important part of the vocabulary studies. Logically compounds are to be considered a type of collocation which is fixed and hyphenated in case of repeated letters in the coalescing two parts of a compound, that is, the last letter of

the constituent first part and the initial letter of the second part. For example, the word co-occurrence is a compound, with a hyphen between co and occurrence. If it is *co-operation*, the same rule applies to it. But if it is *coexistence*, no hyphen comes between co and existence. In the US variant of English compound as an extension of collocation, this law of hyphenation in compound is not followed. We have to keep it in mind that natural lexical collocations are not always logical. They have taken shape through popular native use.

There is, for example, no obvious reason why we say making friends rather than getting friends or heavy rain, not strong rain. Learners also need to know when specific collocations are appropriate. This is usually referred to by linguists as knowing which register to use. Alight from a bus is a formal collocation used in notices and other official contexts. In everyday situations we would, of course, always talk about getting off a bus. (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008)

Questions are a galore in any incisive and comprehensive study of vocabulary in terms of the parentheses of Collocation, Idiom and Phrase. In the next two units will unfold the myriad facets of these Lexi-grammatical categories of collocations.

The collocations presented in this Module are selected largely from those identified as significant by the CANCODE corpus of spoken English, developed at the University of Nottingham in association with Cambridge University Press, and the Cambridge International Corpus of written and spoken English (now known as the Cambridge English Corpus).

In discussing the problems and aspects of collocations, idioms and phrases in a continuum, we have to take into consideration the following questions:

- *Why is learning collocations in itself a special field of study for the L2 learners?*
- *How do idioms and phrases form a set of relationships, lexically and syntactically, with the concept and categories of collocations, discussed in the preceding units?*

14.9 Need for Learning Collocations

We need to be familiar with collocations because,

1. They help us *speak and write English in a natural* and appropriate way.
We are not supposed to use, "I was held up or stranded in **hard or strong or severe rain** this morning, although it communicates in some way the intended meaning but our language sounds unnatural to the point of confusing the listener.
2. Learning collocations will also help us increase our range of English vocabulary.

For example, we will come up with a set of vocabulary to avoid words like *very* or *nice* or *beautiful* or *get*, and pick a word that fits the context better and has a more precise meaning.

3. This is particularly useful if we go in for a written examination in English and want to make a good impression on the examiners. In advanced level examinations, marks are often specifically awarded for the appropriate handling of collocations.
4. Skilled users of the language may choose to create effects by varying the normal patterns of collocation, with the aim of either startling or amusing their audience. This technique is particularly popular with poets, journalists and advertisers. From an appreciation of the way in which creative writers play with language, we may then even want to move on to use words in more original and creative ways ourselves. We are more likely to be able to do this effectively if we have assimilated the standard patterns of language use.

14.10 Summary

In this unit we have looked at collocations and their place in language use. We have shown how collocations add to the flavour of the language we use. However, learning collocations is a conscious effort and this is demonstrated by illustrating a few miscollocations that we often slip upon. Collocations are words that bind together and their relationship cannot be ignored. Further, we have classified the collocations into various groups based on their composition and stability. Based on stability, we have two types: strong and weak collocations. These help us in honing our ability to write and speak better.

14.11 Review Questions

1. Collocations play a centrally important role in second language acquisition: Justify.
2. What are the metaphoric, symbolic and transfigural overtones of collocation?
3. What are the difficulties faced by the second language learners in choosing the right and appropriate collocations?
4. Distinguish between lexical miscollocations and grammatical miscollocations.
5. Complete the collocations using the words in the box.

Adjourn auburn broad deliriously inclement mitigating picturesque

[some words may be used more than once]

- a. an.....accent
 - b. in.....agreement
 - c.circumstances
 - d.factors
 - e.hair
 - f.happy
 - g.a smile
 - h.a location
 - i.a meeting
 - j.a town
 - k.a trial
 - l.weather
6. Rewrite each sentence using a collocation from 1.
 - a. Melissa has quite a strong *Scottish accent*.
 - b. *Bad weather* led to the cancellation of the President's garden party.
 - c. We were all very happy when we heard we'd *won the award*.
 - d. Their new home was in a very *pretty location*.
 - e. Because there were *circumstances* that made the theft less serious, the judge let him off with a warning.
 - f. I think we should *stop the meeting* now and continue it tomorrow.
 - g. She had a *big smile* on her face when she arrived.
 - h. She has lovely *reddish-brown hair*.
 - i. I think we're generally *in agreement* as to what should be done. Think of as many collocations as you can for each word.
 7. Choose an English-language text that you have worked on recently. Underline five collocations in it. Are these collocations weak, strong or fixed?
 8. Choose any ten collocations that are most important to you and make sentences with them.
 9. Choose from the given text and underline five collocations in it. Are these collocations weak, strong or fixed?

'There is, for example, no obvious reason why we say making friends rather than getting friends or heavy rain, not strong rain. Learners also need to know when specific collocations are appropriate. This is usually referred to by linguists as knowing which register to use. Alight from a bus is a formal collocation used in notices and other official contexts. In everyday situations we would, of course, always talk about getting off a bus.'
 10. How would you distinguish between **collocations** and **compounds**?

Unit 15 □ Teaching Vocabulary–Form and Meaning-I

15.1 Introduction

15.2 Objectives

15.3 Vocabulary as important component of Second Language Learning

15.3.1 Assumptive Acquirement of Vocabulary [AAV]

15.3.2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

15.4 Academic Vocabulary and Collocations

15.4.1 How should We Approach Studying Collocations

15.4.2 Idioms and phrase

15.5 Summary

15.6 Review Questions

15.7 Reading List

15.1 Introduction

Vocabulary as part of a content is considered a critical aspect of foreign language learners. A limited range of vocabulary in a second language impedes the flow of communication. Lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language. The correlation between vocabulary knowledge and language practice is complementary. Knowledge of vocabulary enables *active language use* [ALC] and the use of language expands the horizon of vocabulary stock. Therefore, there is a symbiotic relationship between possessing good vocabulary and language competence.

15.2 Objectives

At the end of this unit, the learners will:

- a. Understand the importance of learning vocabulary,
- b. Become familiar with some strategies to learn vocabulary,
- c. Understand the differences between collocations, idioms and phrases,
- d. Understand the importance of collocations, idioms and phrases in learning vocabulary.

15.3 Vocabulary as an Important Component of Second Language Learning

In classroom, the gifted learners possess both the appropriacy and the sufficiency of vocabulary. Researchers such as Laufer and Nation (1997); Maximo (2000); Read (2000; 2004); Marion (2008); Susanto (2016); and Nation (2001) among others hold that the acquisition of vocabulary is more essential than grammar learning for achieving competence in the use of foreign language as spoken and written by the native users.

Learning vocabulary plays a crucial role in all language skills, e.g. listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful foreign language use because without an extensive vocabulary, a language learner will be unable to use the structures and functions that go into the production of intelligible communication. The lack of vocabulary knowledge is the largest barrier to readers to manage the production and comprehension of English as a second/foreign language. When language learners travel, they do not carry grammar books, but dictionaries. Many researchers argue that vocabulary is one of the most important components in learning a foreign language. A second language curriculum should necessarily reflect a due weight on vocabulary studies. There is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one runs short of expressive vocabulary needed to convey what one wishes to say. Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. Maximo (2000) states a number of reasons for directing our attention to vocabulary.

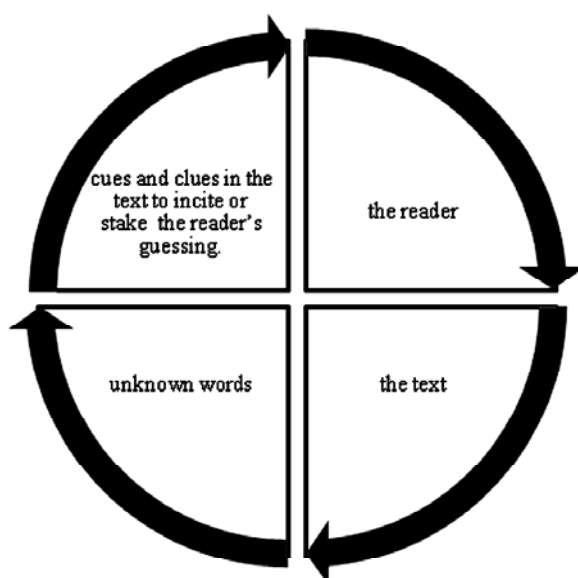
- First, a large vocabulary is, of course, essential for mastery of a language.
- Secondly, language acquirers know this; they carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly report that the lack of vocabulary is a major problem.
- Thirdly, vocabulary has been acknowledged as the language learners' greatest single cause of problems (Meara, 1980). An open-endedness of **vocabulary skill development system [VSDS]** is a necessity in teaching and learning the second/foreign language. Vocabulary is by far the most sizeable segment of SLA to cope with in examinations as well as in everyday communications across the borders.
- Fourthly, unlike syntax or phonology, vocabulary does not have a set of rules for the language learners to follow in order to acquire and develop their knowledge. In other words, it is not clear in vocabulary learning which rules apply or which vocabulary items should be learned first. Although, many

experiments have been conducted to select and grade vocabulary to be learnt, since 1905.

Vocabulary learning management [VLM] also poses a challenge to the L2 learners of any language, because of different and diverse meanings that may go with a single word-item. Despite these difficulties, vocabulary has traditionally been one of the language components measured in language tests. Furthermore, many learners see second language acquisition [SLA] as essentially a matter of learning vocabulary and therefore the second language learners spend a great deal of time on memorizing lists of words and rely on their bilingual dictionaries as a basic communicative resource. It may be safely concluded that language teachers and applied linguists now generally recognize the importance of vocabulary learning and are exploring ways of promoting it more effectively.

15.3.1. Assumptive Acquisition of Vocabulary [AAV]-Teaching vocabulary through guessing from Context

There are two types of contexts. The first type is the *context within the text*, which includes morphological, semantic and syntactic information in a specific text. The second one is the *general context*, or *non-textual context*, which is the background knowledge the reader has about the subjects being studied. Learning from context not only includes learning from extensive reading, but also learning from taking part in a conversation, and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio. In order to activate guessing in a written or spoken text, there should be **four elements** available:



The absence of word annotations or glossaries appended to the given text is one of these elements that may adversely affect the learner's ability to guess. Moreover, this technique encourages learners to take risks and guess the meanings of words they do not know as much as possible. This helps them build up their self-confidence so that they can work out the meanings of words when they are on their own. There are many clues learners can use to establish meanings for themselves, such as contextuality, illustrations, similarity of spelling or sound in the mother tongue, and general knowledge.

Task 1: State the type of context clues from the following:

- | | |
|---|------------------|
| a) Is/ are known as/ are called/ are defined as | Restatement |
| b) In other words, that is to say | Definition |
| c) For instance, like, especially, such as | Contrast |
| d) Yet, however, whereas, but | Cause and effect |
| e) Because, therefore, so, because, | Example |
| f) My neighbour is so affluent that he can afford expensive sports car each year. | Inference |

Your answer:

Task 2: Name the content clues from the examples:

- After a year in India, she ran out of money. So she had to look for a job.
- Hari loves reading fiction but Manish despises it.
- She was bored of the vapid discussions.
- During the day, we sometimes saw animals such as elephants and foxes.
- A pseudonym or penname is used to hide the identity of the writer.
- Pragmatics is the study of how people use language in social situations.

Your answer:

Answers for Task 1: a-definition, b-restatement, c-example, d-contrast, e-cause effect, f-inference.

Answers for Task 2: a-cause effect, b-contrast, c-inference, d-example, e-restatement, f-definition

15.3.2. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Strategies are communicative procedures that learners use in order to learn and use language. Strategies also involve mental reactions and assumptions in the learning process. Learning strategies are the thoughts and actions that individuals use to accomplish a *learning goal*. Subekti and Lawson (2007) plead for the effectiveness

of the application of certain vocabulary learning strategies that provide empirical evidence of the role of AAV in mastering new words by a second language learner. Oxford (2003) more specifically states that learning strategies are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. An appropriate language learning strategy should result in a greater self-confidence of the second language learner.

15.4 Academic Vocabulary Collocations

Producing academic essays is different from writing personal accounts because the former requires transforming knowledge. The L2 learners have to be aware of how to process information and transfer it by using effective vocabulary. Therefore, if the learners do not have a broad range of productive and academic vocabulary knowledge, they are not expected to produce the types of writings required from them in an academic set-up. Granger (1998), Howarth (1998), and Nesselhauf (2003) also conducted studies in which they analysed the writings of the advanced L2 learners. They identified deficiencies in learners' writing production. It is noteworthy that only Howarth was dealing specifically with *academic vocabulary collocations*. However, researchers and scholars in the field of ELT conclude that the learners' lack of knowledge of collocations affect the learners' writing competence. These scholars' researches funnel to the point that learners across all levels of L2 face difficulty in collocating words. Indeed, there exists a strong linear correlation between writing proficiency and using collocations. The development of the L2 learners' collocational competence contributes to the improvement not only of communicative competence but also of their writing abilities.

Task 3: Select the verbs that collocate with the following paradigms:

Clue- come, take, make, break, keep, and have.

A promise	A mistake	An exam	A promise	Prepared	A lecture
A record	An offer	A vacation	In touch	On time	A dream
Someone's heart	A decision	A decision	A journal	To power	A discussion
Up	An effort	A chance	In mind	Early	In mind
Down	Payment	Care	Safe	To a stop	A break
Even	A choice	Advice	Away	To an end	A party
A leg	Clear	A picture	Records	close	A meeting

Your answer:

15.4.1. How should We Approach Studying Collocations

We need a notebook or file to write down the collocations that we find or hear from all possible sources that include prescribed texts, web-resources, tutors, audio-visual aids, books and journal articles alongside a good usage-illustrative dictionary like the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* or *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* or *Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English*.

15.4.2. Idiom and phrase

At the level of grammar and lexis, **idioms, phrasal verbs and compound nouns** are also types within the ambit of collocation. As mentioned earlier, when a particular collocation generates meaning beyond the literal frame, it becomes an idiom or phrase with extra-literal, metaphoric or figural meaning. There is only a semantic difference of meaning between collocation and idiom or phrase.

In other words, when Collocation eclipses its literal frame of meaning to take on extra-literal idiomatic, metaphoric and figural charges, we enter the transformational arena of collocation in terms of idiom and verbal phrase. To begin with, we may refer to Wordsworth's use of 'see into' in one of the very suggestive lines in his poem, *Tintern Abbey*. He says: With an eye made quiet by the power of harmony/ we *see into* the life of things. At the level of grammar, placement of '*into*' after the transitive verb 'see' is not permissible. Seeing is done by the eye. So addition of 'an eye' to *seeing* is apparently a flaw of redundancy.

Yet Wordsworth makes an excellent innovative, poetic and figural use of SEE INTO in the context this collocation appears breaking the established and antecedent rules of grammar. Wordsworth collocates *see into* in order to signify the pantheist vision of or insight into the spirit of a trans-singular, absolute oneness that permeates the contraries and diversities of the universe. This Wordsworthian collocation is not necessarily a poet's exclusive prerogative while it may coextend to any creative user of language without affecting the *tonal concordance* of language.

Let us review a few phrasal verbs and compound nouns as types of collocation. O'Dell and McCarthy provide some very apposite examples we cite here. They are: Phrasal verbs such as *come up with, run up, adhere to* and compound nouns such as *economy drive, stock market*. As to the formation of these types of phrasal verbs and compounds there is no rationale as admitted by the foremost scholars and linguists.

There is, for example, no obvious reason why we say making friends rather than getting friends or heavy rain, not strong rain. Learners also need to know when

specific collocations are appropriate. This is usually referred to by linguists as knowing which register to use. Alight from a bus is a formal collocation used in notices and other official contexts. In everyday situations we would, of course, always talk about getting off a bus(O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008).

Task 4: Give the meanings for the following idioms:

- a. Hit the sack
- b. Buy a lemon
- c. Eat crow
- d. Down-to-earth
- e. Pull yourself together

Your answer:

Task 5: Identify- noun+ noun combination or compound noun?

- a. Homework
- b. Password
- c. Air conditioner
- d. Orange juice
- e. Cheese burger
- f. Runner-up

Your answer:

Answer for Task 4: a) go to bed. b) to buy something that doesn't work well, c) to have to admit that you made a mistake, d) sensible and realistic, e) clam down

15.5 Summary

This unit focuses on developing the vocabulary skills of L2 learners, that is, the learners of English as the second language. It also introduces you to the lexical orientation of language learning for the L2 learners rather than the traditional grammatical tilt.

15.6 Review Questions

Part A:

The review questions in this section are adapted from (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008)

1. Match the two parts: BASE and COLLOCATE of the following. (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2008)

1. adhere to.....rain
2. arouse.....different
3. blond..... of wisdom
4. come up with.....your principles
5. flatly..... an economy drive
6. fundamentally.....a seminar
7. go onsomeone's interest
8. heavy..... contradict
9. lead..... hair
10. a lick..... the stock market
11. play..... of paint
12. words..... a suggestion

2. Write F (formal), I (informal) or N (neutral) in the brackets at the end of each sentence.

In each pair of sentences, there is one neutral sentence and one formal / informal sentence.

Underline the collocations that are noticeably formal or informal.

1.
 - a. Passengers must not alight from the bus while it is in motion.
("formal/" informal)
 - b. Passengers must not get off the bus while it is moving.
("formal/" informal)
2.
 - a. Let's grab a bite before we get down to work. (" formal/" informal)
 - b. Let's have something to eat before we start work. (" formal/" informal)
3.
 - a. SFTS has the right to bring the agreement to an end with three months' notice.
("formal/" informal)

- b. SFTS reserves the right to terminate the agreement with three months' notice.

(“formal/” informal)

4.

- a. She thinks her boyfriend is planning to pop the question tonight.

(“formal/” informal)

- b. She thinks her boyfriend is planning to ask her to marry him tonight.

(“formal/” informal)

Part B:

3. Choose which collocations are most important to you and make sentences with them. Choose an English-language text that you have worked on recently. Underline five collocations in it. Are these collocations weak, strong or fixed?
4. How would you justify that idioms, phrasal verbs and compound nouns are also subtypes within the ambit of Collocation.
5. ‘There exists a strong linear correlation between writing proficiency and using collocations.’ Discuss.
6. Discuss the difference between *context within the text* and *general context*.
7. Write a note on *academic vocabulary collocations*.
8. What are the factors that may adversely affect the learner’s ability to guess or effectively assume meaning from a given text?
9. In vocabulary study how effective is the Assumptive Acquisition of Vocabulary [AAV]- teaching vocabulary through guessing from context?
10. List down a number of reasons for directing our attention to vocabulary study.
11. Do you think that the lexical orientation of language learning for the L2 learners rather than the traditional grammatical tilt is more important? If so, state the reasons.

15.7 Reading List

1. Felicity O’Dell & Michael McCarthy, 2008. *English Collocations in Use: Advanced*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
2. Thornbury Scott. *How to Teach Vocabulary* – London: Pearson Longman. 2002
3. Nation I S P (2005). In Hinkel, E *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Abingdon; Routledge.

Unit 16 □ Teaching Vocabulary-Word Building Exercises

- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Objectives
- 16.3 MWEs vis-à-vis Idioms and Phrasal verbs
 - 16.3.1 Defining Idiom:Idiomaticity
 - 16.3.2. Idioms and Collocations
 - 16.3.3. Etymological Definition of Idiom
- 16.4 Phrasal Verbs
 - 16.4.1. Transitivity of Phrasal Verbs
 - 16.4.2 Word Order
 - 16.4.3. Split Phrasal Verb
- 16.5 Preview List of Idioms
 - 16.5.1 Goose Egg – Idioms
 - 16.5.2. History of *Goose Egg Idioms*
- 16.6 Summary
- 16.7 Review Questions
- 16.8 References
- 16.9 Reading List

16.1 Introduction

Both idioms and phrasal verbs are collocational transfiguration/ displaced duplication of the constituent words from their literal or dictionary meanings to non-literal signification. In other words, idioms and phrasal verbs are figurative word combinations. Therefore the range of idioms and phrasal verbs are enormous. It is advisable to directly access the rich store of idioms and phrasal verbs though several mobile applications.

16.2 Objectives

The objective of unit 16 is to introduce the learner to:

- review idioms and verbal phrases in the backdrop of Collocations,

- MWEs (*Multi-word Expressions*),
- the terms of references to idioms,
- the terms of references to verbal phrase.

16.3 Multi-word Expressions [MWEs] vis-à-bid Idioms And Phrasal Verbs

Language as we experience on a daily basis is largely ‘formulaic’, or ‘prefabricated’, rather than completely *novel* or *ingeniously framed on each utterance*, word-by-word. In English, we tend to wish someone a *good morning*, rather than other plausible possibilities, such as a *blessed, pleasant, fine, or enjoyable morning*. Despite the potentially infinite creativity of language, a large number of words tend to co-occur with some particular words more often than with other words, seemingly synonymous ones, and those combinations and re-combinations often appear to be ‘*differential representation*’ in the native speaker’s mental lexicon.

These recurrent and preponderant word combinations – which we usually call Collocations – are essentially *multi-word expressions* (MWEs). MWEs can be defined as semi-fixed, recurrent phrases, such as collocations (strong tea), binomials (black and white), multi-word verbs (put up with), idioms (spill the beans), proverbs (better late than never), speech formulae (What’s up), lexical bundles (in the middle of), and other types. MWEs are combinations of words that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance alone (Manning and Schutze 1999).Crucially, MWEs are pervasive in language.

Task 1 Identify the multiword expressions

1. Safe and sound
2. In the context of
3. Sick and tired
4. A number of studies
5. Wait and see
6. All’s well that ends well
7. Pros and Cons

Your answer:

16.3.1 Defining Idiom:Idiomacity

There are many dimensions of idiomacity. Attempts to provide categorical, single-criterion definitions of idioms are always to some degree misleading. In linguistic discourses and lexicographical practices, ‘idiom’ is applied to a category defined on the one hand by the prototypical examples like *kick the bucket*, and on the other by implicit opposition to related categories like formulae, fixed phrases, collocations, clichés, sayings, proverbs, and allusions— terms which, like ‘idiom’ itself, inhabit the intermediate realm between meta-language and the theoretical terminology of linguistics. By virtue of these oppositions, idioms occupy a region in a multidimensional lexical space, characterized by a number of distinct properties: semantic, syntactic, discursive, and rhetorical. When we say that an expression like *kick the bucket* or *shoot the breeze* is a prototypical idiom, for example, we are probably making that judgment on the basis of a number of more-or-less *orthogonal properties* of the phrase. Among them more remarkable are these:

- **Conventionality:** Idioms are conventionalized: their meaning or use cannot be predicted, or at least entirely predicted, on the basis of knowledge of the independent conventions that determine the use of their constituents when they appear in isolation from one another.
- **Inflexibility:** Idioms typically appear only in a limited number of syntactic frames or constructions, unlike freely composed expressions (e.g. *the breeze was shot, *the breeze is hard to shoot, etc.).
- **Figuration:** Idioms typically involve metaphors (*take the bull by the horns*, metonymies (*lend a hand*, *count heads*), hyperboles (*not worth the paper it’s printed on*), or other kinds of figuration. Of course speakers may not always perceive the precise motive for the figure involved—why *shoot the breeze* should be used to mean ‘chat’, for example, or *kick the bucket* to mean ‘die’—but they generally perceive that some form of figuration is involved, at least to the extent of being able to assign to the idiom a ‘ meaning’.

C.F. Hockett explains,

There are certain matters which are relevant both in understanding how a language works at a given time and also in connection with linguistic change. One clear example of this is idiom-formation.

Every language retains idioms with the specialized features in linguistic forms. Idiom is functional and is one of the manifold figurative speeches in linguistics. It is commonly being used by the people of a particular region or country for informal and formal, spoken and written purposes. And yet, while trying to define the idiom, it still remains to be complicated and tough to debate upon a precise scope or limitation of it even today.

According to Hockett,

“the mere occurrence of a nonce-form for the first time does not in itself constitute the creation of a new idiom. An additional ingredient is required: something more or less unusual either about the structure of the newly-produced nonce-form, or about the attendant circumstances, or both, which the form memorable multi-word expression that we call idiom”.

Interestingly, all idioms dislocate the constituent words from their localized literal meaning. Given any such novelty, either of expression or of circumstances or of both, the event or context of their origin *“bestows special meaning on the linguistic form which is used, or the latter becomes idiomatic.”*

Task 2: Analyse the following idioms according to their characteristics:

- a. Up in the air
- b. Break a leg
- c. Kill two birds with one stone
- d. Two to tango
- e. On cloud nine

Your answer:

- a. The meaning of the idiom is partly reflected from its constituents. This idiom means that the situation being planned is still undecided, and that everything is still uncertain or unsure. This has rhetoric features.
- b. This is an idiom that can freely occur with expressions. Break a leg is a wish of good luck to theatre performers before going on stage, due to the belief amongst those in theatre that being wished “good luck” is a curse. The meaning is total opposite for what it seems to mean. This has discursive characteristics.
- c. When you kill two birds with one stone, a single action knocks out two tasks or responsibilities—accomplish two different things at the same time. The meaning is flexible as it can occur with unlimited expressions.
- d. The idiom is a figuration, where the meaning is predicted from its constituents. It literally does take two to tango. You can’t dance the tango unless you have a partner. But this idiom means that if there’s a suspicious situation, then there’s more than one culprit.
- e. If you are in cloud nine you are very happy. For example, I was in cloud nine after receiving the news of my promotion. This is a conventional idiom as the meaning is derived from the individual words.

16.3.2. Idioms and Collocations

Idiom is the transfiguration of Collocation — words commonly used in a group — that through usage changes the literal and semantic definition of each of the words that exists within its lexical parenthesis. The collocated/collocating words develop an accepted socialized meaning as a whole and an idiom is born. John Saeed defines “... *an idiom as words collocated together which become fossilized, and fixed over time.*” (Saeed, 2003). According to the detailed introduction of the *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms* (the rest: ODEI), “Historically, **pure idioms** form the end-point of a process by which **word-combinations** first establish themselves through constant re-use, then undergo figurative extension and finally petrify or congeal.”

16.3.3. Etymological Definition of Idiom

Idiom is generally known by the common specialized form which is different from the literal meaning in a sentence. However, an etymological analysis is preferable to begin with the definition of idioms. Thus ‘*idio-*’ and ‘*-ma*’ are two parts of the word ‘idiom’. The former denotes one’s own, separate, or distinct ENTITY; the latter forming a noun is a substantive suffix indicating the result of verbal action. The term IDIOM, therefore, denotes ‘peculiarity’, especially ‘peculiarity in language’. It was originally derived from Greek ‘*idiômat-*’ and ‘*idiôma*’ and then Latin word ‘*idioma*’. At last it was derived directly from the French word ‘*idiome*’ in late 16th century.

Roodbergen defines “idioms as a technical term for any complex formation, word, phrase or sentence whose meaning cannot be explained on the basis of its constituents.” The introduction in ODEI sheds light on this issue, “The best known approach to the definition of idiomaticity, and one which linguists as well as dictionary-makers have helped to popularize, fastens on the difficulty of interpreting idioms in terms of the meanings of their constituent words. Definitions such as the following are representative of this approach:

- Groups of words with set meaning that cannot be calculated by adding up the separate meanings of the parts.
- Peculiarity of phraseology having meaning not deducible from those of the separate words.

In addition, Radha Madhab states “idioms-formation in a spoken language indicates a lively way of expressing the specific ideas under specific environs. And these idiomatic expressions, be they semantically excellent or structurally peculiar ones with inordinate audio-effect on the hearers, constitute the idiomatic character of a given expression.” In the parallel manner, Ramachandrudu comments, “an idiom is defined as a form of

expression, construction, phrase etc., peculiar to a language, a peculiarity of phraseology approved by usage and often having a meaning other than its grammatical or logical one.”

The following Five significant definitions more or less cover different views on the definition of idioms:

1. The language or dialect of a people, region, and class are indicative of culture and local colour etc.
2. The usual way in which the words of a language are joined to gether to express thought.
3. An accepted phrase, construction or expression contrary to the usual patterns of the language or having a meaning different from the literal.
4. The style of expression that is characteristic of an individual; such as the idiom of Carlyle.
5. A characteristic style as in art or music.

Access to Vocabulary, Idioms and Phrases:

1. Corpus linguistics
2. Usage-illustrative dictionaries like The Cambridge International Dictionary; Advanced learners Dictionary; Mobile Apps of Vocabulary, Idioms and Phrases.

14.4 Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verb is a verb that is made up of a **main verb** together with a **particle**, an adverbial or a preposition, or both. Typically, their meaning is not obvious from the meanings of the individual words themselves. For example:

*She has always **looked down on** me.*

*A fight **broke out** among a group of 40 men.*

*I'll **see to** the animals.*

*Don't **put me off**, I'm trying to concentrate.*

*The report **spelled out** the need for more staff.*

For instance, in the first example, the phrasal verb ‘to look down on someone’ doesn’t mean that you are looking down from a higher place at someone who is below you; it means that you think that you are better than someone.

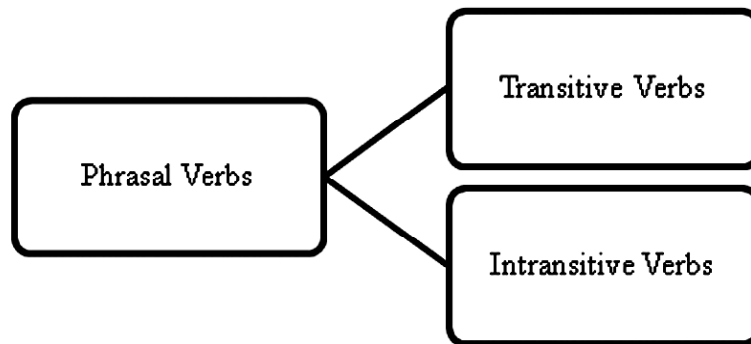
Task 3: Identify the Phrasal Verb and its constituents

- a. They had to Account For all the money that had gone missing.
- b. The rest of the staff Backed her Up when she complained about working conditions.

- c. She Breezed Through her exams.
 - d. I'm going home to Catch Up On my sleep.
 - e. I really Dropped him In It when I told them what he'd done.
- Your answer:

16.4.1. Transitivity of Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs can be of two types as showed in the figure below:



Examples of intransitive verbs (verbs with no object):

*We **broke up** two years ago.*
*They **set off** early to beat the traffic.*
*He **pulled up** outside the cottage.*

Examples of transitive verbs (verbs which can have an object):

*The police were called to **break up** the fight.*
*When the door is opened, it **sets off** an alarm.*
*They **pulled** the house **down** and redeveloped the site.*

16.4.2 Word Order

The verb and adverb elements/ particles which make up intransitive phrasal verbs are never separated:

- We **broke up** two years ago.*
- We **broke** two years ago **up**.*

The consecutive placement of the constituents is different with transitive verbs,

- a. What a pretty dress! Why don't you try it on?
- b. You're doing really well, so carry on like this. (continue)
- c. He started a university course but dropped out after one year. (left/stop participating)
- d. If you've got a good idea, bring it up at the meeting.
- e. *If we're going to have fish for dinner, you'd better take it out of the freezer.*
- f. My colleague and I get on really well. (have a good relationship)
- g. Pete and Sue had an argument but they've made up now. (reconcile)
- h. Did you get the tickets? No, they'd sold out. (sell all those available)
- i. *That old building looks awful. They should knock it down.*
- j. *There are lots of dead leaves in the garden. We need to clear them up.*

Your Answer:

16.5 Preview List of Idioms [Source : The idioms.com]

two peas in a pod

Meaning: Practically identical in appearance.

Example: Those boys could be twins; they are like two peas in a pod.

fan the flames

Meaning: Make a bad situation even worse.

Example: The president's racist comments are really going to fan the flames of hatred among the crowd.

a hard nut to crack

Meaning: A problem that is difficult to solve.

Example: She's such a tough nut to crack. Nobody seems to be able to get through to her.

turn against

Meaning: To change from supporting something to opposing it.

Example: A section of his supporters turned against him when they heard his latest speech on immigration.

fight tooth and nail

Meaning: To fight very fiercely.

Example: I want this job so I'm going to fight tooth and nail for it.

herculean task

Meaning: A task requiring huge amounts of physical strength.

Example: It will be a herculean task to get through to the quarter-finals, but this untested team is up for the challenge.

call of duty

Meaning: Something you must do or feel compelled to do.

Example: Both of my grandfathers felt it was their call of duty to enlist immediately for active service when the war broke out.

knotty problem

Meaning: Difficult or complex problem.

Example: The accountant always found the end of the tax year to be a knotty problem.

when life gives you lemons

Meaning: Make the best out of a difficult situation.

Example: She tried to live by the motto 'when life gives you lemons, make lemonade.'

topsy-turvy

Meaning: With the top at the bottom.

Example: Everything has been topsy-turvy since we moved in. I can't find anything until I unpack properly.

16.5.1 Goose Egg - Idioms

egg or duck egg (British) meaning:

- zero
- nothing

- no score in a game
- lump appearing after a blow (usually on the head)
- swelling from being struck
- lay an egg

Example Sentences:

- We had a good game, but the score was goose egg.
- He answered every question wrong in the quiz and got a goose egg.
- The cricket ball hit him in the back of the head and an egg popped up immediately.
- The crowd were devastated that the game was a goose egg after 90 minutes.
- He could still see the egg on his forehead even though he'd brushed his hair over it.
- Last month's revenue for the company was a big goose egg.
- She was crying and replied that we had a goose egg in the project.
- Lots of companies laid goose eggs in 2020 due to the pandemic.
- My son scored 5 out of 10. Well, it's better than a goose egg.
- The teacher has given a big goose egg to Mathew in the test result.
- Is there anything you know when we search, and google returns

16.5.2. History of Goose Egg Idioms

Goose egg is a preponderant motif in idiom-making across US and UK English. The phrase has an interesting evolution.

The phrase is an American version of a British saying “duck egg” and it is widely used in the sports world. the earliest record of the phrase *goose egg* was most likely to be in the period between 1350 to 1400. In the US (American English) this is a late 19th century, slang term for zero score in a sporting event or game. A *goose egg* is the failure of a team to score any points or goals. The phrase is derived from the shape of a goose egg looking like a zero. In a sentence it replaces the word zero. Before that, the British used *duck egg* or just *egg* to describe a lump or swelling that appears after a blow or hit, most often to the head. any large lump that has this shape is called an egg.

16.6 Summary

In this unit we have looked at a variety of idioms and multi word expressions. The difference that exists between the two is clearly explained with examples. Further we have looked at idioms where the meaning of the component words changes sharply and a new meaning gets generated. Finally, we have examined a few phrasal verbs both in their transitive and intransitive forms. The unit concludes with a list of rich examples of some the idioms.

16.7 Review Questions

1. What are idioms?
2. How are idioms different from multi-word-expressions?
3. Give examples of some commonly used multi-word-expression.
4. Are there idioms in your language?
5. Compare five idioms from Bangla with their possible equivalents in English
6. What are collocations?
7. Do collocations offer special meaning like the idioms?
8. What strategies can we adopt to learn idioms, and collocations?
9. What are phrases? How many types of phrases do we have?
10. Give five examples of each type of phrase?
11. Can we split all the phrases? Give examples of phrases that can be split.

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16.9 Reading List

Here is a list of some useful books that will help you understand different aspects of vocabulary learning.

1. *Meanings and Metaphors: Activities to Practise Figurative Language* by Gillian Lazar;
2. *Check Your English Vocabulary for Phrasal Verbs and Idioms* by Rawdon Wyatt;
3. *Making Headway Phrasal Verbs and Idioms* by Graham Workman et al.

PGEL – 06
Morphology in English

MODULE - 1 : MORPHOLOGY

Unit 1 □ Introduction to Morphology

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Understanding the English Word
- 1.4 The Coining of English Word: A Case Study
- 1.5 English Affixes: Prefix, Suffix and Infix
- 1.6 Derivational and Inflectional Affixation in English
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Review Questions
- 1.9 References
- 1.10 Reading List

1.1 Introduction

Morphology in English will primarily focus on the basic norms and strategies of English word formation. Like all other modern languages English language is shown as a dynamic process of morphological construction, combination and linguistic mutation and permutation. This module will also focus upon the English words and their relationship with other foreign words and the words of the same language across the chronological paradigm. The central focus of the Module is upon the English word structures. The words have been analysed into parts and particles as different morphemes in contrast to the formation and functional aspects of the majority of English words. Subsequently, English word structures are demonstrated as word stems, root words, prefixes, infixes and suffixes so that ELT experts and trainees can easily solve linguistic problems associated with English morphology.

English Language Teaching reached its watershed during the twentieth century with the impetus it got from the study of Applied Linguistics¹. It has been observed that recent experiments and changes in teaching methods of ELT have contributed to the growing importance of ‘Morphology’ and ‘Phonology’ in ELT classroom.

You know that morphology (məˈrɒlədʒi) is the scientific study of formation of words. The study of ‘morphology’ emphasizes on the following paradigms of **vocabulary level** of English Language:

- i. How the English words are formed;

- ii. How the English words are related to other words of the same language.
- iii. How the English word structures are analysed in parts and particles of different English words,
- iv. How the English word structures are re-structured such as word stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes.

The study of ‘morphology’ emphasizes on the following paradigms of **sentence level** of English Language:

- i. How the parts of a sentence / speech are arranged in English Language.
- ii. How the intonation and stress patterns are maintained in English Language.
- iii. How a different context can change the pronunciation and meaning of English words.

In this unit we shall discuss its relevance in English vocabulary level and in English sentence level.

Self Evaluation 1

Self-Evaluation 1

- Think of any two paradigms you like and define English Word as you understand:

Self-Evaluation 1

- **Your Answer:**

Self-Evaluation 1

- Now evaluate your answer in the light of what you have read and give Marks for your answer in the **scale 1- 5:**

Self-Evaluation 1

- **Your Answer:**

Self-Evaluation 1

- **Re-write your answer in the light of the new knowledge you got**

Self-Evaluation 1

- **Your Answer:**

1.2 Objectives

At the end of this Module you should be able to:

- identify those features of English words that account for special status in

English Language;

- distinguish Phonological and morphological ways in which ‘English words’ can be analyzed;
- understand the nature of English words;
- make a critical evaluation of the existing linguistic definitions of ‘word’;
- understand the notion of ‘morpheme’ and the ‘phoneme’;
- distinguish between word and morpheme and
- appreciate the nature of the relationship between ‘morpheme’ and other particles of a word.

1.3 Understanding English Word

You might have noticed how a **word** which you have always taken for granted and whose meaning you are quite confident you know very well turns out on closer scrutiny to be something else. One such word is the English word ‘**word**’ itself. If you look up ‘word’ (N) in the O E D² you will first be surprised to see its meaning and usage taking up two large columns, very closely printed in very fine print. You will notice that the meanings and usage are classified into two major categories. In the first category are those uses of this word in which it stands for verbal expression in general and is by extension used for such meanings as ‘**command**’, ‘**a saying or proverb**’, ‘**text** of a song’, ‘**a promise**’, ‘**a declaration**’ ‘**a contention**’, and so on. In the second category are included its uses as ‘**an element of speech**’, ‘**a combination of sounds**, or one such **sound**, used to express **an idea**’, ‘**a written** character or set **of characters**’ and so on. In this sense, ‘word’ can refer to a **name**, **title**, idea, **printed marks**, a **telegraphic message**, and so on. You will find these and many more senses of the word ‘**word**’ listed and exemplified in detail, altogether eleven sense-groups in the first category and seven in the second.

In this course, our aim is to study words in the sense in which they represent ‘elements of speech’, i.e. in the second, and the technical, sense of the word. In fact, more recent dictionaries, which are not written on historical principles (unlike the OED is), place this definition first. Let us look at and compare a select few of such definitions, beginning with the Oxford definition in full:

1. Oxford English Dictionary: ‘A combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g., to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such.’ (1989)

2. Collins English Dictionary: ‘One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes,’ (1986)

3. American Heritage Dictionary: ‘A sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing, that symbolizes or communicates a meaning and may consist of a single morpheme or of a combination of morphemes’ (1985)

4. Webster’s Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary: ‘A speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolizes and communicates a meaning without being divisible into smaller units, capable of independent use’ (1984)

Let us now try to set up a critical understanding of the English word ‘WORD’ by analyzing and extracting various features from the above definitions. It would appear from these definitions that we can apply the word ‘word’ to an entity that possesses the following characteristics:

- a) A word is made of a sound, or a series of speech sounds³. We may also apply it to describe representations⁴ of these in writing.
- b) A word is a unit of speech (presumably when it is a sound or a series of sounds) or writing (presumably when it is a representation of the sound/series of sounds in writing).
- c) The above definitions do not seem to agree on whether or not the word is the *smallest unit* of speech/writing. Definition 4⁵ implies that it is, since it says that it is not ‘divisible into smaller units capable of independent use’.
- d) Definition 3⁶ states that a word may consist of a single **morpheme** or a combination of **morphemes**, thereby implying that the smallest unit is **the morpheme and not the word**.
- e) Definition 2⁷ makes a further refinement by saying that native speakers of a language regard it as the smallest element but linguists do not comply to this narrow understanding.
- f) The linguists analyze it further into morphemes and define **morpheme** as the smallest unit. Another kind of refinement is made in definition 1. It states that it is the ultimate minimal element having a meaning. This would allow the possibility of there being smaller elements, or units, but they would not bear meaning. If morphemes are smaller than word, then they are presumably not meaning-bearing elements.
- g) All the above-mentioned definitions seem to agree on the point that words are meaningful elements. Definitions 1 and 2⁸ above in addition also suggest that they may be the smallest elements having meaning.

Self Evaluation 2

Self-Evaluation 1	• Think of any two paradigms you like and define English Word as you understand:
Self-Evaluation 1	• Your Answer:
Self-Evaluation 1	• Now evaluate your answer in the light of what you have read and give Marks for your answer in the scale 1- 5:
Self-Evaluation 1	• Your Answer:
Self-Evaluation 1	• Re-write your answer in the light of the new knowledge you got
Self-Evaluation 1	• Your Answer:

h) Definition4 above puts forward an additional idea that a word cannot be broken down into smaller units ‘capable of independent use’. Here ‘use’ must be taken to be different from ‘meaning’. While there may be some common sense support for the idea that a word cannot be broken down into smaller units with independent meaning.⁹

i) The idea that the smaller units also lack independent use may be difficult to sustain, as we shall see under the Advent of English vocabulary¹⁰.

1.4 The Coining of English Word: A Case Study

You must have found from the above discussion that the English word ‘**WORD**’ has historically not always been comprehended in this way. In fact, according to one linguistic school of thought there was no notion of the word at all till writing systems emerged.

Earlier ‘word’ was taken to be synonymous with a written word, or verbal expression in general, which may account for the first category of meaning ascribed to ‘word’ by the Oxford English Dictionary. According to this school of thought even today a word is not distinguished from an utterance when a language is in dialect

form. Just as a child who has not yet learned to read is unable to distinguish between word boundaries it is argued that when alphabetic writing first started, it also had to face the question of where to draw word boundaries. In some cases the indeterminacy regarding word boundaries continued till a very late stage. For example, the English word ‘orange’ is originated from a proto form which is reflected in the Arabic ‘*naranj*’ or the Persian ‘*n a rang*’.¹¹ When the word was absorbed into Middle English (ME), it occurred with the indefinite article *a norenge*, but soon the word boundary came to be drawn after ‘n’ rather than before it, and gave us **an orange** rather *a norenge*. In this case, the boundary line was clearly dictated, by the ‘an before a noun beginning with a vowel’ analogy. Other similar factors must also have decided where the line was drawn. What this school regards as certain is that words came to be established after the advent of literacy’, when the need arose to write in units separated by spaces. This view is disputed by other schools of thought. Lyons (1968:199) has correctly commented¹²:

1.5 English Affixes: Prefix Suffix and Infix

English words often include multiple **affixes**. As we stated earlier, in the majority of cases of complex and compound words ¹³that are realized as words can be identified as separate elements called **morphemes** in the phonological and orthographic representations. This makes it easier to refer to the morphemes when talking about the rules which govern their occurrence.

English Affixes are building blocks of extensive English vocabulary and are basic elements of word formation.

English affix can take the form of a **prefix** when it is used before a **root word**.

Common prefixes include un-, dis- and ex- .

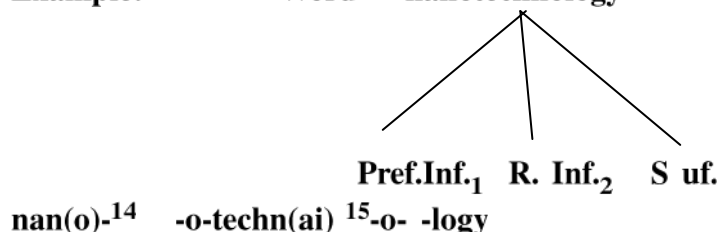
English affix can be used as **suffix** when it is attached after the **root word**. Example: -ish; -ity; -ize and so on.

English affix can be used as **infix** when it is attached **in between the prefix and the root and in between the root word and the suffix**. There are two sub types of infix:

Sub Type A Infix (Inf.₁) ‘-o-’

Example:

Word → nanotechnology



morphophonological

Example: Word →

Sub Type B Infix (Inf.₂) ‘-o-’ Pref. . Inf.₁ R. Inf.₂Suf.₁ Suf.₂
 morph- -o- phon(e) -o- -log(y) -cal

1.6 Derivational and Inflectional Affixation in English

Let us introduce the distinctive characteristics of Derivational affixes and Inflectional affixes¹⁶ that serve as key components of English word formation.

- a. Free morphemes may emerge as English words. Examples: toe; teach; learn;
- b. Most of the English words have foreign roots, foreign prefixes and foreign suffixes or root and affixes. Example: technai (Latin Root) + -logy (Latin Suffix) → technology.
- c. Affixations are very important in English word formation. Affixes include **prefix**, **suffix**, and infix. See above for examples of English affixes.
- d. **Inflectional affixes** in English are all suffixes, but derivational affixes come both as prefixes and suffixes.
- e. **Derivational affixes** are attached to lexical words to create new lexical words. As lexical words, these new words are also subject to the same kind of treatment in the language as all lexical words, e.g., they make their grammatical paradigms like other words. In their grammatical category, they can serve as stems for other derivational affixes, and so on.

- f. Derivational affixes** modify the meanings of the stems but not in a regular and fixed way as do inflectional affixes. The effect a derivational affix will have on the meaning of the stem cannot be predicted with exceptional regularity, though subsets of stems may show partial regularities.
- g. In a complex word containing both derivational and inflectional affixes, derivational affixes are attached first, inflectional affixes last. Once an inflectional affix has been attached to a stem, no derivational affixes can be attached to it.
- h. Unlike **inflectional affixes**, **derivational affixes** often change the grammatical category of the stem to which they are attached. Thus the addition of a derivational suffix may turn a verb into a noun, a noun into an adjective, an adjective into a verb, and so on. This cannot happen with inflectional affixes. When we pay closer attention to the English derivational affixes, we find a few more characteristics worth mentioning. They are:
- i. As compared to **inflectional affixes**, the number of derivational affixes is quite large.
- j. While a bound grammatical morpheme (or, loosely, an **inflectional affix**) occurs with all the members of a grammatical class, or subclass, without exception, a bound lexical morpheme (loosely, a derivational affix) may occur with only a few members of a class and not with others.
- k. As we need to point out the occurrence of bound grammatical morphemes is determined by grammatical rules, which apply without exception, whereas the occurrence of bound lexical morphemes is not so determined. For example, the bound grammatical morpheme **Plural** occurs with all the members of the Count subclass of the class of Common Nouns, but the bound lexical morpheme **-ish**, though it occurs with adjectives, cannot occur with all the adjectives.
- l. An **inflectional affix** does not occur with all the members of a given class, it occurs only with specific members of that class and not with the members of any other class. Derivational affixes, on the other hand, can sometimes occur with members of more than one class.

In the context of the relationship between the word, and English language literacy, it remains a fact that in all literate language communities there exists a notion of 'word', even if the way its nature is apprehended is not the same. For example, there are languages in which the entire English utterance consisting of three words '*I have eaten*' may be expressed, by a single 'word'. In Bengali, expressions like '*kheycho*' and '*kheyechi*' are apprehended as single words but their English equivalents require three words each: Have you eaten?/ I have eaten. Languages may differ in the amounts of meaning they pour into individual words, but that does not effect the fundamental nature of words.

1.7 Summary

Every speaker of a language has an intuitive apprehension of ‘word’. If asked, a native speaker is able to identify the stretch of sound which constitutes one word. This ability is strengthened by literacy since in writing words have to be separated by spaces. Linguists have defined ‘word’ as ‘a minimum free form’. The definition identifies word as the unit which cannot be broken down further into independently occurring units. The word is thus identified as the smallest ‘positionally mobile’ and ‘internally stable’ unit of language. This traditional definition faces difficulty with compound words and applies only to the phonological word. Though languages differ in the way they codify meanings into words, every language does have the unit ‘word’. The notion of word can be analysed into four types depending on the way it is apprehended on different occasions: phonological, orthographic, lexical and grammatical. When we use ‘word’ to refer to a stretch of spoken speech, the reference is to the phonological word. When we use ‘word’ to refer to a stretch of written or printed symbols, we refer to the orthographic word. An inflectional affix does not occur with all the members of a given class, it occurs only with specific members of that class and not with the members of any other class. Derivational affixes, on the other hand, can sometimes occur with members of more than one class.

1.8 Review Questions

- a. What does the field of morphology deal with?
- b. Is there much truth when we say ‘word’ is a minimal unit?
- c. How can we divide a word into smaller parts?
- d. What are morphemes?
- e. How many types of affixes do we have?
- f. Do the affixes change the meaning of the word?
- g. Do the affixes change the grammar of the word?
- h. What is an inflexion?
- i. Can we see words as distinct units in an utterance or speech?
- j. When was word recognised as a unit? What were the reasons for it?

1.9 References

1. Bloomfield. L(1933). *Language*. London: Allen &Unwin.
2. Carter, R (1987) *Vocabulary, Applied Linguistic Perspectives*. London: Allen &Unwin.
3. Dey, S.K. (2014). *Teaching of English*, New Delhi, Pearson Education.
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1.10 Reading List

Bloomfield. L(1933). *Language*. London: Allen &Unwin.

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Katamba. F. (1994). *English Words*, London: Routledge.

Lyons, J. (1968). *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*, Cambridge: The University' Press.

- 1 The branch of linguistics concerned with practical applications of language studies, for example English language teaching, English translation, and speech therapy for English language.
- 2 Oxford English Dictionary
- 3 Called phonemes
- 4 Called morphemes
- 5 A speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolizes and communicates a meaning without being divisible into smaller units, capable of independent use (1984)
- 6 A sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing, that symbolizes or communicates a meaning and may consist of a single morpheme or of a 'combination of morphemes' (1985)
- 7 'One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard

- as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes.
- 8 A combination of vocal sounds, or one such sound, used in a language to express an idea (e.g., to denote a thing, attribute, or relation), and constituting an ultimate minimal element of speech having a meaning as such. (1927, 1989)
One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes, (1986)
 - 9 One of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest isolable meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyze these farther into morphemes.
 - 10 Vocabulary is all about words i.e. the words in a language or a special set of words people are trying to learn. The term was first used in the 1500s to mean a list of words with explanations. The noun vocabulary came to refer to the “range of language of a person or group” from the seventeenth century.
 - 11 From which the Hindi word ‘*narangi*’ (*orange*) has been derived in due course.
 - 12 "...the ability to break utterances up in words is not only characteristic of educated and literate speakers of a language. Sapir tells us that uneducated American-Indian speakers, with no experience of writing any language at all, when asked to do so, were perfectly capable of dictating to him texts in their own language ‘word by word’, and had little difficulty in isolating words from utterances and repeating them to him as units. Whatever else we may say about the word as a linguistic unit, we must reject the view ... that ‘primitive languages’ do not have words. The habit of reading and writing ... may well reinforce the native speaker’s consciousness of the word as an element of his language ... but it certainly does not create his ability to break utterances up into words in the first place.”
 - 13 i.e. the free and bound morphemes in combination
 - 14 (o) got deleted by the effect of the Doctrine of Apocope.
 - 15 (ai) got deleted by the effect of the Doctrine of Apocope.
 - 16 See unit 5 under Paper 6 Module 2 for details.

Unit 2 □ Morphemes and Allomorphs

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 English Morpheme: Free and Bound
- 2.4 Element of Meaning and grammatical function
- 2.5 English Word and Morpheme
- 2.6 English Morpheme and Allomorphs
- 2.7 Summary
- 2.8 Review Questions
- 2.9 References and Reading List

2.1 Introduction

The words still remain a potent means of expression in English. Whatever can be expressed in a language using a set of words can more or less be expressed in another language using another set of words. It could be possible that some languages use more words to express an idea that can be expressed by just one word in some other languages. This need not be consistent with all concepts and reversal is also possible. All languages have simple words and complex words. Formal and informal words, new and old words and all languages have similar or near-similar processes of **word-formation**. And this is what is more important than the fact that the sets and processes are not the same. In this unit, let us try to understand the fundamental nature of the English word before turning to the specific manifestations of word-classes and word-formation processes.

2.2 Objectives

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

- a. Understand what a morpheme is,
- b. See how morphemes are closely associated with meaning,
- c. Identify the changes in morphemes (allomorphs),
- d. Analyse a word for its morphemes and see how it is formed.

2.3 English Morpheme: Free and Bound

a. From the above discussion you have understood that there may be different types of English words. The most prominent types are:

- Lexeme (Semantic words)
- Grammareme (Functional/ grammatical words)
- Phoneme¹ (phonological words)
- Morpheme (orthographic words)

If you look for Definition 1 and 2 above² you will observe that these are captured by the notions of phonological and orthographic words. Definition 4³ says that words are meaningful elements and it is captured by the notion of the lexical word, or **lexemes**. The status of Definitions 3 and 4, which are about the ‘analyzability’ of the word into smaller units, remains unclear. The questions remain:

A. <i>Is the word the smallest unit?</i>
B. <i>Can a word be further broken down into smaller units?</i>
C. What would be the name of such minimal meaningful units?
D. What is a morpheme?
E. Is the morpheme a grammareme or a lexeme?

These are the kinds of questions that arise when we probe Definitions 3 and 4 further. These questions actually arise from the linguists’ attempts to define a word scientifically. Linguistics claims to be a science and since the word is one of the basic units of language, a scientific definition of ‘word’ is a prerequisite for this science of language.

Several attempts have been made to define ‘**word**’ in Linguistics. The dictionary definitions given above are actually derived from these definitions. The most well-known of these definitions is the one by Bloomfield who defined the word as ‘**a minimum free form**’. The two crucial words here are ‘free’ and ‘minimum’. ‘Free’ means ‘those which can occur alone as whole utterances’. For example, **young, old, right, wrong**, are free forms since they can occur as whole utterances in response to questions like:

Q1 : ‘Was the visitor young or old?’
Q 2: ‘Do you consider use of force to settle disputes right or wrong?’

‘Minimum’ of course means ‘the smallest’ or ‘that which cannot be broken down further into smaller parts’. None of the forms cited above can be broken down into smaller parts. Thus they meet both conditions set out by Bloomfield and are words according to his definition. So are the forms like **‘younger’, ‘oldest’, ‘sweeter’, ‘sweetest’,** etc., since they too are minimum free forms. We can break them down into parts like **‘sweet’** and **‘-er’** **‘old’** and **‘-est’** etc., but **‘-er’** and **‘est’** are **bound** morphemes, not free forms; they cannot occur as utterances alone. Bloomfield’s definition faces problems with forms like ‘a’, ‘the’, ‘because’ which are traditionally regarded as words but cannot occur alone as utterances, and linguists have tried to extend and elaborate the meaning of ‘free’ to take care of this problem.

These linguists argue that ‘linguistic freedom’ or free flow⁴here means:

- (i) **positional mobility and**
- (ii) **Positional stability.**

The term **‘Positional mobility’** refers to the fact that the word is the smallest unit which can be moved around in the sentence. For example, look at the following sentences where the form ‘surely’ has been moved around;

- a) Alice does not deny that **surely**.
- b) **Surely** Alice does not deny that.
- c) Alice **surely** does not deny that.

Self Evaluation 3

The graphic consists of three downward-pointing chevrons on the left, each containing the text 'SE 3'. To the right of each chevron is a rounded rectangular box containing a question or instruction.

- SE 3** • What is **positional mobility with reference to a word?**
- SE 3** • Answer:
- SE 3** • Give Marks in the scale of 1 -5 for your answer after going through the following discussion:
• Marks:

Here we cannot move around ‘sure’ by itself, or ‘-ly’ by itself, the way we can move around ‘surely’. Sometimes longer forms can be moved around. Example:

a) People were all keen to see **the young Indian⁵back from Chicago**.

b) **The young Indian back from Chicago**, people were all keen to see.

In the above example ‘the young Indian back from Chicago’ shows the same kind of positional mobility as the word ‘surely’ in the earlier example. But ‘the young Indian back from Chicago’ is not a minimum form as it contains smaller forms (words) capable of occurring independently. In earlier words, this form is a free form but it consists of more free forms and is therefore not a minimum form. Therefore it does not qualify as a word. Such forms are actually called **phrases** (group of words).

The term “**Positional stability**” refers to the internal cohesion of the word. As we have seen, a word can also be broken down into smaller (bound) elements (e.g., surely = sure + ly), but the order of these elements in a word is strictly fixed and cannot be changed. In other words, while a word has **positional mobility** so far its elements are kept intact.

Despite this additional support, the definition of word as a minimum free form is not quite free from trouble. Another difficulty is observed with word compounds. Compounds are words like **postman, blackboard, goalkeeper** which are made up of two smaller words. By this definition, they would not be called words as they are not minimum forms, even though they are free. However experts agree to the fact that compounds are indeed the result of **word formation strategies**⁶.

Even if we were to accept Bloomfield’s definition of ‘word’ despite all these problems the question remains: *What kind of ‘word’, among the four kinds that we have identified above, would it apply to?* It is obvious that it could not apply to either the **lexical or the grammatical** kind of word.

Why?

These kinds of words are mere abstractions not physical shapes. Bloomfield’s definition attributes to words qualities like ‘size’ and ‘occurrence as an utterances’. Lexical and grammatical words do not have size and they do not occur as utterances, since they are abstract entities. The orthographic word, though it can be said to have measurable size, also cannot occur as an utterance. Hence, Bloomfield’s definition can apply only to the **phonological word or phoneme**, and is therefore of limited use in our attempt to understand the morphological / orthographic nature of the word.

2.4 Element of Meaning and Grammatical Function

Bloomfield’s definition of the word as ‘a minimum free form’ addresses only the formal properties of the word i.e. It makes no reference to meaning. Yet the entire dictionary definitions of ‘word’ given at the beginning of this unit make reference to

There cannot be any doubt that elements like **-er**, **-est** and **-al** are meaningful suffixes⁸: added to certain word root as shown above, **Adj. + -er** produces the meaning ‘more **Adj.**’, while **Adj. + -est** produces the meaning ‘most **Adj.**’; **-al**, added to a noun (**N**), produces the meaning ‘of, concerning, pertaining to that **‘N’**’. As these elements have fixed meanings that we are able to add them to other forms to derive precisely the meanings we want.

It must be quite clear by now that what we are looking for is a definition of ‘word’ that will agree with the native speaker’s intuitive understanding of this concept. Since Bloomfield’s definition does not, it will not do. There are elements which are isolable, and which are meaningful, but which the native speaker does not intuitively recognize as words (e.g. **-er**, **-est**, **-al**). We must find a definition which will conform to the native speaker’s intuition about words.

Can we revise the definition so that it takes care of these possible problems?

Perhaps we can, but we must first do something about the smallest meaningful elements which are not words, which we have just discovered. We must recognize them, give them some status and define their relationship with words.

When we analyze the form *national* into the elements *nation* and **-al**, we have a feeling that we have now two elements one of which (**nation**) **also occurs independently while the other (-al)** is a bound form and cannot occur independently. We have a similar kind of feeling about forms like **works**, **worked**, and **working** which we can respectively analyze into **work+ -s**, **work+ -ed** and **work+ -ing**. There is, however, a difference between suffix forms like **-al** on the one hand, and **-s**, **-ed**, and **-ing** on the other.

You can associate some kind of meaning with affixes like **-al** as we did above, but it is difficult to associate such meanings with affixes⁹ of the latter set. For example, there is no specific way in which the meaning of the word ‘run’ in the sentence ‘I ran’ can be said to be different from the meaning of ‘runs’ in the sentence ‘He runs’. It is the third person subject that requires the presence of the suffix **-s** in the verb in the latter sentence.

In other words, the suffix **-s**, here signifies the presence of a third person singular subject, in addition to signaling, in common with the word ‘ran’ of the former sentence, the presence of the simple present tense. Affixes like **-s**, **-ed** and **-ing** derive their significance not from meaning but from use, or from the functions they perform. As we have stated earlier, the suffix **-ed** performs the function of signaling **past tense**, **-ing** that of signaling the continuous tense, and so on. In other words, such affixes perform **grammatical functions**. In this respect, they are rather like articles (**a**, **an**, **the**) or auxiliaries (**am**, **is**, **was**, **can**, **may**), which also have no dictionary-based lexical type meanings but **perform** certain types of grammatical functions.

Let us ask the following question:

a) Whether the affixes¹⁰ are meaning-bearing affixes like **-ic**, **-ical**, or affixes with grammatical functions like **-s**, **-ed** **-ing** as the latter elements cannot occur independently?

The Webster's definition quoted above expresses this fact by excluding from the definition of 'word' forms 'divisible into smaller units capable of independent use.' In other words, word forms like **works**, **working**, **worked**, are included in the definition of words, because, though they are divisible into two smaller parts, the second parts are not capable of **independent** use. Only the first part is capable of **independent** use. You must have observed that word forms like **national**, **works**, **working** are indeed words as they are 'the smallest isolable meaningful elements' that are '(in) divisible into smaller units capable of independent use'. We must remember that this definition still excludes word compounds¹¹ from the definition of the word.

Now the questions remain:

- i. What is the status of the smaller elements into which the above words can be broken down?
- ii. What is the status of the meaningful elements like **-al** and **-er** that are excluded, from the status of being recognized as word for their inability of being used independently?

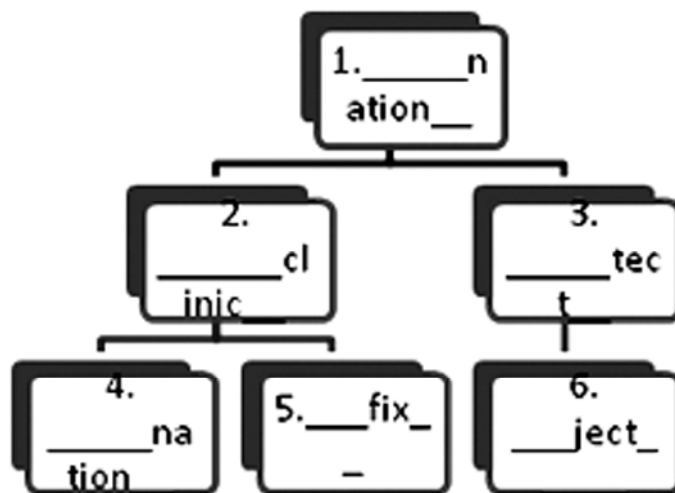
2.5 English Word and Morpheme

Linguists set up the category of "morpheme" to solve the problem of basic understanding of word in general and English word in particular. Morphemes are defined as the smallest elements that have meaning, or that perform a grammatical function. It is now clear that this definition will include a large number of forms so far defined as words like 'old', 'young', 'sweet', 'a', 'the', 'was', 'can', 'may' and so on. Though the category 'morpheme' was obviously not necessitated by and affixes like **-al**, **-s**, **-ed**, **-ing**, which are the smallest elements¹² that have meaning (-al) or perform a grammatical function (the rest).

Self Evaluation 4

**Fill in the blanks with correct bound morphemes either as Prefix or Suffix:
Give two Marks for each correct answer.**

Marks: 2 x 6 = 12



Total Marks-scored: _____ out of 12.

You must have noted the definition of morpheme that morpheme is free from the condition, that the words be able to occur independently. It was this condition that has disqualified elements like **-al, -s, -ed, and -ing**, from being called words. So these forms are automatically included in the category of morphemes. But so also are all independent—ly occurring forms which are not made up of smaller independently occurring forms. This is because the definition of morpheme includes all ‘smallest’ elements, irrespective of whether they can occur independently or not.

With a morpheme defined in this way, words and morphemes necessarily enter into a particular kind of relationship. Let us define this relationship as that of ‘composition’: i. e., a word is ‘composed’ of one or more than one morpheme. Words like **nation, old, young, nice, play, run**, are called mono morphemic¹³ whereas dimorphic¹⁴ words like **national, older, younger, nicest, played, running** are composed of two morphemes each. Of the two morphemes that make up each of the words in the second list, the first one is a free morpheme¹⁵, and the second one is a bound morpheme¹⁶.

You can easily guess what the free morphemes are. As they also occur as mono-morphemic words (viz. **nation, old, young, nice, play, run**); the suffixes (**-ai, -er, -est, -ed, -ing**) are all bound morphemes in the list of words, mentioned above. However, it is also possible for a word to be composed of two free morphemes, e.g., postman, blackboard, and goalkeeper. In other words, by setting up the category of ‘morpheme’ we are able to solve the problem the Bloomfield’s definition of word as ‘minimum free form’ faced with compounds. You will recall that compound words were excluded from the category words by the Bloomfieldian definition as they were not minimum free forms: they were free but not minimum, as they consisted of

smaller forms (like post, man, black, board, etc.). With the setting up of the morpheme category, this problem no longer exists, as the smaller forms are now labelled as 'morphemes'. They can either occur as mono-morphemic words, or can combine as free morphemes to form a compound.

2.6 English Morpheme and Allomorphs

In phonology, an allomorph is a variant form of a morpheme. You know that morpheme is the smallest unit of a language. A 'morph'¹⁷ is a morphological string (of phonemes) that cannot be broken down into smaller constituents that have a lexico-grammatical function. In some sense it corresponds to a word-form. An **allomorph** is a morph that has a unique set of grammatical or lexical features. For example, the plural in English has three different morphs, making plural an allomorph, because there are alternatives. Other Examples are: Any of the phonological representations of a single morpheme: For **example**, the final /s/ and /z/ sounds of *cats* and *beds* are **allomorphs** of the English noun-plural morpheme. While orthography preserves the differences in written letters it fails to show the difference of utterances of the same '**morpheme**' in different phonological environment, phonology preserves them. The plural suffix is written as '-s' in the case of all the three words '**cats**', '**dogs**', and '**horses**', the suffix is pronounced as /s/ in '*cats*'; in '*dogs*', it is pronounced /z/; and in '*horses*' it is pronounced /ɪz/.

Let us discuss why this is so. But this has nothing to do with syncretism¹⁸ as these differences (and the parallel similarity in the orthographic shapes) occur within each grammatical category and not across categories. Despite the phonological difference, each shape still realizes the same bound grammatical morpheme, the plural number bound morpheme. To deal with this situation, where the same grammatical morpheme may be realized by two or more different phonological shapes, morphology has set up the concept of the **allomorph**. As mentioned above, any physical shape that realizes a morpheme (grammatical or lexical) is called a **morph**. If two or more morphs realize the same morpheme they are said to be **allomorphs** of that morpheme. Thus, /s/ /z/ and /ɪz/ are all **allomorphs** of the plural morpheme in the number paradigm of the English count noun. The allomorphs of a morpheme are mostly phonetically conditioned. In other words the reason for the existence of the different phonological realizations of the same morpheme lies in the phonetic context of the given word. In our example, the reason why the plural morpheme is realized as the **voiceless suffix /s/** with *cat* is the voicelessness of /t/, the immediately preceding sound. In *dog*, the immediately preceding sound /g/ is **voiced**, so the suffix too becomes the voiced counterpart of /s/ and becomes /z/. With the word, '*horse*', the phonetic environment is different. The word, '*horse*' ends in a sibilant or a hissing

sound. The plural suffixes /s/ and /z/ are also sibilants and two sibilant sounds cannot be pronounced together in close succession. Therefore, a vowel sound /i/ is inserted between them to make the suffix pronounceable. As /i/ is a voiced sound, the voiced suffix /z/ is the natural choice. Therefore the suffix /iz/ **is an allomorph of the morph /s/**.

As discussed above, /s/, /z/ and /iz/ are allomorphs not only of the plural morpheme but also of the Possessive morpheme. In fact, as we will see below, they are also the allomorphs of the Third Person Singular morpheme which combines with a verb when its subject is a third person singular subject. In a similar way, the verb takes a past tense by addition of –ed. This is realised as /t/ or /d/ or /id/ in different contexts. Any verb that ends with a voiceless consonant takes /t/. For example, checked, missed, brushed, etc. are verbs that end with a voiceless consonant /k/ /s/ and /f/ and hence –ed is pronounced as /t/.

When we have verbs that end with a voiced consonant, the –ed is realised as /d/ in words like bagged, saddled, groomed etc. These words end with voiced consonants /g/ /l/ and /m/ and hence the –ed is realised as /d/. When verbs end with either /t/ or /d/ sound the –ed is realised as /id/. Take a look at words like padded, batted, etc. These words end with /d/ and /t/ respectively and the final –ed is realised as /id/. Another good example of **allomorphs** can be given by referring to the indefinite article morpheme in English. This has two allomorphs: ‘a’ /ə/ and ‘an’, /ən/. Their phonetic conditioning is known to every English student: ‘a’ occurs before words beginning with a consonant, ‘an’ before words beginning with a vowel. It should be noted that, being phonetically conditioned, the **allomorphs** of a morpheme are always in **Complementary Distribution (CD)**. This means that no two allomorphs can occur in the same context: where one **allomorph** occurs, the other cannot, obviously because they are conditioned to occur in mutually exclusive contexts.

2.7 Let us Sum up

The relationship between the phonological and the orthographic word may be one-to-one, one-to-many or many- to- one. When the relationship is one-to-many (/mi:t/ → meet/meat) we have a case of homophony: when it is many-to one (/li:d/, /led/ → ‘lead), we call it ‘homoghrapy’.) The abstract word which is realised in different grammatical forms is called the lexical word or the lexeme. In this sense, the word focuses on meaning. The headwords in a dictionary; represent lexemes. Though most lexemes are realized by single words, some lexemes can be realized by a sequence of words (e.g., idioms). If the same word-shape belongs to two different lexemes (i.e. it has two unrelated meanings) we have a case of homonymy. If the meanings are

related, i.e. if one meaning can be derived from another by metaphorical or figurative extension, we get the case of polysemy. When a grammatical rule is applied to a lexical word, we get a grammatical word. Like the lexical word, the grammatical word too is abstract. To get a physical shape, the word has to be realized as a phonological or an orthographic word. The grammatical word or grammareme represents the grammatical properties of a word.

2.8 Review Questions

1. What is a morpheme?
2. Can we have a single morpheme as a word?
3. How many types of morphemes do we have?
4. What is the characteristic feature of bound morphemes?
5. What do we mean positional mobility and positional stability?
6. Can a single morpheme have both these features?
7. What are allomorphs?
8. How many allomorphs have been discussed here?
9. What are some of the features of allomorphs?
10. Are morphemes grammatical units? Give reasons.

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7. Lyons, J. (1977). *Semantics*, Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; The university Press.

Notes

- 1 See Unit 8 under Paper 6 Module 2 for details.
- 2 See Unit 1 under Paper 6 Module 1 for details.
- 3 A speech sound or series of speech sounds that symbolizes and communicates a meaning without being divisible into smaller units, capable of independent use.

- 4 Derridian concept as revealed in “**Of Grammatology**” (1967:10).
- 5 Swami Vivekananda (January 12,1863- July 4, 1902).
- 6 Like ‘Word Clipping’, ‘Word blending’ and ‘word compounding’ and back formation
- 7 The last vowel has been deleted under the theory of Apocope in both the highlighted words.
- 8 Bound morphemes that are addable only after the root word or word root.
- 9 See Paper 6 Module 2 Unit 5 for details.
- 10 Word particles or bound morphemes attachable before or after the root words.
- 11 Compound words in English.
- 12 They cannot be broken down farther.
- 13 i.e. composed of one morpheme only.
- 14 i.e. composed of two morphemes only.
- 15 i.e. capable of occurring independently.
- 16 i.e. incapable of occurring independently.
- 17 The root of the English word, ‘morphology’.
- 18 i.e. the merging of different inflectional varieties of a word during the development of English language.

Unit 3 □ Types of English Morphemes

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Phoneme and Morpheme in English Word
- 3.4 English Word as the Lexeme
- 3.5 English Lexeme and Homonyms
- 3.6 English Word as the Grammareme
- 3.7 Let us Sum up
- 3.8 Review Questions
- 3.9 References and Reading List

3.1 Introduction

The characteristics of English word ‘**word**’, extracted from dictionary definitions, seem to indicate that there are actually more than one kind of ‘word’. Since a word can either be a **sound** or a **sequence of sounds** that makes one kind of word: let us call it the **phonological word**. The moment you represent a **phonological word** by writing it in orthographic form or in phonetic transcription you get **morphological word**. You may also use ‘word’ to refer to the written, or orthographic, representation of the phonological word, so that you obtain orthographic word. We shall represent orthographic word by writing it in small letters. We can try and explore the relationships between these two kinds of words. The orthographic representation of a phonological word is never a straightforward, one-to-one, representation. Sometimes two or more phonological words are represented by the same orthographic word, For example, the orthographic English word ‘**read**’ represents the two phonological words /ri:d/ (v. present) and /red/(v. past and v. past participle). Again, the orthographic English word, ‘**lead**’ represents /li:d/(v. present) and /led//(v. past and v. past participle). Such cases are known as **homographs**.

3.2 Objectives

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

- a. Define a word in its various ramifications,

- b. Distinguish between the term phonological and morphological forms of a word,
- c. Understand the difference between a lexeme, grammareme and a morpheme,
- d. Understand how homonyms can be understood based on contexts.

3.3 Phoneme¹ and Morpheme² in English Word

Sometimes one phonological word (e.g., /mi:t/, kɔ:s/ may be represented by two or more orthographic words: (**meet** and **meat**; **coarse** and **course**. Such cases are called **homophones**. An exploration of these relationships for languages will help us to banish such popular myths as the following one:

**Certain Indian languages (e.g., Hindi and Bengali) have ‘phonetic’ writing systems while others (e.g., English) have unphonetic, and therefore ‘unscientific’, systems of writing.*

Phonological and morphological or orthographic words are thus regarded as purely physical shapes made up of **sounds** and **spellings** respectively. When words are regarded as purely physical shapes, two shapes differing even slightly are treated as two different words. For example, the five words contained in the following box, when seen as phonological or orthographic shapes, will be regarded as five different words:

Eat	eats	ate	eaten	eating
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Self Evaluation 5

5

- Think of the above English Words and put forward your views about structure of these English words by showcasing Phonemes and Morphemes used in these words:

5

- Your Answer:

5

- Now evaluate your answer in the light of the following paragraphs and give Marks for your answer in the scale 1- 5:
- Your Marks:

3.4 English Word as the Lexeme

Grammatically speaking, these five words are said to be **different forms** of the ‘same’ root word ‘eat’ (v. present). In fact, that is how traditional grammarians treat them. They claim that there is an abstract word ‘eat’ which is ‘realized’ by these five forms in the grammatical paradigm of English language. By a ‘grammatical paradigm’ we mean a set of forms derived by the application of a particular rule of grammar. The above set of forms is derived by the application of the **tense formation rule** of English language as shown below:

The Lexeme³ ‘Eat’

Let us demonstrate the usage of this common **Lexeme** with reference to Tense-specific use.

Tense in Use	Person	Number	Form
1. Simple Present Tense Formation	Ist	Singular\Plural	'eat'
	2nd	Singular\ Plural	'eat'
	3rd	Singular	'eats'
Tense in Use	Person	Number	Form
1. Simple Present	3 rd	Plural	'eat'
2. Simple Past Tense Formation	Ist/ 2nd, 3rd	Singular\ Plural	'ate'
3. Past Participle Formation	Ist/ 2nd, 3rd	Singular\ Plural	'eaten'
4. Present Participle Formation	Ist/ 2nd, 3rd	Singular\ Plural	'eating'

Table: Understanding Different Forms of the Lexeme ‘Eat’

When the **simple present tense formation rule** is applied to the abstract word **eat** we get ‘eat’ in the first and second persons singular and plural and in the third person plural, ‘**eats**’ in the third person singular, when the **simple past tense formation rule** is applied we get ‘**ate**’ in all persons and numbers; when we apply that **past participle formation rule** we get ‘**eaten**’, and when we apply the **present participle formation rule** we get ‘**eating**’. But the underlying word is the same as shown by the fact that the basic meaning of all the four forms is identical. It is only modified in certain fixed ways to refer to different points of time, or to duration. In this abstract sense, a word is different from a **phonological** or an **orthographic** word which is its concrete form. For one thing, the word in this sense has meaning, i.e. it denotes something in the external world, an idea, or object, or action or state. This time the word is an abstract entity as it is not merely a physical shape at all. The abstract idea of ‘**eat**’ that occurs in all the five forms as shown above is actually a **meaning**, a name of an action. There is an orthographic shape ‘eat’ and a phonological shape /i:t/ which ‘realize’ or ‘represent’

this idea. When the grammatical paradigm of the abstract word is to be constructed, grammatical rules appropriate to the category of the word are applied, producing grammatical words, which we discuss below. These grammatical words are in turn realized by phonological and orthographic words (also collectively called word-shapes).

In this first of the two abstract senses in which it is used, in which we focus on its meaning, the word is called by different names, the most common one being **lexeme**. Other names are ‘**lexical word**’, ‘**lexical item**’ and ‘**vocabulary**’ item. We will use the terms **lexeme** and **lexical word** and interchange them freely. We will differentiate the lexeme from word in the other senses by writing it in capital letters. Here are the characteristics that distinguish a lexeme from the other kinds of word discussed so far:

- A. A **lexeme** is viewed in relation to its meaning, i.e. in relation to things, actions, states, etc. in the world. Accordingly, lexemes fall into grammatical categories like noun, verb, adjective and adverb.
- B. Depending on its grammatical category, each lexeme may be realized by a set of forms in its grammatical paradigm, e.g., a noun may have singular, plural and possessive forms (e.g., boy, boys, boy’s), an adjective may have positive, comparative and superlative forms (e.g. nice, nicer, nicest), a verb may have present, past, and participle forms, as exemplified in the Table above. These forms are given physical realizations by linguistic processes like **affixation**, **vowel shift**, **stress shift**, acting upon the **phonological** and **morphological/orthographic** words which represent the **lexeme**.
- C. Words occurring as **headwords**⁴ in a dictionary are lexemes. For example, a dictionary does not list eat, ate, eaten and eating as four separate words: eat alone is listed once.
- D. The term lexeme also includes items which consist of more than one word shape, e.g., multi word verbs like ‘to catch up on’, phrasal verbs like ‘to drop in’, and idioms like ‘to kick the bucket’. Accordingly, they also find separate entries in the dictionary, though for ease of reference they are included under the entry for a key word occurring in them (e.g., kick the bucket will be found under the entry for kick).

3.5 English Lexeme and Homonyms

The relationship between lexemes or lexical words on the one hand, and phonological or orthographic word shapes on the other, is quite complex but it also accounts for a lot of creative uses to which English language is put in literature, advertising and

in mass communication. Let us first look at those cases where the same word-shape (i.e. phonological or orthographic word) belongs to two or more different lexemes.

Some of the simplest examples of this kind are word forms like bank, bat, ear, and port. Each of these word forms belongs to two lexemes. Examples:

The word, 'bank' may mean **Bank**⁵ or **Bank**⁶;

The word, 'bat' may mean **Bat**⁷ or **Bat**⁸;

The word, 'ear' may mean **Ear**⁹ or **Ear**¹⁰.

These cases, are known as **homonyms** that show a one-to-many relationship between **the phonological and orthographic word** and the **lexical word**. Cases of **homonymy** must be distinguished from cases of **polysemy**. In homonymy two or more lexemes are involved; as a result, the **meanings are quite unrelated** to each other. In polysemy, on the other hand, the meanings are closely related: there is only one lexeme that is involved but its meaning is figuratively extended. Thus, for example, the word '**mouth**' is related to the same lexeme '**mouth**' in both the following uses:

i) 'the child's mouth' and

ii) 'the mouth of the river'

Dictionaries usually reflect this distinction by having separate entries for the lexemes involved in cases of homonymy.

A lot of word-play in literature and more recently, in the language of advertising and jokes exploits **homonymy**, or **near homonymy**. For example, Siegfried Sassoon, a famous War poet, exploits the homonymy of base (noun meaning '**military encampment**') and base (adjective meaning 'reprehensible' 'cowardly', etc.) in his poem '**Base Details**' to parody cowardly generals who themselves stay at the base while sending young soldiers to their deaths at the front.

An Advertisement Hoarding of **Capital Electronics**, Kolkata reads thus:

<p>'We have been providing <i>sound</i> advice to Sound Engineers for round the year'.</p> <p>Does it <i>sound</i> strange? We convert Noise to Sound...</p>

This is needless to say that the above piece of advertisement has explored the **homonymy** of **sound** (Adjective) meaning '**good**' and '**useful**' and **sound** (Noun)

and (Verb) as in ‘the sound of music’). **Near-homonymy** refers to *homophones*, which are cases of homonymy with respect to the **medium of speech** only. Thus Belloc’s epigram on his Books exploits the homophony of **read** (past tense of the verb ‘**read**’) and the adjective **red as quoted below**:

“When I am dead, I hope it may be said:

‘His sins¹¹ were red¹² but his books were read.’”

We have now distinguished three kinds of word: phonological, orthographic and lexical. It will be apparent that the three kinds are not distinguished by a common criterion: the first two are distinguished from each other by the criterion of the **medium** (or substance) in which the **word is realized** *Speech* Sounds or spellings— or through spoken (oral) channel or written channel — but the last kind is identified on the basis of meaning or content. **Meaning or content** is usually contrasted with form, where ‘form’ refers not only to the **physical form** but to **abstract structure**. For example, a sentence has a meaning and it has an outer form, or **syntactic structure** or the **surface structure**.

Now the questions remain:

- i. *Does the lexeme represent the **content/meaning** or the **sense** of a word?*
- ii. *How is its form represented?*

Perhaps you have observed that the **surface structure**¹³ of a lexical word may remain the same but you find different **layers of meaning** packed in the deep structure of the same lexeme. For example let us try to interpret the following excerpt from Julius Caesar Act 1 Scene 1:

Magistrate: What’s your trade?

*Artisan: I’m a **cobbler**, Sir! (Mender of shoes)*

*Magistrate: By your appearance you look a **cobbler**, but what’s your trade? (an unskilled labour)*

*Artisan: I’m a cobbler Sir, and I work with **awl** (pun effect of the phoneme ‘all’). An awl is all I live with.*

Self-Evaluation 6

SE 6	• Discuss the types of English words and their application in day to day communication.
SE 6	• Your Answer:
SE 6	• Now evaluate your answer in the light of the following paragraphs and give Marks for your answer in the scale 1- 5: • Your Marks:

3.5 English Word as the Grammareme

The **phonological** and the **morphological or orthographic** words represent, as we have observed earlier, not only the ‘physical **form**’ of the words but refer to the **substance** or the **medium** in which they are realized. In this sense form, like meaning, appears to be an abstract entity: it is not to be confused with substance; **Phoneme-based** or **Morpheme-based**. In order to give recognition to this criterion of **content** vs. **form**, we must recognize another kind of word which underlies both the **phonological and the morphological** as well as **orthographical** structure but is meta-lingual in application. We can call it the **grammareme**¹⁴ or grammatical lexeme. Grammatical words are words that occur in a grammatical paradigm, e.g., the forms of eat cited above: eat, eats, ate, eaten, eating. Each of these words has a phonological form, an orthographic form, and a grammatical form which underlies both. Thus eating is the phonological word /i:tiŋ/), the orthographic word ‘**eating**’, and corresponds to the grammatical word ‘present participle form of eat’. The grammatical word represents the grammatical properties of the word i.e. the properties which determine how it is to be used in a sentence. For example, the form eating has certain properties which determine its use in a sentence which are different from the properties (which determine the use) of eat, eats, ate and eaten. To cite just one property, for eating to occur in a sentence it must be preceded by a form of the verb be; is, am, was, are, were or be; it may not be preceded by a form of have, which is necessary if eaten is to occur in a sentence. Properties of this kind, which determine how a word combines with other words in a sentence, are called the grammatical properties of a word, and when we conceive of the word as embodying these properties we call it the grammatical

word.

Actually it is quite important that we set up a category of grammatical word, because the grammatical word is quite distinct from both the lexical word (which focuses on meaning) and the phonological\orthographic word (which focus on substance), and because the relationships between them can be quite complex. We saw above that eat, ate and eaten are three different grammatical words, though they are the same lexical word. This is because their grammatical properties are different. In traditional grammar, these forms are called the present, past and past participle forms of the lexical word ‘eat’ respectively. Let us now look at the corresponding forms of some other verbs:

Lexeme	Verb Present	Verb Past	Verb Past Participle
Eat	eat /i:t/	ate /et/	eaten /i:tn /
Sing	sing /sɪŋ/	sang /sæŋ/	Sung/sŋ/
Read	read /ri:d/	read /red/	read /red/
Play	play /plei/	played /pleid/	played /pleid/
Cut	cut /kʌt/	Cut /kʌt/	Cut / kʌt/

Table Understanding Application of English Lexeme

You have noticed that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the grammatical forms on the one hand and the phonological and orthographic words on the other in the case of **Eat** and **Sing**; no two grammatical words are realized by the same phonological or orthographic word. In the case of **read**, there is a many-one relationship between the grammatical words and the orthographic word, as all the three grammatical words (for now, we refer to them as the present tense form, the past tense form and the past participle form respectively) share the same orthographic form ‘read’.

All the three words form the grammatical paradigm of an English lexical verb, which in the case of **Eat** and **Sing** have different orthographic realizations, have a common orthographic realization¹⁵ in this case. The relationship between the grammatical words and the phonological words is also many to one in the case of the past and past participle forms: both forms are realized as \red\, In the case of **Play**, the grammatical forms for past and past participle are in many-to-one relationship with both the phonological and the orthographic forms i.e. both grammatical forms correspond to a single orthographic and a single phonological word-shape (‘**played**’ and /pleid/ respectively). In the case of **cut** this situation obtains with regard to all the three grammatical forms.

The phenomenon of the realization of distinct grammatical words by the same

word-shape is known in linguistics as syncretism. Syncretism is the evidence that we need to make a distinction between the word as a grammatical unit and the word as a lexical phonological or orthographic unit. In English, syncretism occurs widely, and not with verbs alone. Here are some examples which will farther clarify the notion of syncretism¹⁶.

Grammareme: Verb

Verb Present	Verb Past	Verb Past Participle
I sing a song.	I sang a song.	I have sung a song.
I dance Samba ¹⁷ .	I danced Samba.	I have danced Samba.
I cut my finger.	I cut my finger.	I have cut my finger.

Table : Understanding Application of English Grammareme

Grammareme: Noun

Singular	Plural
The tiger killed a cow .	The tiger killed three cows.
The tiger killed a deer .	The tiger killed three deer.
Possessive Case	Possessive Case
Singular Possessive	Plural Possessive
This is the man's /mænz/ room.	This is the men's/menz/room.
This is the boy's /boiz/school.	This is the boys' /boiz/school

Table : Understanding Application of English Syncretism

The reverse case of a one-to-many relationship between the grammatical word and the phonological or orthographic word, though less common, is not entirely absent. For example, the grammatical word 'past participle, of 'dream' is realized either by 'dreamed'/dri:mt/ or by 'dreamt' /dremt/. In American English, the grammatical word 'past tense of 'dive' corresponds to two phonological and orthographic words each: /daivd/ 'dived' and /dɔuv/ 'dove'. Also included in the category of grammatical words are classes of words like **articles**, **pronouns**, **auxiliaries**, conjunctions and prepositions. These words are also sometimes called 'functional words'. If at all listed in a dictionary they are defined in terms of the grammatical functions they perform rather than in terms of their meanings as they do not carry lexical meanings in the sense in which a **lexeme** does, therefore, they do not correspond to lexical words¹⁸.

Self-Evaluation 7

SE 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Discuss the types of English Morphemes and their application in day to day communication.
SE 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Your Answer:
SE 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Now evaluate your answer in the light of the following paragraphs and give Marks for your answer in the scale 1-5:• Your Marks:

As grammatical words, however, they are all capable of abstract characterization and also display syncretism.

For example, the two pronouns, second person singular and plural, correspond to the same phonological and orthographic word-shape 'you' and thus display syncretism. Similarly, four present tense auxiliary forms, and the four corresponding past tense forms; the first person plural, the second person singular and plural, and the third person plural, are all syncretized to single phonological/orthographic forms 'are' and 'were' respectively.

3.7 Let us Sum up

Function words (articles, pronouns, auxiliaries, prepositions) occur only as grammatical words. The relationship between a grammatical word and a phonological word may be one-to-one, one-to-many or many-to-one. The same relationship is true of the relationship between a grammatical word and an orthographic word. When two or more distinct grammatical words are realized by the same phonological/orthographic word, we have the **syncretism**. The grammemes do not correspond to any lexical words.

3.8 Review Questions

1. How is a word defined?
2. How many concrete forms of words can exist?
3. What is a lexeme?
4. What is a head-word in a dictionary? Can you call this a lexeme?
5. How is grammareme different from lexeme?
6. Is a phonological form of the word same as the morphological form?
7. What are homonyms?
8. How many types of homonymy can you find in English?
9. Can we have functional words exhibiting homonymy?
10. What is syncretism?

3.9 References and Reading List

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Footnotes

- 1 Phonological word is used in spoken variety of English.
- 2 Morphological word is used in written variety of English.
- 3 A **lexeme** has a morphological form, semantic content (or **meaning**) and a syntactic category. **Lexeme** is basically an abstract notion used in linguistic morphology, the concrete realization of which is a word.
- 4 Word that has already been listed in a dictionary or lexicography.
- 5 i.e. the financial institution
- 6 sloping river side
- 7 the bird known for its shrill sound

- 8 the cricketing bat
- 9 the body part
- 10 part of a cereal plant
- 11 Pun effect of the word, 'scenes' a metonym of dramas or plays.
- 12 Scarlet red i.e. highly offensive and Pun of the past participle of the word 'read'; understood as well....
- 13 Structure of word and or sentence which is available on the surface.
- 14 Lexeme sub type that serves grammatical functions based on inflections and conversions.
- 15 The word, 'read' is written as '**read**' in Verb Present, Verb Past as well as in Past Participle application.
- 16 Phenomenon of the realization of distinct grammemes without any change in the surface structure of a word.
- 17 Brazilian lively and rhythmical Dance Style.
- 18 Words that are semantically processed and compiled for the sake of meaningful communication.

Unit 4 □ Combination of Morphemes to Form Words

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Meaningful Combination and Realization of Phoneme and Morpheme
- 4.4 Morphophonemic Framework
- 4.5 Let us Sum up
- 4.6 References
- 4.7 Glossary
- 4.8 Review Questions
- 4.9 Notes and Answer Hints on Review Question

4.1 Introduction

In Unit 2 and 3 you have noticed **two levels of English word structure** that you might have had some confusion with, in understanding the differences. The lower level is known as the **morpheme** which consists of the smallest meaningful elements. The elements of this level i.e. morphemes make up the word forms at the next higher level i.e. the level of English word. This relation of ‘making up’, or ‘composition’ is obvious only in those cases where two or more morphemes are combined together to form a word. It is not so obvious in the case of **mono-morphemic** words, where one morpheme makes up one word. In such cases, it appears that it would be more appropriate to speak of phonemic or morphophonemic ‘**realization**’ rather than ‘**composition**’. We could thus say that the form ‘young’ at the level of morpheme is ‘realized’ as the form ‘young’ at the level of word; though at first this appears to be a vacuous thing to say. In other words, the relationship of ‘realization’ appears to be empty of any substance. But a linguistic consideration shows that it is essential to postulate this relationship between the two levels, even for those cases where words are made up of balanced combination of two or more morphemes. In morphological studies it is not enough to posit a relationship of ‘combination’ between the two levels but to go beyond the physical combination and to search for meaningful combination of **morphemes**.

4.2 Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- a. Understand the difference between a morpheme and phoneme,
- b. Define a morpheme appropriately,
- c. Divide the words into morphemes,
- d. Show the relationship as it exists among different morphemes in a word.

4.3 Meaningful Combination and Realization of Phoneme and Morpheme

You have already noted that ‘**morpheme**’ and ‘**word**’ are now theoretically two different levels. Elements of two theoretically different levels cannot be joined together by the relationship of composition only. A combination of morphemes remains a combination of morphemes till it is, by some process, transformed into a word and acquires all the properties of a word as described in earlier units of Paper 6 Module 1 Unit 1. To give an analogous example, it may be possible to analyze morphemes into phonemes, or sounds, but it is not possible to say that morphemes are ‘made up of phonemes and the relationship between **morphemes**¹ and **phonemes**² is one of composition only. Then, the following questions remain unanswered:

- i. **How does a combination of phonemes acquire meaning?**
- ii. **Where does the morpheme get meaning from?**

It would be safe to say that a combination of phonemes may be ‘**realized**’ as a morpheme, which is a preexisting meaningful unit represented in written form. Therefore, when a combination of phonemes is realized as a morpheme, it automatically acquires meaning. We must remember that not all combinations of phonemes are realized as **morphemes**; only those which acquire meaning are realized as **morphemes**³. Similarly not all combinations of morphemes are realized as words; only those morphemes which acquire the properties of a word, are realized as words. Another reason for postulating the relationship of realization between the levels of morpheme and word is that this enables us to account for those cases in which the morpheme, a meaningful element, has no phonological or orthographic⁴ manifestation. To illustrate, in the following words we are able to associate distinct phonological and orthographic fragments with the two morphemes that make up each word.

Orthographic	Killed	Taken	horses
Phonological	/kild/	/teikn/	/hð:siz/

Table 1. Understanding English Phonological Implication

The morphemic analysis of these words will yield the following morphemes:

Orthographic	kill, -ed;	take, -en;	horse, -s
Phonological	/kil/, /-d/;	/teik/ /-n/;	/hð:s/, /iz/

Table 2 Analyzing English Morpho -Phonological Implication

This morphemic analysis is based on the assumption that specific meanings or grammatical functions are associated with each of the forms. The meanings associated with the free morphemes kill, take and horse are specified in the dictionary, while the grammar of English assigns the past tense formation function, the past participle formation function and the plural noun formation function to the bound morphemes -ed, -en and -s respectively. Thus, each of the morphemes (the smallest meaningful elements) has a clearly identifiable phonological and orthographic representation. This makes it possible for us to say that the word killed is ‘made up’ of the morphemes **‘kill + ed** or **/kil/ + /d/**, the word taken is made up of the morphemes **take + en** or **/teik/ + /n/** and so on. However, this situation does not occur in the following forms:

Orthographic	took	Sung	Sheep
Phonological	/tuk/	/s^ŋ/	/ʃi:p/

Table 3 Analyzing English Morpho -Phonological Implication

Here we do not have clearly identifiable orthographic and phonological segments to represent the morphemes, though we know that the same bound morphemes (past tense, past participle tense, plural number) are also present here.

Points to be noted

<p>We cannot say that</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the word ‘took’ is made up of *take + -ed; • the word ‘sung’ is made up of *sing + -en; • the word ‘sheep (plural)’ is made up *sheep + s; • We find conversion in the first two cases and Zero Morpheme in the last case.

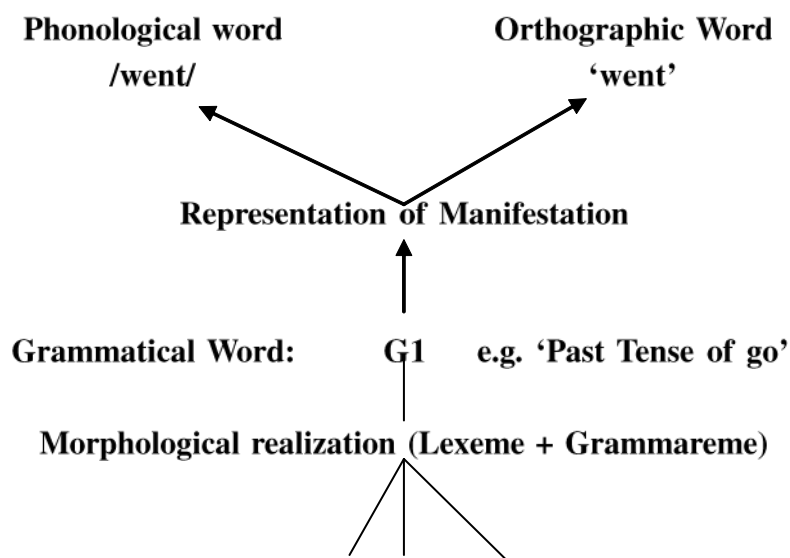
It now appears that it was a mistake to identify a morpheme with its phonological or orthographic representation. In order to take advantage of the notion of morpheme to bring on par regular and irregular verbs, regular and irregular nouns, and regular and irregular forms of a language in general, we should perhaps treat a morpheme as an abstract entity, just as we treated lexical and grammatical words as abstract entities. We could now say that the word ‘took’ has the morpheme combination **take + past tense**, where **take** and **past tense** are abstract morphemes representing meanings and not any phonological or orthographic entities. Similarly, the word ‘sung’ would be said to have the morphemes **sing + past perfect tense** and the word ‘sheep’ (plural) is the combination of **sheep + plural morpheme** known as **Zero Morpheme**.

However, in order to specify the relationship more accurately, we would have to resort to the relationship of realization, as the relationship of composition (‘made up of’) implies a more physical relationship. We can now say that the combination **Take + Past** at the morpheme level **is realized as** the form ‘took’ at the word level, the combination **SING + past perfect** is realized as ‘sung’, and so on. By doing this, we free the morpheme from the constraint of a compulsory physical manifestation and thus increase the utility of this concept considerably.

We are now able to show that, despite the lack of any phonological and orthographic indication, forms **broke, sang, ran, caught** have the morpheme **past tense** in them in common with the forms **worked, changed, returned**, etc. The relationship of realization also allows for the same phonological or orthographic shape to realize different morphemic combinations, or a many-one relationship between orthographic-phonological words on the one hand and the grammatical word on the other. Thus, the phonological form /hit/ and the orthographic form **hit** realize the three morpheme combinations **Hit + present, Hit + Past, and Hit + Past Perfect**. In other words, with this concept of a morpheme as an abstract entity, with ‘realization’ replacing ‘composition’ as the relationship between morphemes and words, we can expand the definition of the word to include the grammatical word, Bloomfield’s definition of word as the minimum free form, as we saw, applied only to the phonological word. This was because the minimum free forms were seen to be ‘made up of’ other forms which included some bound forms. When we redefine the grammatical word as an abstract realization of a combination of morphemes⁵, we are not obliged to look for stretches of sounds corresponding to the morphemes, but only for such morphophonemic⁶ combinations as might be possibly realizable in the language as words. For example while combinations like **Noun + Plural** and **Verb + Past Tense** may be realized by words, combinations like **Noun + Past Tense** are never realizable in English. What combinations of morphemes are or are not realizable as words, is

4.4 Morphophonemic⁷ Framework

The framework for the study of words that we have developed in this unit can now be diagrammatically shown as follows:



Morpheme Combinations: M1 + M2 = go + Tense Past

Diagram : Inverted Pyramid Displaying Morpho phonemic Structure

The smallest meaningful units are morphemes. Morphemes combine to make higher meaningful units. Some of these combinations may be realized as grammatical words. These grammatical words are then represented or manifested by phonological and orthographic words. This diagram shows only the formal aspect of the study of words, which is what we shall be concerned with in the following units. The aspect of meaning does not concern us in these units. That is the reason why the lexeme does not find a place in the above diagram.

4.5 Let us Sum up

Commonly a word is identified as the smallest meaningful unit of language, but linguists believe that the word can be divided into smaller meaningful parts called morphemes. Some of these smaller units can also occur by themselves as words, others can never do that. The former type is called free morpheme and the latter type is called bound morpheme. Some morphemes signal a grammatical function rather

than meaning. Such grammatical morphemes can also be free or bound. Morphemes are often, but not always, represented by clearly identifiable phonological or orthographic representations. Hence they are best treated as abstract rather than concrete entities. The relationship between morphemes and words is therefore seen as one of realization and not composition. Combinations of two or more morphemes may be realized as a single word.

4.6 References

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4.7 Glossary

Bound morpheme: A morpheme which must combine with a free morpheme to be realized as a word (cf. **Free Morpheme**).

Composition: A relationship between the units of two levels of structure in which the units of the higher level are made up of, and analyzable into, clearly identifiable units of the lower level.

Free Morpheme: A morpheme which can be realized as a word by itself (cf. **Bound Morpheme**).

Function words: Words belonging to the categories of articles, pronouns, auxiliaries, conjunctions and prepositions, which have no lexical meaning but can only perform grammatical functions. They are included in the category of grammatical words.

Homographs: When two or more phonological words are represented by the same orthographic word (= same spelling, different pronunciation), we get homographs.

Grammatical word: A word apprehended as a grammatical unit, i.e., as a unit resulting from the application of some grammatical rule to a lexical word. The term also covers function words.

Homonyms: When two or *more lexical words are represented by the same phonological* or orthographic word (= same pronunciation, same spelling but quite different meanings), we get homonyms.

Homophones: When two or more orthographic words are represented by the same phonological word (different spelling, same pronunciation), we get homophones.

Internal stability: Signifies a characteristic of the unit word: the internal elements of a word are in a stable arrangement and cannot be moved around.

Lexical word (Lexeme): The word considered as an abstract meaning-bearing unit, independent of the various grammatical forms it acquires when subjected to the rules of grammar.

Minimum free form: Bloomfield's definition of the word as the smallest independently occurring unit of language. Freedom includes positional mobility and internal stability.

Morphemes: The smallest meaningful or grammatically functional unit of a language.

Orthographic word: The word conceived as a stretch of written or printed signs.

Phonological word: The word conceived as stretch of spoken speech sounds.

Polysemy: A lexical word is seen to have more than one meaning, and the additional meanings are seen as derived from the basic meaning of the word through metaphorical or figurative extension. We get words that are conditioned by the application of figure of speech in polysemy.

Positional mobility: The property that belongs to a word, and sometimes to a phrase, but never to a unit smaller than a word, of being moved around in a sentence.

Realization: The relationship between the units of two levels of structure where the higher level unit, though it is seen to be related to the lower level units in a hierarchy, is independent of the lower level units and has properties of its own, not derivable from the lower level units. Cf. **Composition**.

Syncretism: When the same phonological\orthographic word realizes two or more distinct grammatical words, we have syncretism.

4.8 Review Questions

1. Have you come across expressions like - 'wanna', 'gonna', and 'wannabe, Howdy?'

2. In informal spoken American English what are these four expressions supposed to be contractions of?
3. In terms of word-types, how many Phonological Word (PW), Orthographic Word (OW), Grammatical Word (GW) and Lexical Word(LW) can you identify in these four expressions?
4. You know that compounds in English are written in three ways: as **one word** (e.g., bedroom, bulldog), as **two words** (e.g., red tape, money order) and **with a hyphen in between two words** (e.g. swim--suit kick-start).
Look up a dictionary and find out ten compounds of each type.
5. Study any ten word compounds closely.
Can you figure out any rational basis for the decision to write them the way they are written?
6. What consideration seems to guide the decision to write some compounds as one word and some as two words?
7. Identify and comment on the homonyms and homophones in the following passage from **Alice in Wonderland**:
Here the Red Queen began again. ‘Can you answer useful questions?’ she said. ‘How is bread made?’
‘I know that!’ Alice cried eagerly. ‘You take some flour...’
‘Where do you pick the flower?’ the White Queen asked, ‘in a garden or in the hedges?’
‘Well, it isn’t picked at all,’ Alice explained, ‘It’s ground...’
8. What kind of relationship between the phonological word and the lexical word is responsible for the humour in the following dialogue?
*Customer: ‘Waiter, do you **serve** **shrimps**?’*
*Waiter: ‘We **serve** anyone, sir. We don’t mind what **size** you are.’*
9. Comment on the homonymy and the polysemy that makes the above joke possible.
10. Which of the following forms listed below are words according to the theory of word as ‘a minimum free form’ and why?
boy’s; boy; ’s; girls; girl; s; cornflakes; footpath; taller; fall;er; Red Indian; childlike; I’m; its; it’s.
11. Why the others are not words by this theory?
12. What difficulties do we face if we posit a composition relationship between

morphemes and words, i. e, if we say that words are made up of morphemes?

4.9 Notes and Answer Hints on Review Questions

Ans.1 and 2: Do yourself				
Answer: 3				
Expression	PW	OW	GW	LW
wanna : want to:	1	1	2	1 (want)
gonna ; going to:	1	1	2	1(go)((GOING)
wannabe : want to be	1	1	3	1 (want)
Howdy : How do you do	1	1	4	1 (do:2nd) nd)

Answer 4: Find more examples of English Compound words and make a tabular presentation.

Answer 5 and 6: Do yourself

Answer 7: Homophones and near-homonyms: ‘flower’ & ‘flour’ \flauə\ :one - many relation-ship between the phonological word \flau\ and the orthographic words ‘flower’ and ‘flour’. Hence homophones.

The same phonological word \flauə\, but not the same orthographic word, belongs to two different lexemes, hence near-homonyms.

Homonyms: ‘ground’ (noun) and ‘ground’ (past participle of ‘grind’). One phono-logical and orthographic word belongs to two different lexemes: Ground and ‘Grind’.

Answer 8. The single phonological and orthographic word ‘**shrimp**’ belongs to two different lexemes:

- The word ‘shrimp’ means ‘small shellfish used for food.’ And
- The word ‘shrimp’ means ‘**a very small person**’.

There is a one-to-many relationship between the phonological word \ʃrɪmps\ and the lexical words that are inter-related.

Answer 9. Polysemy is involved in the use of the verb ‘serve’. The two related meanings are:

- ‘to dish up food.’
- ‘to wait upon a person at table’.

The joke partially depends upon the fact that the customer uses ‘serve’ in the first sense while the waiter uses it in the second sense.

Partially, the joke depends on the two senses of the word, ‘shrimps’.

Answer 10. Words are; **boy’s; boy; girls; taller; fall; its**

These are words because they cannot be broken down into smaller free forms: they themselves are the minimum free forms. Some of them can be broken down into two smaller forms, e.g. the word {‘boy’s} into (boy) and (’s).

As (’s) is not a free form by itself, boy’s stay the minimum form, though ‘boy’ is also a free form.

Answer 11.Others are not words for different reasons:

- -’s, -s, -er are not words as they are not free forms.
- **Cornflakes, footpath, Red Indian, childlike** are not minimum forms; each of them can be broken down into two smaller forms which occur freely.
- ‘I’m’ and it’s are not words because they are made up of two words each:
- ‘I’m and “’s” here are not like ; ‘s’ in boy’s; ’m stands for ‘I am’ and “’s” for is. The test of positional mobility shows that ‘am’ is not tied after I, though at first that is how it looks. We can also say ‘**Am I?**’

Answer 12. We face two major problems:

First, this means we treat both morphemes and words as physical entities and be able to demonstrate that every word is physically (i.e. phonologically and orthographically) composed of smaller physical units called morphemes. This is not possible as morphemes which are physically identifiable in many words are identifiable only by meaning in context in many others (e.g., the plural morpheme in plural nouns).

Secondly, words have a number of ‘emergent’ properties or properties which are not derivable from their constituent morphemes. For example, words belong to grammatical classes like nouns and verbs and morphemes do not require categorical status.

The grammatical class of a word cannot be predicted from knowledge of its ‘constituent’ morphemes ‘Breakable’ (adjective and ‘breakage’ (noun) both contain the morpheme break which is a verb as a word, while the morphemes -able and -age have no class properties by themselves. This shows that the property of belonging to a grammatical class is not derived from morphemes as mor-phemes are never judged by this property.

Footnotes

- 1 Written representations of phonemes.
- 2 Spoken representations of human speech sounds.
- 3 Phonemes that have acquired currency as orthographically available lexemes or grammars.
- 4 Related representations of speech or narrative through written scripts.
- 5 Minimal minimum units of a word of English Language.
- 6 Related to combination of written morphemes and Speech Sounds of English.
- 7 Combined approach of considering phonological representation of a morpheme or morphological representation of a phonological utterance.

MODULE - 2: AFFIXATION AND PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSES

Unit 5 □ Affixations: Prefixes and Suffixes (Theoretical)

- 5.1 Introduction**
- 5.2 Objectives**
- 5.3 Application Protocol of English Morphemes as Affixes**
- 5.4 Simple, Complex and Compound Words**
- 5.5 English Affixes: Prefix Suffix and Infix**
- 5.6 Inflectional and Derivational Morphology**
- 5.7 Summary**
- 5.8 Review Questions**
- 5.9 References and Reading List**

5.1 Introduction

The present Module will depend upon the basic understanding of the concepts already introduced in the previous Module. This Module will focus on improving Practical skills in linguistic and morphological analysis of English Lexical words and Functional words. It will emphasize on the Practical aspect of Inflectional and Derivational morphology of English words. This Module will analyze Semantico-syntactic structures of English morphology and deal with all the major and minor processes of Morphophonemic improvement of English Morphology and Phonology as well. In the previous Module we established certain basic principles of the formal study of words.

The principles are:

1. Words are not the smallest units of language either in terms of meaning or form.
2. The smallest unit of language is the morpheme. It is the smallest unit of meaning as well as grammatical function.
3. Word and morpheme are the two lowest levels of structure in the grammar of English language.
4. The relationship between the levels in one of realization. Morpheme and morpheme combinations are realized as words.

In this unit, we will look at mainly one class of morphemes, the bound grammatical morphemes, and see why it is desirable to analyze the grammatical word into constituent elements which include bound grammatical morphemes. We will then go on to describe the main types of bound grammatical morphemes in English and shall see the role they play in the formation, and the role of words belonging to the different parts of speech in English through the process of affixation¹.

5.2 Objectives

After successful completion of this unit you would be able to:

- distinguish between the inflectional and the derivational morphology of English,
- to operate with concepts relevant to the morphology of English, e.g., stems, roots, affixes, etc.,
- see how the application of the principles of inflectional morphology to English words yields the paradigms of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs, and
- make a distinction between regular and irregular forms in the paradigms.

5.3 Application Protocol of English Morphemes as Affixes

Among the **various** distinctions we made in the previous module, these will be particularly relevant to the present and the following units. We shall therefore list and describe them in the context of **affixation** as a process of word formation in English:

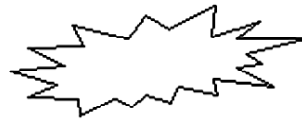
A. Certain morphemes in English are such that they are realized at the word level into independently occurring word forms, while others are realized, only in combination with other morphemes into merged forms where their separate identity may not always be represented by phonological or orthographic means. In that case morphemes are realized as **Affixes** in the course of English word formation.

B. The free morphemes like **boy**, **book**, and **read** occur at the **word** level *as pre-existing and meaningful* free morpheme². The words, “boyish, bookish and reading” do enjoy the same status as English words.

Task 1

Use the following morphemes and combine them to form as many words as you can and put them in four categories:

Boy; night; knight; right; wrong; dark; -ish;-ness; ly; -less; -hood; mingle; com-; bright; -er; -ful; -eous; old; sense.



Verbs

Adverbs

Grade yourself in the scale of 1-5 for each category:

Your Grade: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____

- C. The last three words mentioned above (boyish, bookish, reading) are however **morpheme combinations** and they contain two morphemes in each. The first two words contain the morpheme **-ish** while the last word contains ‘**-ing**’. These morphemes occur only in combination with other free morphemes like **boy** and **book** and are not realized as independent word forms. ‘**-ing**’ is actually the morpheme **continuous aspect**. It’s convenient representation as **-ing** here is based on the fact that it is orthographically realized as the **suffix-ing**, but this kind of opportunity is not available to us in all cases. For example, the morpheme **past**, when combined with the morpheme **read**, gives us the **homographic word form** ‘read’ and the phonological form /red/, neither of which presents us with a convenient grasp on the morpheme. Therefore, morphemes like **-ing** or **continuous aspect** of a verbal paradigm can only be treated as abstract entities.
- D. As we cannot regard some morphemes as abstract and others as concrete, all morphemes are treated as abstract. This, however, does not affect the division of morphemes into free and bound. Morphemes like **-ish, -ed or continuous aspect**, which are not realized as independently occurring words, are bound morphemes that are addable as **suffixes in English words**.
- E. Lexemes were defined in the previous units as abstract entities which represent meanings. Meanings are based on references to external objects or concepts associated with external objects. However, not all language units we identify as words have meanings in this sense. For example, function words³ do not refer to anything outside the language. They only help to relate words, or units

made up of different combinations of morphemes to one another. In other words, they only have grammatical functions.

- F. Grammar is a collective name for the set of rules that describe how words in a language are combined together to produce well-formed sentences. As function words only play a role in producing grammatical combinations without contributing any meaning of their own, they are said to belong only to the category of grammatical words or grammemes and never considered for their lexical properties.
- G. Forms of lexical words are derived by prior application of linguistic rules of morphology.
- H. As all English words are either **morphemes** or morpheme compounds before they are recognized as words, function words too can be seen as abstract grammatical morphemes before they are realized as words.
- I. Thus, the orthographic word '**the**' can be seen as corresponding to the abstract grammatical morpheme **definite article**.
- J. As opposed to grammatical morphemes, lexical morphemes are those morphemes which (individually or in combination with other lexical morphemes) are realized by lexical words at the word level. These include words belonging to the categories of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs that are considered as **Parts of Speech** in traditional School Grammar.
- K. Both grammatical and lexical morphemes can be free or bound. Articles, Pronouns and other Determiners⁴ are examples of free grammatical morphemes as they are realized as freely occurring word forms.
- L. But morphemes like **plural, present, past, continuous, past perfect, present perfect** are not realized as freely occurring word forms but as modifications on other freely occurring lexical word forms. This is why they are called bound morphemes that can be added as **suffixes** in English. It is quite possible for some of these morphemes, if they occur in another language, to occur as free morphemes.
- M. Similarly, nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs, which are all realized as free-occurring lexical words, are free morphemes, while morphemes like **-ish, -al -able, and -ness** are considered as suitable bound morphemes, to be used as **suffixes** in English.
- N. Unlike lexical morphemes, grammatical morphemes are never considered for content meaning. But it would be wrong to conclude that they make no contribution to the meaning of the sentence. However, their contribution to meaning is made not by adding their own independent meaning to the aggregate but by modifying the meanings of the lexical words in the sentence in certain fixed ways.

- O. Bound lexical morphemes (**-ish, al, -able, -ness**) also make their contribution to meaning by modifying the meanings of the lexical morphemes with which they are combined, but there is an important difference there from the way in which bound grammatical morphemes make their contribution to meaning.
- P. Bound grammatical morphemes, usually realized as **affixes** in the phonological forms, modify the meanings of the lexical morphemes to which they are joined in fixed and regular ways, e.g., the addition of the bound morpheme Plural always adds the meaning ‘more than one.’
- Q. Bound lexical morphemes, on the other hand, may modify the meanings of different lexical morphemes in different ways. For example, the addition of the morpheme-suffix ‘-ize’ to the noun symbol adds the meaning ‘to act as a ... of; its addition to the noun ‘hospital’ contributes the meaning ‘to put in a hospital for treatment’. Added to the noun ‘diesel’, the same suffix ‘-ize’ contributes the meaning ‘to convert to diesel engine power’ and so on. In other words, while the morphological effects on meaning of the bound grammatical morphemes are predictable, those of bound lexical morphemes are not predictable semantically.

We can present the information diagrammatically that emerges from the description made so far as follows:

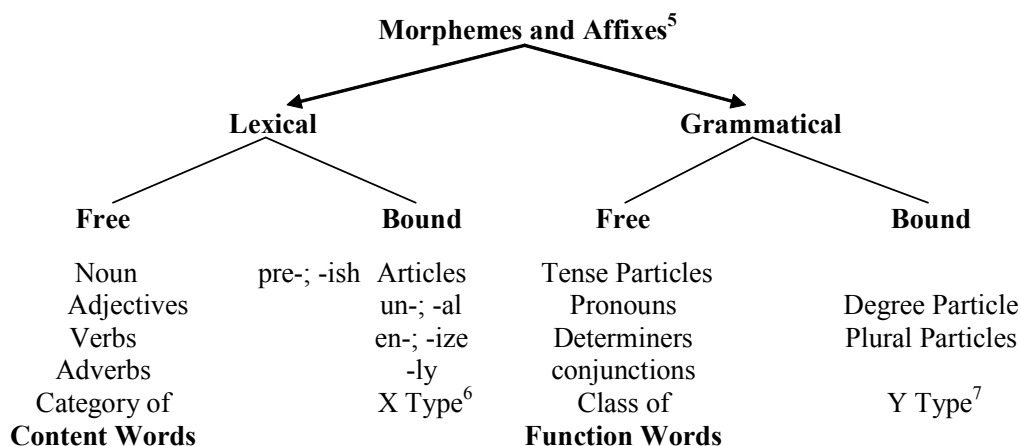


Diagram : Displaying Different Types of English Morphemes

Much of what we have to say in this and the following unit has to do with the two classes of bound morphemes we have labelled as X Type and Y Type respectively in the diagram. As you can see, X Type is the class of bound lexical morphemes and Y Type is the class of bound grammatical morphemes. The question we will be dealing with is:

What role do these two types of morphemes play in English word-formation?

Later on we shall be concerned with certain other processes of word formation, the processes which do not involve bound morphemes.

5.4 Simple, Complex Compound and Compound Complex words

One of the major characteristics of any human language is that one can always produce and understand new words. In fact, one of the reasons English vocabulary has got richer and richer is that English allows the manufacture of new words almost as a routine matter. Even a cursory look at a newspaper reveals many words which would not be found in a dictionary published only fifty years ago. Words like **politicize**, **criminalize**, and **marginalize** were coined in the recent past, and one can now read words like **Ambedkarize**, **McDonaldize**, **Mandalize** and **Mamtaize** or **Modize** too for that matter.

Such words are coined according to certain fixed patterns and not at will. For example while one can produce and understand words like the ones just mentioned the new words like ***redize**⁸, ***bluize** ***purpleize**, ***scarletize** or ***saffronize** have yet to get currency.

Similarly, one can use a very recently coined noun, **email**, as a verb and say I emailed a reminder to him, but one cannot do that with the quite old noun message to say ***I messaged him a reminder**. In other words, though word formation is a productive process, like all productive processes, it is governed by certain rules. It is our aim in this and the following units, to give you a brief account of the rules that account for the productive processes of word-formation in English.

Words can be divided into simple, complex, compound and compound-complex types depending on whether they realize a single free morpheme, a free morpheme plus one or more bound morphemes, two or more free morphemes, or two or more free morphemes plus one or more bound morphemes respectively. See the table below for examples:

Word Type	Examples
Simple	Boy; sing; kind; write
Complex	Boys; singing; kindness; writers
Compound	Playboy; singsong; wannabe; gonna; howdy
Compound-Complex	hot-bloodedness; writer-producer

Table : Displaying Different Types of English Words

This neat picture is disturbed by a relatively small set of complex words which seem to realize as a combination of bound morphemes only. Consider, for example, the set of words **local, locality, dislocate, locus, localize**. Because of the constancy of the root element 'loc' in all these forms, accompanied by a constancy of meaning (place), some linguists argue that 'loc' be recognized as a morpheme. However, since loc does not appear independently as a word, it must be recognized, as the realization of a bound morpheme. This further leads us to conclude that complex words could also be realizations of combinations of bound morphemes only, since all other morphemes in these words are bound too. Other candidates for complex words of this type could be words containing elements like - **ceive** (as in **receive, deceive, conceive**); -**duce** (as in **reduce, deduce, produce**); **sanct-** (as in **sanctify, sanctum, sanctuary, sanctity**); '**tox**' (as in **toxic, toxicology, intoxicate, and detoxify**).

The most productive processes of word-formation are seen to be in operation in the making of complex and compound words. The store of simple words, though it is by no means fixed for ever, enlarges by processes which are not always linguistically approved. When ever a new object, or process, or concept is discovered a word has to be found for it. The word can come from anywhere or from different foreign sources e.g. from an ancient language, from a foreign language, from the discoverer's imagination, and so on.

Examples of recently invented words are **splooching**, in Jack Kerouac's "I come splooching to a no-good end" and googol, adapted from an infant's cooing noise by a mathematician at a loss for a word to describe the number ten raised to the power hundred. Sometimes the new word may be recycled from morphemes already existing in the language.

If the new word is a simple one, i. e. if it is not a complex or compound word created from already existing morphemes, the store of simple words of the language is increased. Such words are always content words, as the store of function words is fixed forever. The new word will of course have a corresponding morpheme and this morpheme will then be subject to the same rules of combination and realization that apply to other morphemes of its class.

5.5 English Affixes: Prefix Suffix and Infix

Complex words are words that include multiple **affixes**. As we stated earlier, in the majority of cases of complex and compound words⁹ that are realized as words can

be identified as separate elements (called morphs) in the phonological and orthographic representations. This makes it easier to refer to the morphemes when talking about the rules which govern their occurrence.

English Affixes are building blocks of extensive English vocabulary and are basic elements of word formation.

English affix can take the form of a **prefix** when it is used before a **root word**.

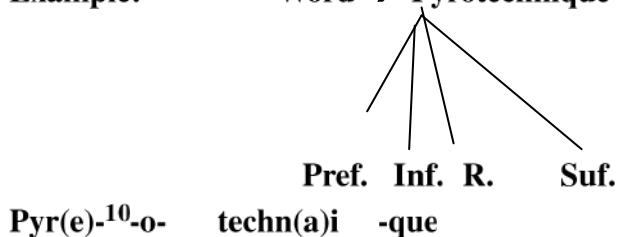
Common prefixes include un-, dis- and ex- .

English affix can be used as **suffix** when it is attached after the **root word**. Example: -ish; -ity; -ize and so on.

English affix can be used as **infix** when it is attached **in between the prefix and the root** and **in between the root word and the suffix**. There are two sub types of infix:

Sub Type A Infix ‘-o-‘

Example: Word → Pyrotechnique



Sub Type B Infix

Example: Root :<morph> + Infix <o> + Suffix <-logy> = Morphology

Morphology is the branch of Linguistics that deals with the internal structure¹¹ of words. It has a set of terms to describe the various categories into which these morpheme elements¹² can be separated. The basic category-terms are **affixes**. The major affixes are of two types that are better known as **prefixes (e.g. pre-)** and **suffixes (e.g. -al)**. Infix is an exceptional affix in English. As stated above **English affix** can also be used as **infix** when it is attached **in between the prefix and the root** and **in between the root word and the suffix**. There are two sub types of infix. See above for examples. A complex word, as stated above, realizes the combination of :

- i. One free morpheme and one or more than one bound morphemes; or
- ii. Two or more bound morphemes.

Some examples of such combinations are as described below:

Word	Prefix-	Root/Base	-Infix-	-Suffix 1	-Suffix 2
impenetrably	im-	Penetr(e)	—	- able	-y
declassifying	de-	class	-i-	-fy	-ing
rechargedly	re-	charg(e)	—	-ed	-ly
hopelessly	—	hope	—	-less	-ly
hopefully	—	hope	—	-ful(l)	-ly
deindustrializing	de-	industrial	—	-iz (e)	-ing

Table : Displaying Different Types of English Affixes

Most of these complex words have one free morpheme (e.g., **class charge, hope industry**) and one or more than one bound morphemes (e.g., im-, de-, -able, -fy, etc.). We can call the element that represents the free morpheme in these words the ‘**base or the root**’ of the complex word. The elements representing the bound morphemes are attached to this base, either at the front or at the end. This base is of course not always a free morpheme: in the case of a complex word it is made up of two or more bound morphemes, i.e. in words containing elements like **loc-, -ceive-,** and **-duce** cited above, the base is a bound morpheme. In the first word in the above list, the base is ‘**penetr(e)-**’ a bound morpheme. Such bases are called bound bases. The bound morphemes that attach themselves to the beginning or to the end of the base are called **affixes**.

The most common **Affixes** are of two types in English:

- i. **Affixes** that are attached at the beginning of the **base or the root** are called **prefixes**.
- ii. **Affixes** that are attached to the end of the base are called **suffixes**.

Thus, **im-** and **de-** are prefixes while **-able** and **-fy** are suffixes. When the affixes are thus factored out, in words containing elements like **-loc-, -ceive-,** and **-duce** these elements will turn out to be the bound bases.

Affixes do not always attach themselves to bases realizing a single free or bound morpheme: often they attach themselves to bases which are combinations of free and bound morphemes. For example, in the word ‘hopelessly’, ‘-ly’ is not attached to the free morpheme base ‘hope’ but to the combination ‘hopeless’ in which the bound morpheme ‘-less’ is already attached to ‘hope’.

Similarly, in the word ‘impenetrable’, the prefix ‘im-’ is attached not to the bound base ‘**penetr-**’ but to the adjective word ‘penetrable’ which realizes the combination, penetr + able of a free and a bound morpheme respectively. How do we know this? We know this because prefixing ‘im-’ to the bound base penetr- would give us a nonexistent form *‘impenetr’. On the other hand, attaching the element ‘-able’ to the

base ‘penetr-’ gives us the form ‘penetrable’ which is a well-formed adjective to which the prefix ‘im-’ can now be attached to get the word ‘impenetrable’. The steps in the formation of this word are therefore as detailed in **Box A** and not as in **Box B**:

Serial Number	Box A	Serial Number	Box B ¹³
1	Penetr (e) + able	1	*im + penetr
2	im + (penetr(e) + able)	2	(*im + penetr) + able

Table : Morphological Analysis of the Word ‘impenetrable’

The bound morpheme element ‘im-’ is here attached not to the single morpheme base ‘penetr(e)’ but to the combination of a bound base with a bound morpheme which is realized as a suffix-. Im- is thus prefixed to a ‘complex base’.

Root and Stem

Etymologically speaking, most of the English words have got foreign roots (free morphemes) that constitute the base of the word. For example ‘*technai*’ (Latin) is the **root** in the word ‘technology’. The moment we want to understand the etymological construction of a bigger word we have to understand the **stem** function of a root. For example if we like to analyse the word ‘technological’ we must bring the concept of stem root. At first we have to break the word into two parts as shown below:

<p>Morphological Analysis or Word Analysis <i>First Step: Word → technological = Stem → technology + Suffix2 → -cal</i> <i>Second Step: Stem → technology = Prefix → 0 + Root → techn(ai)¹⁴ + Infix → -o- + Suffix 1 → logy</i></p>

Table : Morphological Analysis of the Word ‘technological’

The term **stem** is used in morphology to describe any element, or combination of elements, to which an affix is attached. It is thus synonymous with the term ‘base’. In our first example above, ‘hope’ is the stem to which the suffix ‘-less’ is attached, and ‘hopeless, is the stem to which suffix 2 ‘-ly’ is attached.

In the second example, the suffix ‘-able’ is attached to the stem ‘penetr(e)’ and not to the stem ‘impenetr(e)’; the prefix ‘im-’ is attached to the stem ‘penetrable’ and not to the stem ‘penetr’.

A **stem** can therefore consist of :

i	only a free morpheme base, as in ‘hopeless’,
ii	a bound morpheme base, as in ‘penetrable’,
iii	a base consisting of a free morpheme and one or more than one bound morphemes, as in ‘deindustrialize’ or ‘anti- humanitarianism’,
iv	a ‘compound base’ consisting of two or more free morphemes, as in ‘flower-pots’.

Table : Componential Morphemes of English Word Stem

A stem consisting of only one free morpheme is called the root (e.g ‘human’ in ‘anti- humanitarianism’); one consisting of two free morphemes is said to have a compound root (e.g. ‘flower + pot’ in the word, ‘flowerpots’).

Task 2

Study the following words and find out different types of affixes used in these words:			
i. Morphological			
ii. Technologically			
iii. cytology			
iv. Encouraging			
Answer:			
Evaluate your answer and grade yourself in the scale 1-5 for each:			
Grade i.	ii.	iii.	iv.

5.6 Inflectional and Derivational Morphology

John Lyons¹⁵ (1968) remarks that grammars written in the classical tradition of Greek and Latin were generally divided into three sections: these sections were respectively Accidence, Word-formation and Syntax. ‘Accidence’ was also called ‘inflection’ and ‘word-formation’. Lyons also tells us that while these grammars devoted hundreds of pages to inflection and syntax, they devoted only half a dozen or so pages to derivation. The reason for this was that the classical grammarians did not really consider derivation to be a part of grammar. For them grammar was mainly inflection and syntax. Inflection refers to the changes made in the sentence. In classical grammar, this section included topics like the ‘declensions’ of nouns, adjectives and pronouns and the ‘conjugation’ of verbs. The section on derivation listed various processes

whereby new words were formed from existing words, or ‘roots’, for example, adjectives from nouns, nouns from verbs, etc. The fact that these grammars never completely excluded this section from their grammars shows that they were aware of the regularities involved in derivation, yet they did not give the topic full treatment because they thought derivational forms belonged to dictionary and not to grammar. So the derivational forms were listed as distinct forms in the dictionary, but the inflectional forms¹⁶ were not. They had to be derived by applying the rules given in the grammar. We can restate the inflection derivation distinction in terms of the three distinctions we have made in the discussion above.

Inflection refers to the ways in which bound grammatical morphemes (morphemes of Type **Y**) combine with stems to be realized as grammatical words. Derivation, on the other hand, describes the ways in which bound lexical morphemes¹⁷ combine with stems to be realized as lexical words. As we know, both lexical and grammatical words eventually surface as phonological and orthographic words, where these bound morphemes can be identified in most (though not all) cases as affixes. Accordingly, affixes which realize bound grammatical morphemes, and therefore perform only grammatical functions are called **inflectional affixes**. Correspondingly, affixes which realize bound lexical morphemes and help to create new lexical words with distinct meanings are called **derivational affixes**.

Examples of inflectional affixes in English are the suffix **-s/-es** on plural nouns, the suffix **-s/-es** on third person, singular number verbs, the suffix “s” on possessive nouns, the suffix **-d/ed** on past participle forms of verbs, and so on. In describing the inflectional morphology of English, we will need to describe the various bound grammatical morphemes these and other inflectional affixes of English realize, and various kinds of grammatical functions they perform. We will also need to describe the forms these affixes take in the corresponding phonological and orthographic words and any other irregularities that we may notice in this correspondence.

Examples of derivational affixes in English include all those prefixes and suffixes we have called bound lexical morphemes, e.g. **de-, re-, -ize** and **-ation**. As these bound morphemes combine with other free lexical morphemes, or stems containing them, the derivational morphology of English will need to describe the grammatical category of the morphemes (or morpheme combinations) to which each derivational affix morpheme can be attached. The grammatical category of the resulting word may cause the change of meaning often brought about by the affix. The affixes often cause any noticeable irregularity in the meaning level of a word and the grammatical regularities or irregularities in the corresponding phonological and orthographic representations are adjusted accordingly.

Before proceeding further, it would be useful to summarize the characteristics that

distinguish the inflectional morphology of English from its derivational morphology. As you will notice, some of these points are restatements of the points already made above:

1. **Inflectional affixes** never change the grammatical category (part of speech) of the stem: a noun remains a noun, a verb a verb, an adjective an adjective even after an affix has been added to it.
2. Derivational affixes may or may not change the grammatical category of the stem: Examples:

i. **Modern (Adj.) + -ize → modernize (V.)**

ii. **Read (V.) + -able → readable (Adj)**

iii. **Nude (Adj.) + -ity → nudity.**

iii. Derivational prefixes in particular do not seem to affect the category of the stem.

i. **Dis- + obey (V.) → disobey (V.)**

ii. **Re- + charge → recharge**

iii. **Mis- + fortune → misfortune**

Exception: en- + circle (N.) → encircle (V.)

iv. **Inflectional affixes** in English are all **suffixes**; derivational affixes may be prefixes or suffixes.

v. Both derivational and inflectional morphemes may occur in the same word, but when that happens derivational morphemes are attached first and inflectional morphemes last, i.e. derivation creates the input to inflection but not vice versa.

vi. Once an inflectional affix has been attached to a form, no other affixes can be added to it.

vii. As a result, in a complex word the inflectional affixes mark the outer layer and the derivational affixes the inner layer. Note how the formation of the word **deindustrializing** illustrates this point:

Root	industry
Derivational S 1	industr (i) + al
Derivational S 2	(industr (i) + al) + -ize
Derivational P 2	de + {(industr (i) + al) + ize}
Inflectional S 1	{de+ {(industr (i) + al) + ize} } +ing}

Table 6 : Root and Affixes of English Word ‘reindustrializing’

The addition of a bound lexical morpheme (a derivational affix) creates a new lexeme (a lexical word) which can independently convert to a grammatical word through the application of appropriate grammatical rules.

viii. If both compounding¹⁸ and inflection take place, inflection follows compounding. If compounding, derivation and inflection all three occur, they follow the stated order, e.g., **kickstarted=(kick +-start) + -ed; channel-hopping = (channel+hop) + -p- + -ing; footballers = {(foot +- ball) +-er} + -s.**

ix. Inflectional affixes modify the meanings of the stem in a regular and predictable way, e.g. the plural affix, the past affix, etc. The meaning change affected by derivational affixes is unpredictable.

5.7 Summary

The definite article morpheme modifies the meaning of the noun it occurs with by making its reference definite; the plural morpheme added to a countable lexical noun makes its reference plural; the past tense morpheme added to a lexical verb changes its time reference to past. The addition of a continuous aspect morpheme to a verb adds the meaning ‘action taking place at the point of time being spoken of’, and so on. Grammatical function, though distinguishable from lexical meaning, makes its own contribution to the total meaning of the sentence by carrying out certain standard modifications to the meanings of the lexical words occurring in it. Affixes which realize bound grammatical morphemes, and therefore perform only grammatical functions are called **inflectional affixes**. Correspondingly, affixes which realize bound lexical morphemes and help to create new lexical words with distinct meanings are called **derivational affixes**.

5.8 Review Questions

- a. How are words classified?
- b. Do all the words have meaning?
- c. Is it appropriate to call morpheme as a minimal unit of meaning?
- d. What does morpheme as an abstract entity mean?
- e. How do we divide a word into morphemes?
- f. What are the types of words formed with the addition of morphemes?
- g. How are derivational and inflectional morphemes different?
- h. Is there an order in which suffixes can be added?

- i. give some examples of infixes in English?
- j. Can a prefix change the meaning of a word?
- k. Can the prefix change the grammar of a word?
- l. Does your language have affixes?

5.9 References and Reading List

1. Carter, R (1987). *Vocabulary, Applied Linguistic Perspectives*. London: Allen & Unwin
2. Dey, S.K. (2014). *Teaching of English*, New Delhi, Pearson Education.
3. Hockett C.F. (1958). *A Course in Modern Linguistics*, New York; The Macmillan Company.
4. Katamba. F. (1994). *English Words*, London: Routledge.
5. Lyons, J. (1968). *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*, Cambridge: The University' Press.
6. Lyons, J. (1977). *Semantics*, Vols. I & 2, Cambridge; The University Press.

Notes

- 1 Affixation is a consistent linguistic process of adding bound morphemes with the free morphemes of English Language to coin new words.
- 2 i.e. independently occurring forms
- 3 Like modal auxiliaries, prepositions and conjunctions
- 4 Better –known as Function Words or Functional Words
- 5 Bound Morphemes are used as Affixes
- 6 Semantically bound and combined in morpheme
- 7 Grammatically bound and realized in morpheme
- 8 the *mark indicates that the form is yet to get grammatical acceptance
- 9 i.e. the free and bound morphemes in combination
- 10 Deleted by the effect of Apocope
- 11 or 'morphic setting'
- 12 or morphs
- 13 Examples that are never recommended
- 14 **Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics (CUP:1968)**
- 15 i.e. words with bound grammatical morphemes in them
- 16 i.e. morphemes of the **Type X** as displayed in **Diagram:**above
- 17 Process of combining two or more free morphemes as words and targeting a singular meaning through such word compounding.

Unit 6 □ Affixations-Prefixes and Suffixes (Practical)

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Objectives
- 6.3 Inflectional Morphology
 - 6.3.1 English Noun
 - 6.3.2 English Pronoun
 - 6.3.3 English Adjective
 - 6.3.4 English Adverb
 - 6.3.5 English Verb
- 6.4 Derivational Morphology of English Language
 - 6.4.1 Derivational English Prefixes
 - 6.4.2 Derivational English Suffixes
- 6.5 Zero Derivation and Conversion
 - 6.5.1 Classifying Cases of Conversion
- 6.6 Summary
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- 6.9 Reading List

6.1 Introduction

The inflectional morphology of a language is usually discussed in terms of paradigms. As we have stated in the previous unit, a paradigm refers to a set of forms derived by the application of certain grammatical rules to a lexical, or, in the case of pronouns and auxiliaries, to a function word. Thus the English verb has a paradigm called the '**Verb paradigm**' which consists of the grammatical words derived by the application of those grammar rules which are pertinent to the English lexical verb. For example, the paradigm of the verb '**break**' contains the following forms:

break breaks Breaking broke broken.

Each of these forms is derived by the application of separate grammar rules like **Present Indefinite Tense** formation, **Present Tense** (Third Person), **Past Tense** formation and **Past Participle** formation.

6.2 Objectives

After reading the unit you will be able to

- Describe the **inflectional** and **derivational** morphology of English,
- Learn about the categories which can take inflectional affixes,
- Describe the sets of ‘grammatical rules’ that apply to words of a given category,
- Understand the morphological process of Word **Conversion** and word **Compounding**

6.3 Inflectional Morphology

The **inflectional** morphology of English describes the paradigms of all the major grammatical categories of words, namely Nouns (including Pronouns), Adjectives, Verbs (including Auxiliaries), and Adverbs. Only words belonging to these categories take **inflectional affixes**, or are affected otherwise by the rules of grammar. Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Articles do not change their forms at all, and therefore have no paradigms.

6.3.1 English Noun

English nouns fall into two major subcategories: proper and common. The basis of this sub categorization is supposed to be semantic (i.e. meaning based): Proper nouns denote unique identities whereas common nouns denote persons, objects, etc. which are members of a class. Thus, despite the fact that hundreds of males may share the name ‘Sachin’, each occurrence of this noun refers to one and only one person; on the contrary, no occurrence of the noun ‘cat’ can refer to only one animal; it must always refer to any member, of the class of cats. But proper and common nouns could also be differentiated solely on the basis of their paradigms. How?

To answer this question we must first describe the grammatical rules that apply to nouns. As stated earlier, grammatical rules are rules which state how words can combine with each other to form clauses and sentences. They describe which categories of words can combine with which other categories of words, in what order, with what changes of form, with what signification, and so on. Considered in this way, the rules that apply to nouns can be said to be the following:

I. The Number Rule: This rule allows you to choose singular or plural reference. If we want the reference to be singular, we choose the Free morpheme SINGULAR; if we want it to be plural, we choose the bound morpheme PLURAL.

II. The Case-formation Rule: This rule states that one noun (**N1**) can combine with another noun (**N2**) to signify possession. This rule applies if we wish to express the meaning ‘**N2** belongs to **N1**’. If we want the rule to apply, we choose the bound morpheme, POSSESSIVE with N1.

These are the only two rules that apply to the English noun so far as paradigm formation is concerned. Infact, only the second rule applies to the class of proper nouns. This is because there is no choice of number with, proper nouns. Being a uniqueness identifier, a proper noun always has singular reference even when it happens to be plural in form. For example: **The Helions** refers to a group of singers. **The West Indies** refers to a country and so on. The only time proper nouns show plural reference is when they are used as common nouns. Hence the paradigm of the Proper nouns contains only two forms, as follows:

Paradigm, of the Proper Noun

Common Case	Possessive Case
Proper Noun + Common	Proper Noun + Possessive
i. Tram → /tra:m/	Tram's → /tra:mz/
ii. Spat → /spæt/	Spat's → /spæts/
iii. George → /dzɔ:dz/	George's → /dzɔ:dziz/

Table : Displaying Inflectional Morphology of English Noun¹

The variation to be seen in the phonological representations is discussed below.

Paradigm of the Common Noun: The paradigm of the common noun is a little more complicated. Common nouns are further subcategorized into Count and Mass nouns. The formal basis of this subcategorization is that their paradigms are different, but the subcategorization also has a basis in meaning. Count nouns denote objects which can be counted (e.g., cat, boy, house, speaker, etc.); Mass nouns denote objects which cannot be counted (e.g., water, milk, silver, advice, and peace).

The paradigm of the Count Noun is formed by the application of both number and case rules. The following forms result:

Rule 1

Singular	Plural
Count Noun + singular	Count noun + Plural
cat + singular = 'cat' /kæt/	cat + plural = 'cats' /kæts/
dog + singular = 'dog' /dɔg/	
dog + sing+poss = 'dogs' /dogz/	
house + singular = 'house' /hɔ:s/	horse + plural = 'horse' /hɔ:siz/

Rule 2

Common Case	Possessive Case
count noun + common	count noun + possessive

cat + common = 'cat' /kæt/ cat + possessive = 'cat's' /kæts/
 dog + common = 'dog' /dɒg/
 dog + possessive = 'dog's' /dɒgz/
 horse + common = 'horse' /hɔ:s/ horse + possessive = 'horse' /hɔ:siz/

Rule 1 & 2 (Applying in that order)

Common Case	Possessive Case
Singular Number + Common Case	Singular Number + Possessive Case
cat + sing + common = 'cat' /kæt/	cat + possessive = 'cat's' /kæts/
dog + sing + common = 'dog' /dɒg/	dog + sing + poss = 'dog's' /dɒgz/
house + sing + common = 'horse' /hɔ:s/	horse = sing + poss = 'horse's' /hɔ:s/
Plural Number + Common Case	Plural Number + Possessive Case
cat + plu + common = 'cats' /kæts/	cat + plu + pos = 'cats' /kæts/
dog + sing + common = 'dogs' /dɒgz/	dogplu + poss = 'dogs' /dɒgz/
dog + plu + common = 'horse' /hɔ:s/	horse +plu + poss = 'horses' /hɔ:siz/

Table : Displaying Rules of Noun Paradigm in Case Grammar

This detailed presentation of the paradigm² of the regular count nouns is intended to assist you make out the following points:

- a. Paradigmatic contrast is shown by means of a regular change in the form (phonological\ orthographic) of the majority of words belonging to the class.
- b. The number of contrasts in paradigm is determined by the number of such regular formal changes. It is however not necessary for every word of that class to show all the changes. For example, most count nouns in English show the number contrast shown above, but some count nouns don't e.g. sheep and deer. which retain the same form in both singular and plural. This does not affect the existence of the paradigm, but creates syncretic forms.
- c. Some forms are syncretic with respect to both orthographic and phonological realizations but some others are syncretic with respect to only one of them, e.g., the Plural Number, Common Case, the Singular Number, Possessive Case and the Plural Number, Possessive Case are syncretism with respect to the corresponding phonological word since they all have the phonological shape /kæts/.
- d. But they are not syncretic with respect to. the orthographic shape which is different in each case, viz, 'cats', 'cats's' and 'cats' respectively. This means that if we were to go by the phonological shape only, we would not be justified in setting up a case paradigm in the plural for the count noun. However,

the existence of the differences in the orthographic representation, and a variety of other factors justify setting up the case paradigm.

- e. Some English words do not form their paradigms in the regular way. For example, some Common Nouns form their plurals not by taking on a suffix but by changing the vowel sound in the word as shown below:
- ‘man’/mæn/ → ‘men’ /men/;
 - ‘mouse’ /maʊs/ → ‘mice’ /maɪs/;
 - ‘foot’ /fʊt/ → ‘feet’/fi:t/;
- f. Some Common Nouns take the regular suffix but change the final consonant before adding the suffix, e.g., ‘knife’ /naɪf/ → ‘knives’ /naɪvz/.
- g. Some Common Nouns take the irregular suffixes, e.g., **child** → **children**; **ox** → **oxen**. However, since these nouns show the formal change in one way or another, they still fall in the paradigm.
- h. Note that when both number and case rules apply to forms like man, child, etc., we get forms like **men’s** /menz/ and **children’s** /tʃɪldrənz/. These unsyncretized forms clearly show the phonological shape of the case suffix in the plural which is not seen in the paradigm of the regular count nouns.
- i. These irregular forms are somewhat more difficult to account for in terms of allomorphic variation. However, an attempt has been made to set up a special kind of allomorph called ‘the replaced allomorph’ to accommodate irregular forms of this kind. A replaced allomorph is shown as a process of change, e.g., /æ/ > /e/.
- j. A replaced allomorph of the plural morpheme is used in case of **man** > **men**. Replaced allomorphs are said to be morphologically conditioned as they occur with certain fixed morphs only. The account is obviously not satisfactory, and does not cover cases like **child** > **children**.
- k. Common Nouns which do not show any changes of form for the plural (e.g. **deer** + **plural** → **deer**; and **sheep** + **plural** → **sheep**; **dish** + **plural** → **fish**³) are said to have **Zero Allomorphs** of the plural morpheme in this account.

Paradigm of the Mass Noun⁴: As ‘Mass Nouns’ denote objects which cannot be counted, the number contrast is irrelevant to them. This is why they have **no** plural inflection. We cannot normally speak of *advices, *informations, *milks, etc. For purposes of verb agreement, mass nouns are treated as singular (i.e. they take singular verbs), but this is not reflected in any way in the morphology of the mass noun.

Mass Nouns should not be confused with count nouns with zero plurals. Count nouns, even if they do not show the plural number by change of form, can still be

counted: we can say **ten sheep** and **a dozen deer**, but we cannot say ***three advice** or ***ten mutton**. We must add a countable noun to be able to slice up the mass nouns into countable bits: e.g., **ten pieces of advice** or a leg of mutton.

Mass nouns do not inflect for case either, instead they occur in the of construction after the noun they modify. We do not say power's love or courage's man but the love of power and a matt of courage respectively. In short, mass nouns do not have number and case paradigms.

6.3.2 English Pronoun

Now that we have the necessary framework for the description of the inflectional morphology of English, we can state the paradigms of the other parts of speech in a summary, tabulated style. You can expand the statement using the framework outlined above. A pronoun, as we know, is a word that is used in place of a noun when we do not want to repeat the noun again and again. These are words like **I, me, us, you, he, she, her, it, them, his, your, yours**, etc. These are called **Personal Pronouns**. The category of pronouns also covers words like **someone, somebody, everyone, everybody, etc.** They are called Indefinite Pronouns. The grammatical rules applicable to **Personal Pronouns** are:

A. The Case Rule: This rule puts the pronoun in nominative, objective or possessive case forms depending on whether the noun is to function as the subject of the verb, the object of the verb or is to be combined with a noun to show 'NP⁵ 2' belongs to 'NP' 1 relationship where NP1 = the pronoun and NP2 = the noun. With personal pronouns the possessive case produces two different forms which we call here the First Possessive and the Second Possessive form respectively. The difference is between the ways they combine with other words in a sentence:

- The First Possessive form occurs before a noun as in the NP '**my bicycle**'
- The Second Possessive form occurs after the verb (as in the sentence: The bicycle **is** mine).

B. The Person Rule: This rule puts the pronoun in three different forms depending on whether the reference is to the speaker (First Person), to the addressee (Second Person), or to a 'third party⁶'.

C. The Gender Rule: This rule puts some of the pronouns in three different forms depending on whether the reference is to the male of the species (Masculine), the female of the species (Feminine), or to nonliving objects (Neuter).

D. The Number Rule: This rule puts some of the pronouns into different forms

depending on whether the reference is to one (Singular) or to more than one (Plural) person or object.

Two essential points are to be noted about the application of these rules:

- i. The rules apply in an integrated fashion to produce a form, i.e., a particular form is the result of the application of all the rules together. Thus the form shows the nominative case, the third person, the masculine gender, and the singular number.
- ii. The application of the rules produces different forms which cannot be analysed into stem and affix, as in the case of nouns. This does not matter much as **the** purpose of signalling contrast is achieved anyway.

The paradigm of the Personal Pronouns can therefore be presented as follows in an integrated presentation:

Person	Number	Gender	Case			
			Nominative	Objective	First & 2 nd	Possessive
First	Singular		I	me	my	mine
	Plural		we	us	our	ours
Second			you	you	your	yours
Third	Singular	Masculine	he	him	his	
		Feminine	she	her	hers	
		Neuter	it		its	
	Plural.		they	them	their	theirs

Table : Displaying Inflectional Morphology of English Pronouns

The indefinite pronouns (*someone, somebody etc.*) form their paradigms like proper nouns; they show only case contrast (**someone** > **someone's**) but no number contrast. Unlike personal pronouns, but like proper nouns, they show contrast by taking on the suffix **-s** with parallel phonological shapes.

6.3.3 English Adjective

The only grammatical rule with morphological consequences that applies to English adjectives is the **Degree Rule**. This rule states that most base adjective morphemes can combine with the bound degree morphemes, Comparative and Superlative, to yield inflected forms, while a smaller class of base adjectives yield irregular degree forms. There is another set of adjectives which do not express the degrees morphologically at all, but do it through **the use** of the degree words *more* and *most*

for Comparative and Superlative degree respectively, A few **adjectives** cannot be combined with these bound morphemes at all. For the regular cases the inflection for the Comparative degree is the orthographic form ‘-er’ and the phonological form /ə/; for the Superlative, they are ‘-est’ and /ɪst/ respectively. Thus, the rule yields the forms ‘sweeter’/swi:tə/ and ‘sweetest’ /swi:tɪst/ respectively, from the base ‘sweet’ /swi:t/. Most monosyllabic⁷ adjectives and a large number of disyllabic⁸ ones fall in this category. Nearly all adjectives of three or more syllables fall outside this category. Instead of taking on affixes, they use more and most e.g., beautiful, interesting and so on. Also outside this category are adjectives like **dead**, **male**, and **round** which cannot; be compared at all.

Those adjectives whose comparative forms are quite unrelated to their base forms are also outside this category. The number of **such** adjectives is small but they are used very frequently as shown below:

Base	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
well	better	best
bad	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
far	further	furthest
little	less	lest
little	lesser	least

Table : Displaying Inflectional Morphology of English Adjectives

The inflectional paradigm of the English adjective is thus easily presented :

Base	+Positive	+Comparative	+Superlative
sweet	sweet	sweeter	sweetest
/swi:t/	/swi:t/	/swi:tə/	/swɪtɪst/

6.3.4 English Adverb

Adverbs are words that qualify verbs just as adjectives are words that qualify nouns. Adverbs qualify verbs by describing the place where, the time when, and the manner in which the action denoted by the verb takes place.

As with adjectives, the only rule that has any morphological consequences with adverbs is the Degree Rule. The inflectional paradigm is also the same. In fact, a large number of adjectives also function as adverbs and also inflect for degree in the same way as shown below:

Grammatical Category	Applications
Adjective:	Did you have to wait a long time?
Adverb:	Did you have to wait long ?
Adjective:	You can expect a longer wait this time.
Adjective:	This was my longest wait ever.
Adverb:	I had to wait the longest this time.

Table : Displaying Applications of English Degree Adjectives

Some other adjectives of this kind are **fast, short, hard, early, late**, etc. They also function as adverbs without any change of form and inflect in the same way for degree. **Soon** and **often** are two adverbs that inflect for degree but have no corresponding adjective forms. **Sooner, soonest, oftener, oftenest** occur only as adverbs. Irregular adverbs are also identical with irregular adjectives, the only difference being sometimes in the positive form. Note the equivalence:

Grammatical category Applications

Adjective:	Alice is a good painter.
Adverb:	Alice paints well .
Adjective:	Alice is a better painter.
Adverb:	Alice paints better .
Adjective:	Alice is the best painter.
Adverb:	Alice paints the best

Table : Displaying Applications of English Degree Words

We thus conclude that the inflectional paradigm of the adverb is identical to that of the adjective. Manner adverbs, which take the suffix **-ly** (e.g., **happily, rudely**, etc.) are not cases of inflectional morphology and will be discussed in the next unit with cases of derivational morphology.

6.3.5 English Verb

The distinction between lexical vs. function words made above, is reflected in the class of verbs in the division between the large subclass of lexical verbs, and a small subclass of auxiliary verbs. Lexical verbs are verbs with meaning content that occur in sentences as main verbs (e.g., ‘dismiss’ in the sentence ‘He *dismissed* the class’);

auxiliaries are helping verbs that help the main verb of the sentence to form its tense, voice, etc. (e.g., ‘was’ in ‘The class was dismissed’). Verbs in English are actually of three types:

- A. Lexical⁹ Verbs** are those verbs which function only as **main verbs** in a sentence, e.g., *dismiss, jump, hit, eat*, etc. They form a large and open class into which new members are regularly making entry.
- B. Modal¹⁰ Verbs** are those verbs which function only as auxiliaries. They are a small and closed class with no entry for new members. Verbs like *can, could, shall, should, will would, may, might* are some examples.
- C. Primary Verbs** are verbs which function both as Main verbs and as auxiliaries. There are only three verbs in this class. They are *be, have* and *do*.

In describing the inflectional morphology of the English verb, each of the above types must be dealt with separately. The grammatical rules that apply to the English verb are as follows:

- i. The Person and Number Rule:** Full and primary verbs show a change of form depending on the number (singular or plural) and person (first, second or third) of the subject. Full verb take regular inflection for the third person singular number subject in the simple present tense, primary verbs change form completely in both present and past tenses, but modals are not affected at all.
- ii. The Tense Rule:** English verbs undergo change of form to show the contrast between the present and past tenses only; they do not change form for future reference. The tense rule expresses this by postulating just two bound morphemes, Present and Past. When the verb combines with Past, a change of form results in most cases. A combination with PRESENT leads to a change of form only if Third Person and Singular Number are also present. Compare:

Subject	Predicate
I/we/you(Sing.), you(Plu.) he/ she/ they	looked very interesting.
I/we/you (Sing.), you(Plu.)/they .	look very interesting.
	He/she looks very interesting.

Table : Displaying Applications of English Pronouns

- iii. The Aspect Rule:** When we speak of the Continuous tense (or bound morpheme), or of the Perfect tense, we refer to an aspect of the action we are talking about which is not correctly captured by the term ‘tense’.
- iv. ‘Tense’ refers to the time of action, present or past, but ‘continuous’ and ‘perfect’ refer to whether the action is in progress, or has been completed, at

the time of which the speaker is speaking. Thus, an action may be in progress in the present ('present continuous') or may have been in progress in the past ('past continuous'); it may have been completed in the present ('present perfect') or in the past ('past perfect'). Tense continuity, or completion, of the action is what is referred to by the term Aspect.

- v. Aspect always occurs in combination with a Tense morpheme: Present or Past. Since Aspect has two modes, Continuous, and Perfect, altogether we get four possible combinations which we have just enumerated. These four combinations are realized as combinations of an auxiliary and an inflected form of the main Verb, as follows:

Tense Category	Combination	Application
Present Continuous	is\am\are + verb + ing	He is\I am\We, You / They are singing.
Past Continuous	was\were + verb + ing	I/He was eating We/ You/ They were reading.
Present Perfect	have\has + (verb + en)	I/You/They have changed. He has changed.
Past Perfect	had + (verb + en)	I/ We/ You/ He/ They had changed.

Table : Applications of English Pronouns in Different Tense Structures

Verb + en refers to the past participle form of the verb e.g., **broken, taken, gone, played** (having syncretism with the Past Tense form).

- vi. **The Voice Rule:** Active and passive voices of the verb have important implications for the sentence as a whole. In the active voice the 'subject' of the verb is the noun which denotes the agent, or doer, of action described by the verb; in the passive voice, the subject is the noun which denotes the 'affected' person and corresponds to the object of the verb in the active voice. Examples:

- *The police **arrested** the notorious thief.*(Active)
- *The notorious thief **was arrested** by the police.* (Passive)

The same action can thus be viewed from the viewpoint of the agent or the affected. Since the presence of both agent and the affected is necessary for the active-passive contrast to obtain, the voice rule applies only to verbs with objects, i.e., to transitive verbs only. When Active Voice is chosen there is no change in the verb form for voice, but when Passive Voice is chosen the main verb is put in the -en form and is preceded by an appropriate form of the verb Be.

Paradigm of English Verb in Operation: Lexical verbs can be divided into two classes with respect to the morphological changes they undergo as mentioned below:

A. Regular Verbs: **Regular verbs** appear in all the four forms: the base form (work), the **-s** form (*works*), the **-ing** form (*working*) and the **past** form (*worked*). They have no past participle form distinct from the past form. However, not all verbs which show four forms are regular; some of them form their past and past participle forms in irregular ways, e.g., *bend*, *send* and so on.

Let us consider the following features of English Regular Verbs:

- i. If we know the base form and the grammatical rules we can predict all the other forms,
- ii. Newly coined words follow their pattern, and
- iii. The vast majority of English Lexical Verbs follow the same pattern in this way.

Table : Applications of English Regular Verbs

B. Irregular verbs: **Irregular verbs** fall into two sub types as mentioned below:

Type 1:-Those verbs which have **five different forms** and

Type B:-Those verbs which show only **three forms**.

The verbs *speak*, *write*, and *break* belong to the first sub type. They have five forms because the past and the past participle (**+ en**)¹¹ forms in their case do not show syncretism **i. e.** they show separate forms for these roles (e.g., *spoke*, *spoken*). Irregular verbs belonging to the second sub type show only three unchanged forms, e.g., *cut*, *hit*, and *put*. In their case, three different rules yield the same, syncretized, form: Present (Non-Third Person Singular), Past and Past Participle. The following table shows the forms of both regular and irregular verbs:

R/Ir	Base	-s form	-ing form	Past form	-en form
R	work	works	working	worked	worked
R	jump	jumps	jumping	jumped	jumped
Ir	break	breaks	breaking	broke	broken
Ir	cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut

Table : Displaying Use of English Verbs in Different Forms The Phonological Forms¹²

We have shown the paradigm in orthographic¹³ representation above but the distinctions are retained in the phonological representation too. The only differences that are noticed are allomorphic. As in the case of the plural morpheme of nouns, the orthographic, suffix **-s** is realized as three phonetically conditioned **allomorphs/s/, /z/and /iz/:**

- **Works** → /wɔːks/;
- **hugs** → /hʌgz/; and
- **teaches** → /ti:tʃɪz/.

In the case of the regular verbs, the past and the past participle morphemes, orthographically realized as **-ed**, also have three phonetically conditioned **allomorphs**:

- /t/ after a **voiceless consonant sound** (as in **worked** → /wɔːkt/);
- /d/ after a **voiced consonant sound** (as in **hugged** → /hʌgd/); and
- /ɪd/ after /t/ and /d/ (as in **quitted** → /kwɪtɪd/ and **traded** → /treɪdɪd/);

The phonetic reason for the occurrence of the /ɪd/ allomorph is similar to the reason for the occurrence of the /ɪz/ allomorph; like two successive alveolar stops also make an unpronounceable sequence in English phonology. In the case of irregular verbs, there is considerable variability and unpredictability in the way the past and the past participle forms are phonologically realized. Some verbs (e.g., *burn*, *smell*) have two past (participle) forms (*burnt*, *burned*), some verbs end in /d/ but change it to /t/ in the past (participle) form (e.g., *bend* > *bent*). Some show no change from the base, and so on. However, they all form their **-s** and **-ing** forms in the regular way.

Paradigm of the English Modal Auxiliaries: The modals do not change their forms for any of the four rules which cause morphological changes in the lexical verbs. This means that by just looking at the form of a modal verb you cannot predict the person and number of the subject, nor the tense, aspect. The only exception to this generalization that may be cited is the use of modals like *would*, *should*, *could*, and *might* in sentences where they might be seen as past tense forms of *will*, *shall*, *can* and *may* respectively, e.g., in the sentence. *He said he would be late* or in the sentence, *She thought she could get away with it*.

But in these instances *would* and *could* are best seen as sequence-of-tenses partners of the reporting verb *said* and *thought* respectively. rather than as past forms of *will* and *can*. This is because, if we look forms like *could*, and *would* as indicators of past tense we would either fail to give any interpretations or produce erroneous interpretations for sentences like *Could you come again next week? I'd be grateful if someone would hold the door open* in which the time reference, if it is relevant at all, is to the future.

Paradigm of the English Primary Verbs: Primary verbs, as we stated above, are those verbs which occur both as main and auxiliary verbs. There are three of them in English: **Be**, **Have**, and **Do**.

See the table below for examples of how the Primary Verbs are used as main and auxiliary Verbs in English:

English Primary Verbs	Practical Applications
Verb ‘To Be’	Alice is (main verb) a popular writer, Ria is (Aux.) leaving for London tomorrow.
Verb ‘To Have’	I have (Main verb) no panic for Corona Virus. I have (Aux.) written a book on Corona Virus.
Verb ‘To Do’	What did (Aux. + Tense Past) he do (Main) in his first class?

Table : Displaying Use of English Auxiliary as Main Verbs

The morphology¹⁴ of these verbs, both as main and auxiliary verbs, is, however, the same. All the four rules given above apply to them to produce a varied of forms For example, in the First Person, Singular Number. Verb ‘To Be’ has the form am in the Present Tense, **was** in the PAST TENSE; in the First Person Plural, Second Person Singular and Plural and the Third Person Plural, it has the form are in the Present Tense and were in the Past Tense; in the Third Person Singular, it has the form is in the Present Tense and was in the Past Tense. The Continuous Aspect and the Perfective Aspect forms are **being** and **been** respectively. The other primary verbs also show similar forms.

The morphology of the English verb is too complicated to allow us to present all its paradigms in a single chart. The chart given below makes an attempt, but leaves out many details. An additional dimension of finite and nonfinite forms is however introduced. The inflected verb forms can be divided into two classes according to whether they can complete a sentence alone, providing all the necessary information about person, number, tense, etc., or whether they require the assistance of another verb. Thus, in the sentence, “*She yelled in joy*”, the form in *yelled* is enough to complete the sentence, but in the sentence “*She is yelling in joy*”, *yelling* cannot complete the sentence by itself. It needs the assistance of the verb **is**, which shows the person and number of the subject and the tense, while *yelling* only shows aspect. Therefore, we say that ‘*yelled*’ is a **finite form** of the verb, while ‘*yelling*’ is a **non-finite**¹⁵ one. Among the inflected forms, the Continuous and the Perfective forms are **nonfinite**, others are finite. The modals are finite too.

Type of Verb	Finite			Non-finite	
	Base	-s form	Past Form	-ing form	-en
Regular	Work	works	Worked	working	worked
Irregular	break	breaks	Broke	breaking	broken
	sit	sits	sat	sitting	
	quit	quits	quit	quitting	quit
Primary	have	has	Had	having	had
	do	does	did	doing	done
	be	am, is, are	was, were	being	been
Modal	will, would, shall should, can, could, may, might, must, ought, dare, need and used				

Table : Applications of English Finite and Non-Finite Verbs

Self Evaluation 11

Follow the Diagrammatic display of morphological analysis of the word, ‘realization’ and complete such diagrammatic display of the words given below:

[Abbreviations -used: W= Word; Pref. = Prefix; Inf. = Infix; Suf. = Suffix;]

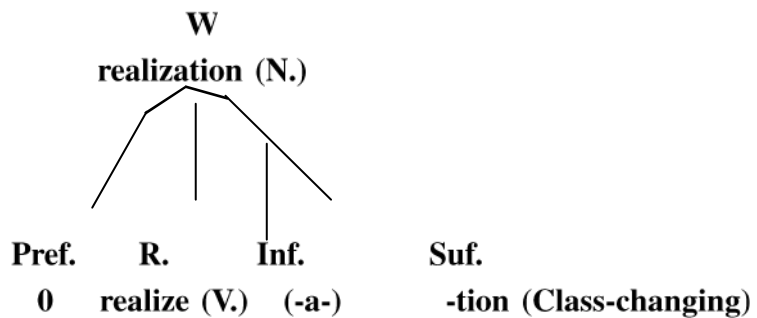


Table : Three Level Diagram (3LD) of Morphological Analysis (MA)

- a. centralization b. coordination c. running d. nominalization e. rationalize
f. humanoid g. circumlocution h. technologically i. coronation j. scientifically

Evaluate yourself in the scale 1-10:

Your Grade:

6.4 Derivational Morphology of English Language

In discussing derivational morphology there is less reason to maintain a constant distinction between the affixes themselves and the bound morphemes they realize, since the two ultimately refer more or less to the same objects. This is unlike the case of inflectional morphology, where a bound morpheme is not always realized as an affix but sometimes as a modification inside the word and sometimes not even this. Still, in inflectional morphology, one can make a guess about the presence of the morpheme from the context and meaning. In derivational morphology, on the other hand, the bound morphemes are always realized as affixes; therefore we can make our description simpler and less cumbersome by talking of bound morphemes as if they referred directly to the affixes. But, for the purposes of theoretical justification, the relationship we have posited between the levels of the morpheme and the word is in Unit 5.

6.4.1 Derivational English Prefixes

There is a small set of affixes in English which are attached at the beginning of a stem to modify its meaning. Some well known examples are the negative prefixes *un-*, *in-*, and *dis-*. But negation is not the only modification of meaning the prefixes as there are a few other modifications too. The reason why we think of English prefixes readily in terms of their effect on the meaning of the stem is that, unlike most suffixes, the prefixes do not affect the grammatical category of the stem at all, so the grammar based system of classification described above is of no use to them. Having subclasses as shown below may best explain changing perspectives of **Derivational Affixes**. Generally derivational prefixes do not change the category of the stem and try to say something more useful about them. The change in meaning at least tells us exactly how the resulting word differs in meaning from the stem. Here are some of the ways in which the prefixes modify the meaning of the stem.

- a. **Negation:** Prefixes like **un-**, **a-**, **in-**, **dis-**, **a-** and **non-** negate the meaning of the stem adding the meaning ‘not’, ‘opposite of’, ‘lacking in’, etc, e.g., **unkind**, **unwanted**, **incomplete**, **dissimilar**, **amoral**, **non-violent**, etc. The prefix **in-** has four allomorphs: **im-** with stems beginning with /p/,/b/, and /m/; **ir-** with stems beginning in /r/; **il-** with stems beginning in /l/, and **in-** elsewhere.
- b. **Reversal & Deprivation:** **de-** is a typical reiterative and privative prefix. Prefixed, to a noun or a verb, it produces the meaning ‘reverse the action’, e.g., **decontrol** (= lift the control), or the meaning ‘deprive of (dethrone = deprive of the throne)’. The prefixes **dis-** and **un-** are also used in this sense,

e.g., **disown, disconnect, unpack, unseat.**

- c. **Disparagement:** Prefixes like **mal-, mis-, and pseudo-** are called **pejorative affixes** because they add the meaning 'bad', 'badly', 'wrong', 'false' and other disparaging terms to the meaning of the stem, thus adding a disparaging shade to stems with a neutral meaning, e.g., **maltreat, malnutrition, mislead, misfortune, pseudo-intellectual.**
- d. **Expressing number, degree, rank, size:** The prefixes **bi-, mono-, semi-, poly-** express numbers; **arch-, to-, extra-** express degree; **micro-** and **mini-** express size; **super-, sub-, under-** express rank, e.g., **bimonthly, arch-enemy, minibus, undersecretary.**
- e. **Expressing time, order, location, attitude and orientation: time and order; ex-, fore-, pre-g post-, e.g. ex- president, pre-war.**
- f. **Location: fore-, Inter-, super-, sub-, trans-, e.g., foreground, superscript, substructure, etc.**
- g. **Attitude; pro-, anti-, counter-, etc., e.g., pro-change, anti-war.**
- h. **Orientation; counter-, anti-, contra-, as in counter clockwise.**

None of these prefixes affect the category of the stem.

Points –to be noted

Exceptions:

There are some prefixes (e.g., **en / em/im** as in **entrain, embitter, imperil**); e.g. **beas** in **becalm, befriend**) which do **change the category** of the stem.

The number of such prefixes, called **conversion prefixes**, is however very small.

6.4.2 Derivational English Suffixes :

The first classification of the suffixes is to be made on the basis of the grammatical category to which the word resulting from the suffixation belongs. On this basis the suffixes are classified as follows:

- A. **Noun Suffixes:** Suffixes that produce Nouns: e.g., **-hood, -dom, -ism, -ship.**
- B. **Adjective Suffixes:** Suffixes that produce Adjectives: -e.g., **-ful, -ish, -less.**
- C. **Noun-Adjective Suffixes:** Suffixes that produce words that can-be used either as Nouns or as Adjectives : e.g., **-ese, -ian, -ist.**
- D. **Verb Suffixes:** Suffixes that produce verbs: e.g., **-fy, ize, -en.**
- E. **Adverb Suffixes:** e.g., **-ward, -wise, -ly.**

In the second classification each of these types is sub-classified on the basis of the grammatical category of the stem to which the suffix is added. The first classification tells us the grammatical category of the word after the suffixation; the second classification takes as its basis the category of the original word, i.e. the stem. On this basis, we arrive at the following scheme of classification of suffixes:

A. Noun Suffixes: Suffixes forming Nouns

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| A. 1 : from Noun stems: | Denominal Noun Suffixes |
| A. 2 : from Adjective stems: | Deadjectival Noun Suffixes |
| A. 3 : from Verb stems: | Deverbal Noun Suffixes |

Type **A.1: Denominal Noun Suffixes (Noun + Suf. = Noun)**

Derivational Class-maintaining Suffixes	Derivational Class-maintaining Suffixes
bond + -age → bondage	King+ -dom → kingdom;
bag + -age → baggage	star + -dom → stardom
engine + -eer → engineer	profit + -eer → profiteer
teenage + -er → teenager	garden + -er → gardener
jewel + -ery → jewelery	slave ¹⁷ + -ery → slavery
boy + -hood → boyhood	widow + -hood → widowhood
farm + -ing > farming	shirt + -ing → shirting;
book + -let → booklet	drop + -let → droplet
fellow + ship → fellowship	member + -ship → membership;

Type **A.2: Deadjectival Noun Suffixes (Adjective + Suf. = Noun)**

Derivational Class-changing Suffixes

-dom :	free (Adj) + -dom → freedom (N,)
-er :	five (Adj) + -er → fiver; six (Adj)
+ -er →	sixer (N,)
-hood :	false (Adj) + -hood → falsehood (N)
-ness :	bitter (Adj)+ -ness → bitterness; dark > darkness (N)
-th :	warm > warmth(N); with change of stem in broad (Adj) + -th → breadth (N);
-th	> long (Adj)+-th → length; deep (Adj)+-th → depth (N)

Type A.3: Deverbal Noun Suffixes (Verb + Suf. = Noun)

Derivational Class –Changing Suffix

- age : Break (V.) + -age → breakage (N.); cover (V.) + -age → coverage (N.)
- ant : Inhabit (V.) + -ant → inhabitant (N.); lubricate¹⁷(V.) + -ant → lubricant (N.)
- ation : alter(V.) + -ation → alteration (N.); starve¹⁸ (V.) + -ation → starvation (N.)
- ee : employ (V.) + -ee → employee (N.); train(V.) + -ee → trainee (N.)
- er : write(V.) + -er → writer (N.); dance (V.) + -er → dancer (N.)
- ment : appoint(V.) + -ment → appointment (N.); equip (V.) + -ment → equipment(N.)

B. Adjective Suffixes: Suffixes forming adjectives

B. 1 : from Noun stems: **Denominal Adjective Suffixes**

B. 2 : from Adjective stems: **De-adjectival Adjective Suffixes**

B. 3 : from Verb stems: **Deverbal Adjective Suffixes**

Type **B.1: Denominal Adjective Suffixes: (Noun + Suf. = Adjective)**

Derivational Class-changing Suffixes

- al : nature (N.)+ -al → natural (Adj.); culture (N.)+ -al → cultural (Adj.)
- ial: prudent (N.)+ -ial → prudential(Adj.); president (N.)+ -ial → presidential(Adj.)
- ical: zoology (N.)+ -ical → zoological(Adj.); philosophy (N.)+ -ical → philosophical(Adj.)
- ful(l): beauty (N.)+ -ful → beautiful(Adj.); use (N.)+ -ful → useful(Adj.)
- ish : child (N.)+ -ish → childish(Adj.); fool (N.)+ -ish → foolish(Adj.)
- less : cash(N.)+ -less → cashless(Adj.); pain (N.)+ -less → painless(Adj.)
- ly : mother (N.)+ -ly → motherly(Adj.); woman (N.)+ -ly → womanly(Adj.)
- y : filth(N.)+ -y → filthy(Adj.); hair(N.)+ -y → hairy(Adj.)

Type **B.2: Deadjectival Adjective Suffixes (Adjective+ Suf. = Adjective)**

Suffix Derivational Class-maintaining Suffix

- ish : green (Adj)+ -ish → greenish (Adj.); white(Adj)+ -ish → whitish (Adj.)
- sweet (Adj)+ -ish → sweetish (Adj.)

Type **B.3: Deverbal Adjective Suffixes (Verb + suffix = Adjective)**

Derivational Class-changing Suffixes

-able : attain (V.) + -able → attainable (Adj.); break (V.) + -able → breakable (Adj.)
-ant: depend (V.) + -ant → dependant (Adj.)
-ent : differ (V.) + -ent → different(Adj.); depend (V.) + -ent → dependent(Adj.)
-ful : forget (V.) + -ful → forgetful (Adj.); resent(V.) + -ful → resentful (Adj.)
-ative : talk (V.) + -ative → talkative (Adj.); represent (V.) + -ative → representative (Adj./N.)
-ive : attract(V.) + -ive → attractive (Adj.); distract(V.) + -ive → distractive (Adj.)

C. Noun-Adjective Suffixes: Suffixes forming words which can be used as nouns (N.) or as adjectives (Adj.)

- C. 1 :** from Noun stems: **Denominal N. /Adj. Suffixes**
C. 2 : from Adjective stems: **Deadjectival N./Adj. Suffixes**

Type **C.1:** **Denominal Noun-Adjective Suffixes (Noun + Suffix = Noun / Adjective)**

Suffix	Derivational Class-maintaining / Class-changing Suffix
-ese :	China (N.) + -ese → Chinese (N./Adj.); Japan (N.) + -ese → Japanese(N./Adj.)
-ian:	Shakespeare (N.) + -ian → Shakespearian(Adj.)
-ist :	violin (N.) + -ist → violinist(N.); Marx(N.) + -ist → Marxist(N./Adj.)
-n :	India (N.) + -n → Indian(N./Adj.); Victoria (N.) + -n → Victorian(Adj.)

Type **C.2:** **Deadjectival Noun-Adjective Suffixes (Adjective + Suffix = Noun-Adjective)**

Suffix Derivational Class-maintaining / Class-changing Suffix

D. Verb Suffixes: Suffixes forming verbs

- D. 1 :** from Noun stems: **Denominal Verb Suffixes**
D. 2 : from Adjective stems: **Deadjectival Verb Suffixes**

Type **D.1:** **Denominal Verb Suffixes (Noun + suffix = Verb)**

Suffix Derivational Class-changing Suffixes

-ify: Code (N.) + -ify → codify (V.); sign(N.) + -ify → signify (V.)
-ize : terror(N.) + -ize → terrorize (V.); criminal(N.) + -ize → criminalize (V.)
-fy : beauty (N.) + -fy → beautify (V.)

Type **D.2: De-adjectival Verb Suffixes (Adjective + Suffix = Verb)**

Suffixes Derivational Class-changing Suffixes

-en : short (Adj.) + -en → shorten (V.); ripe (Adj.) + -en → ripen
-ify: false (Adj.) + -ify → falsify (V.) : simple¹⁹(Adj.) + -ify → simplify(V.)

E. Adverb Suffixes: Suffixes forming adverbs

- E. 1 :** from Noun stems: **Denominal Adverb Suffixes**
E. 2 : from Adjective stems: **Deadjectival Adverb Suffixes**
E. 3 : from Adverb stems: **Deadverbial Adverb Suffixes**

Type **E.1: Denominal Adverb Suffixes (Noun +Suffix = Adverb)**

Suffix Derivational Class-changing Suffixes

-ward: home (N.) + -ward → homeward
-wise : length (N.) + -wise → lengthwise; clock (N.) + -wise → clockwise

Type **E.2: Deadverbial Adverb Suffixes (Adjective + Suffix = Adverb)**

Suffix Derivational Class-changing Suffixes

-ly : quiet(Adj.) + -ly → quietly (Adv.); silent (Adj.) + -ly → silently (Adv.);
angry (Adj.) + -ly → angrily (Adv.); stealthy(Adj.) + -ly → stealthily (Adv.)

Type **E.3: Deadverbial Adverb Suffixes (Adverb → Adverb)**

Suffix Derivational Class-maintaining Suffix

-wards up (Adv.) + -wards → upwards (Adv.); down(Adv.) + -wards
→ downwards (Adv.)

We can carry the classification further as Type **A.1 Denominal Noun Suffixes** and Type **A.3 Deverbial Noun Suffixes** can be further sub-classified into **suffixes** which form **Abstract Nouns** and those which form **Concrete Nouns**.

Thus a fairly detailed description of the suffixes can be achieved. However, we will conclude our description by giving you examples of only the subtypes that have been listed above. No attempt has been made to give the meanings as the next unit will introduce you with the **meaning aspect** called semantic realization.

6.5 Zero Derivation and Conversion

Look at the following sentences;

- 1a. A **beggar** stood outside the door.
- 1b. The scene of the sunset **beggared** description.
- 2a. I want to buy a **carpet** for my room.
- 2b. I want my drawing room **carpeted**.

You will notice that the words beggar in **1a** and carpet in **2a** above are used as **Nouns**, as the use of the indefinite article with them would show; the same words are used as **verbs** in 1b and 2b respectively, as their use in past tense forms indicates.

Points to remember

- i. The base / root form of the word **does not undergo any change**.
- ii. No **suffix** or **prefix** is added to convert the Noun into a Verb or the Verb into a Noun.
- iii. There is a process of word creation involved here, in fact one which is quite popular in English.
- iv. The process creates a new lexical word, with sufficiently different meaning to merit a separate entry in the dictionary.
- v. At the same time, however, one can detect some relationship between the meanings of the word beggar in **1a** and **1b**, and of the word **carpet** in **2a** and **2b**, and the relationship is sufficient indication that we have a case of derivation here, even if no affixes are in evidence.
- vi. Thus the word '**beggar**' (Verb) may be paraphrased as 'to make into a beggar'; **carpet** (verb) may be paraphrased as 'to cover with a carpet', and so on.
- vii. The relationship between the pair of word seems to be similar to the one that, exists in the following pairs:
 - en-+**slave** → **enslave** (= 'to make a slave')
 - be-+**friend** → **befriend** ('make into a friend'),
 - en-+ **crust** → **encrust** ('cover with crust')

These are all cases of derivation with an affix. That is the reason why cases of conversion like the present ones are often described as **cases of derivation without an affix, or with a zero affix**.

Self Evaluation 12

Use the format given with two examples and find out the meanings of the following affixes:

Affix-used **Affix -Name Meaning –added**

-age as in baggage: Derivational class – maintaining Suffix ‘**collection of (bags)**’

-age as in bondage: Derivational class – maintaining Suffix ‘**state of being in a bond**’

i	micro-	as in	micro-oven:
ii	sub-	as in	Subnormal:
iii	-ee	as in	payee:
iv	-eer	as in	mountaineer:
v	-ful	as in	blissful:
vi	hood	as in	girlhood:
vii	-ive	as in	Distractive
viii	-let	as in	omlet:
ix	-ly	as in	brotherly:
x	a-	as in	amoral:

Evaluate your performance and grade yourself in the scale 1-10

Your Marks: _____

Conversion cases also share the other features of cases of derivation : A word cannot undergo conversion after an inflectional affix has been added to it (e.g., the plural form of a noun cannot convert to a verb; the past tense of a verb cannot become a noun), but it can still undergo conversion if it has acquired a derivational affix: e.g.,

- **dirt** → **dirty** → **to dirty**
- **pack** → **package** → **to package**

Exception: **beg** ← **beggar** ← **to beggar**

Historically the word **beggar** predates the word **beg** which was derived from the former by **backformation**; see the section on **Back-formation** in the next unit. module In fact, compounds can also undergo conversion, e.g.,

- **to outlaw** → **an outlaw**;
- **to bypass** → **a bypass**;

Secondly, conversion means a **change in the grammatical category** of the word, a feature we find only with cases of **derivation**.

Thirdly, like a case of derivation, a word derived by conversion forms its **inflectional paradigm** on the pattern of words belonging to the category to which it belongs after conversion\derivation. For example, when the noun **carpet** is converted into a verb, the verb **carpet** has all the four forms of a regular verb (e.g. **carpet, carpets, carpeting, carpeted**); similarly when a verb like **attack** is converted into a noun, the noun **attack** has a plural form (**i.e. attacks**), and may also have the possessive form in Indian English as expressed in the term, '**the attack's severity**', though the preferred expression is **the severity of the attack in standard English**.

How do we decide the direction of the conversion?

Having stated that the Noun **carpet** is converted into the Verb **carpet** and the Verb **attack** is converted into the Noun **attack** you may farther ask:

- Why not the other way round?
- How do we decide?

We use the following two criteria:

1. The Criterion of Meaning: If the English word denotes a person, or an object, it is first a Noun; if it denotes a quality, it is primarily an Adjective; if it denotes an action, it is primarily a Verb, and so on. By this criterion, **carpet** is primarily a Noun and the Verb **carpet** is a conversion. The word '**attack**' is primarily a Verb and the Noun '**attack**' a conversion. The word '**intellectual**' is primarily an Adjective and the Noun '**intellectual**' is an example of **conversion**.

2. The Criterion of Form: Some affixes are typical of Nouns (e.g., **-tion, -ion**), others of Adjectives (e.g., **-al**), still others of Verbs (e.g., **re-**). When we find a word with a typical noun affix used as a verb, we can conclude that the verb is a conversion from a noun, e.g., the word '**vacationing**' in the sentence: "My friends **are vacationing** in Darjeeling." The same criterion applies to Nouns with typical Verb prefixes (e.g., **a refill, a recount**) or with typical Adjective suffixes (e.g., **an intellectual, a multinational**)

6.5.1 Classifying Types of Conversion

Since **conversion** is very much **like derivation**, we can follow the same method of classification with cases of conversion that we followed with cases of derivation, viz. the method of double classification, first in terms of the category of the word

resulting from conversion (**Conversion to Noun, Conversion to Verb, etc.**) and then in terms of the category of the base word, or **the word from which it was converted** (e.g. From Verb Base, From Adjective Base,). We can also use parallel terminology to describe the classes.

Conversion to Noun

A. From Verb Bases (Verb → Noun):The noun denotes:-

- a. the agent of the action (denoted by the verb): **cheat, rebel, spy**
- b. the object the action: **a good catch; a real find**
- c. a single instance of the, action: **attack, attempt, laugh, murder**
- d. the instrument used for the: action: **the cover of the machine; lift; wrench**
- e. feeling, emotion, state of mind expressed **by the action: desire, love, need, taste**
- f. place of the action: **dump, retreat**

B. From Adjective Bases (Adjective → Noun)

The following cases of adjective-noun conversion are however different: here the adjectives become full nouns, i.e. they have a **full noun paradigm**:

- **Criminal, intellectual, noble, progressive:** these adjectives-turned-nouns inflect for number as well as case.
- **Daily, Weekly, Monthly, Annual:** when referring to newspapers and magazines, these words also show the full **properties** of nouns.

Special Usage Rule: Almost any adjective can be made into a plural noun by putting the definite article before it, e.g., **the rich, the poor, the high and the mighty**, but these nouns are at best cases of **partial conversion**, as the nouns thus produced cannot be used like full nouns. For example, they have no **singular form**; moreover, they must always occur with **the definite article**, and, finally, unlike **other nouns** they can inflect like adjectives: **the richer, the poorer, the higher and the mightier**.

C. From other Bases

(Auxiliaries / Conjunctions/ Particles /Affixes and Phrases → Nouns)

- This is a **must**.
- No **ifs and buts** please
- **the ups and downs** of life
- the various **isms** of the modern world
- **haves and have-nots**

- **runs (in Cricket)**
- **higher-ups ...**

These too are cases of partial **conversion**.

Conversion to Verb

A. From Noun Bases (Noun → Verb)

We can describe these noun-based verbs on the basis of the kind of meanings they convey vis-a-vis the meaning of the noun, e.g.,

- Perform an action which will result in the Noun: **to queue up; to parade; to orbit**
- To put something in the Noun: **to pocket; to catalogue**
- To provide with, or apply, the Noun: **log out, (to) butter; (to) grease; (to) powder; (to) wax; lock down**
- To produce or make, to change into, to go or send by means of, the Noun: **to tunnel; to group; to ship; to bicycle**

B. From Adjective Bases: (Adjective → Verb)

- A To be or to become Adjective: **to slim; to sour; to empty**
- To cause to become Adjective: **to dirty; to humble; to free**

C. From Other Bases

From adverbs: **to near, to further (the goal)**

From particles: **to up** (as in 'He upped and left. '); **to down** (as in 'The writers downed their pens during the pen down strike.')

Conversion to Adjective

A. From Noun Base to Functional Adjectives: Nouns are often used in a modifying function, i.e. like an adjective.

Noun → Adjective: a **brick** house; a **gold** chain; a **silver bowl**; **Bengal Engineering Science** University (BESU)

B. From Verb Base to Adjective: Some adjectives are also derived from verbs but they are not cases of complete conversion.

C. Verb → Adjective: They usually require a 'conversion prefix' as shown in the following examples:

- **a- (on) + sleep → asleep:** The baby has fallen **asleep**.

- **a- (on) + float → afloat:** The ship is still **afloat**.
- **marry + -ing → marrying:** He is not of **marrying** kind.

6.6 Let us Sum up

English nouns fall into two major subcategories known as Proper Noun and Common Noun. Lexical Verbs are those verbs which function only as main verbs in a sentence, e.g., dismiss, jump, hit, eat, and so on. The **Lexical verbs** form a large and open class into which new members are regularly making entry. **Modal Verbs** are those verbs which function only as auxiliaries. They are a small and closed class with no entry for new members. Verbs like can, could, shall, should, will would, may, might are some examples. **Primary Verbs** are verbs those which function both as Main verbs and as Auxiliaries. There are only three verbs in this class. They are be, have and do.

As with Adjectives, the only rule that has any morphological consequences with adverbs is the Degree Rule. The inflectional paradigm is also the same. In fact, a large number of Adjectives also function as Adverbs and also inflect for degree in the same way. Derivation is a process by which new lexical words are created from old ones by adding affixes to them. Such affixes are called derivational affixes. Derivational affixes are different from inflectional affixes in a variety of ways. Basically, inflectional affixes do not create new words, only grammatical forms of the same lexical word. The addition of a derivational affix to a word modifies its meaning, and this modification has no predictable direction.

Inflectional affixes do not change the category of the word to which they are attached, derivational affixes often do. This makes the classification of derivational affixes more complicated. Derivational affixes cannot be classified on the basis of the category of the stem because the same affix can be attached to stems belonging to different categories. Moreover, no derivational affix can be attached to all the stems of given a category. Derivational affixes also cannot be classified on the basis of the category 1 of the word resulting from the affixation since the same affix produces words of different categories. Nor can derivational affixes be classified on the basis of the effect they have on the meaning of the stem because this effect is not constant (except with derivational prefixes). Another approach to the classification of derivational affixes relates the derived words to the underlying syntactic forms. But differences of meaning between the derived word and the underlying forms are not explained by this approach.

6.7 Review Questions

1. How do you distinguish content words and structure words?
2. How many types of content words do we have?
3. Do all the content words take affixes?
4. What is the difference between a derivational affix and an inflectional affix?
5. What are the types of affixes nouns and pronouns have?
6. What is common to the affixes in Adjectives and Adverbs?
7. What are the affixes a verb can take? How does it make it complex?
8. What are zero affixes? Can we say that mass nouns take zero affixes?
9. Give five examples of Conversion.
10. Classify Derivational prefixes with illustrations.

6.8 References

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6.8 Reading List

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Notes

- 1 Taken from Latin nomen "name, noun" (from PIE root *no-men- "name"). Old English used name to mean "noun."
- 2 A set of linguistic items that form mutually exclusive choices in particular syntactic roles
- 3 The word 'fishes' is also used in the sense when fish of different varieties are referred to in context.
- 4 Known as Non count Noun also
- 5 Noun Phrase
- 6 Grammatically known as the Third Person
- 7 Containing one syllable
- 8 Containing two syllables
- 9 Related to verbs that have got full-fledged dictionary meanings and notes on their usage.
- 10 Better known as Modal Auxiliaries in Traditional Grammar.
- 11 It denotes perfect aspect of verb in English Language.
- 12 See unit 8 for details
- 13 Related to written scripts in English Language
- 14 The scientific study of English word structure and the constituent morphemes of English words.
- 15 Non-finite verbs require the assistance of Auxiliary verbs.
- 16 See Unit 8 under this Module for understanding use of English Suffixes.
- 17 The last vowel sound/script (e) is deleted by the Doctrine of Apocope.
- 18 The last sound '/t/ and letters 'te' js/are being omitted by applying the Doctrine of Apocope.
- 19 The last vowel is omitted under the Doctrine of Apocope.

Unit 7 □ Semantic Processes

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Specialization of Meaning
- 7.4 Extension of Meaning
- 7.5 Degeneration of Meaning
- 7.6 Elevation of Meaning
- 7.7 Semantic Changes through Emotional Addition
- 7.8 Semantic Changes through Popular Misunderstanding
- 7.9 Let us Sum up
- 7.10 Review Questions
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7.1 Introduction

English Language like all other modern Languages of the world is highly semantic-bound language. Naturally ‘Semantics¹’ became a key issue in English Language Teaching. Let us introduce its meaning and scope at the outset.

The meanings of words are constantly changing and we cannot say what the words we use today will come to mean the same in the future. Words are not exact signs for definite and unchanging conceptions as are the formulas of mathematics, Circumstances and the trend of a people’s thought exercise decisive influence upon the signification of words. Moreover, the word-meanings are greatly modified by the adoption of foreign words bearing similar meanings. That the words have no essential meanings but are merely conventional signs is borne out by the semantic changes. Consider, for example, the sentence from *Chaucer’s Prologue to the Canterbury Tales*: “*He was very parfit gentil knight*”. If we take the words of the sentence in their signification they have today, the sentence will mean, “He was a very perfect gentle knight.”

Our meaning is, however, far from what Chaucer meant, because Chaucer meant, “**He was a true, complete and noble knight**”. In the days of Chaucer *very* meant ‘true’ (not very), *parfit* meant ‘complete’, (not perfect), *gentil* meant ‘noble’ (not gentle). In their sense-development words are often seen to pursue some well-marked tendencies such as generalization and specialization.

7.2 Objectives

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

- a. Understand how meanings are attached to a word
- b. See that meaning a word has is not constant, it changes across time and place
- c. Understand how some words can offer more than one meaning
- d. See the reasons for words acquiring special meaning.

7.1 Specialization² of Meaning

No two English words mean the same. It means that English words often target precise meaning.

Sometimes words which are originally of wide reference are seen to have undergone specialization in meaning or to have become restricted in use. A classic example of this specialization of meaning is the word *doctor*. Formerly the word meant learned men in theology, law, and in many other fields besides medicine, but nowadays it is applied only to the practitioner of the healing art, whether having a University degree or not. In Old English *tide* (cognate with German *zeit*) signified “time”. But in Middle English its application was restricted, and came to mean chiefly the time of the periodical rise or fall of the sea; afterwards it was used to name these phenomena of the sea, the older sense being sufficiently expressed by the synonym *time*. Starve (O. E.³ *Steorfan*), like its German cognate⁴ **sterben** originally “to die”. Now the meaning has been specialized in Standard English to signify “to die of hunger” while in many dialects it means “to die of cold”. The word ‘deer’ (O. E. *deor*) meant ‘animal’ of any sort down to the sixteenth century, but is now applied to one particular kind of animal. The word ‘cattle’ formerly meant ‘property’ and it was used in this sense down to the sixteenth century. In an agricultural society living animals like cows, oxen, goats, hens, bees, lambs etc., are one of the chief forms of property and from the beginning of the fourteenth century the word (cattle) was specialized to mean ‘live-stock’, living creatures that could be kept or dealt in for profit or use. Afterwards the word has undergone another round of specialization, so that it now means bovine animals only.

There are some words in English which were originally used to mean either good or bad things; but now they have been specialized to mean or the other. The word ‘*censure*’ originally meant ‘opinion’, favourable or unfavourable as found in the following Shakespearean lines:

“And your name is great,

In mouths⁵ of wisest **censure**” (Source: **Othello, II, 3,193-194**)

The word has now come to mean ‘unfavourable opinion.’ The word ‘retaliate’ which was originally applied to benefits as well as to ill-treatment is now limited only to ill-treatment.

When a word has acquired a restricted sense, it is not uncommon to find the older sense preserved in proverbial phrase, compounds etc. Thus the older sense of meat (O. E. *mete*), which originally meant ‘food’ is preserved in the compound sweetmeat, or in the proverb “One man’s meat is another man’s poison.” The original signification of the word ‘play’ (O. E. *plega*), which was ‘motion’ of almost any kind is preserved in technical usage, as in “The piston rod does not play freely”, “the play of the valve.” When a word has been specialized in meaning, the restricted sense does not always drive out the other sense the two (or more) senses exist side by side for centuries.

As Edgar says in Shakespearean play, **King Lear** (III, 4, 149):

“Rats and mice and such small deer”

He is using *deer* in its original sense meaning any animal. The specialized and the wider sense of *cousin* existed side by side down to the 18th century when the wider sense “kinsman or kinswoman” became obsolete, except for special use.

7.4 Extension of Meaning

By extension of meaning is meant the widening of a word’s signification until it covers much more than the idea originally conveyed. The word *box* offers a good example of the extension of meaning. The word originally meant a small receptacle, furnished with a lid, and intended to contain drugs, ointment, jewels or money. Gradually the sense grew wider and the word came to denote other things resembling box in shape and use. Down to the end of the seventeenth century the word’s signification was restricted to objects of comparatively small size. After 1700, this restriction disappeared so that a chest and the like for holding clothes could be called a box. The meaning of *box* has now been so wide as to be equally applicable to what would formerly have been called a box, and to what would formerly have been called a chest. We now say a pill-box, a bandbox, a box for clothes, a box in a stable, a box in a theatre, a shooting box and box office. And to top it all, in the modern days, the human brain is also referred to as ‘box’.

The word ‘*rival*’ (Latin *rivus* i.e. ‘river’) meant originally “neighbours who used to get water from the same brook.” Gradually it came to suggest the contest arising between neighbours respecting their riparian rights. But today we use the word to designate competitors in politics, or business or love.

The lexical verb ‘*to carry*’ which is an adaptation of an Old French word meant, etymologically, to **convey something in a wheeled vehicle**. In English it was applied to signify other modes of conveyance, perhaps at first by joke, as when we speak of ‘carting’ some object from one room to another. “In the end, the verb became the most general expression”, as Bradley says, “for the act of removing a thing from one place to another by lifting it from the ground.” In this sense, the older verb *to bear* has come to be superseded, to a great extent, by the verb *to carry*.

Take also the word *lovely* which originally meant “**worthy to be loved**”. But today its signification has become so general that a girl may be *lovely*; a box of chocolate may also be *lovely*; a dinner may be *lovely*; a chair may be *lovely*; a day may also be *lovely*.

In many words extension of meaning has gone so far that they mean nothing in particular. There are many English words which once had a precise and definite meaning; but now they can be applied to so many things that they mean really almost nothing, just as a man who is equally intimate with everybody has no real friends.

The word ‘circumstance’ illustrates best this phenomenon of semantic change in English. It means literally “things that stand round one”; but it has now become so vague that we say without hesitation, “under the following circumstances”. The phrase includes, as Greenough and Kittredge say, “three inconsistent expressions of direction or position: *under*, *after* and *around*. Yet we do not feel the inconsistency.” The word ‘presently’ originally meant immediately; but since the seventeenth century it has passed to its rather vague and indefinite meaning of today.

The word ‘*thing*’ which originally meant ‘discussion’ and also ‘legislative assembly’ has now come to mean a variety of things with the result that it means nothing definitely. There are many words which once meant something rather definite, but have gradually faded into their present vague and shadowy condition. Such words are, in modern English, *affair*, *business*, *concern*, *regard*, *account*, *article*, *fact*, *state*, *condition*, *position*, *situation*, *way*, *means*, *respect*, and *matter*. According to G. L. Brook, “Another extreme form of extension is the tendency, particularly noticeable in slang, for adjectives of the most varied origins to become either vague terms of approval or vague terms of disapproval. Standard English examples are *good*, *nice*, *fine*, *excellent*, *admirable*, *beside*, *bad*, *worthless*, *mean*, *evil*, *vile*, and many others.”

7.5 Degeneration⁶ of Meaning

The tendency of a word to acquire a less favourable sense than it originally had is commonly known as *degeneration* (of meaning). The word ‘*Curiosity*’ meant the

desire to learn, a feeling of interest that led to inquiry. Dr. Johnson used the word ‘*curiosity*’ in this sense when he wrote:

“Curiosity is in great and generous minds,

The first passion and the last -” (Source: The English Dictionary: 1755)

Recently the word has undergone degeneration in meaning and has come to mean “inquisitiveness with reference to trifles or matters which do not concern one”.

The word ‘sensual’ originally possessed no negative meaning and was used in the sense of sensuous or based on sense organs. In the sixteenth century the word came to imply some sort of vulgar or vicious meaning. So Milton was compelled to coin the word ‘*sensuous*’ to fill up the gap caused by the degeneration of the word *sensual*. It is interesting to note that John Keats, a famous poet of the Romantic period (CE 1770 – 1850) used the word **sensual** with the old and innocent signification in his poem “**Ode on a Grecian Urn**” :

“.....Ye, soft pipes, play on;

Not to the **sensual** ear” (Lines 12-13)

The word ‘ghost’ once meant ‘good and sweet spirit in general. With the introduction of the (Latin word ‘*spiritus*’→ Old English spirit) it deteriorated in meaning, and came to acquire the dishonorable sense of “the apparition of a dead person”. The older sense of the word survives in religious phrases like “Holy Ghost”. Coleridge, another notable poet of the Romantic period used the word ‘ghost’ with the original and honourable sense in his long poem “**The Rime of the Ancient Mariner**” as quoted below:

“I thought that I had died in sleep,

And was a blessed *ghost*” (Lines 307-308)

The word ‘*fiend*’, in Old English and down to the mid part of the 14th century was used in the sense of ‘enemy’ i.e. opposite to the word ‘friend’. But with the introduction of the French word ‘*enemy*’, its use in the sense of ‘*enemy*’ was usurped by the French intruder, except its use with reference to the unseen enemies of the souls of man. In the end the original meaning of *fiend* was quite forgotten, and it became simply equivalent to devil. The word ‘silly’ (O. E. *saelig*) originally meant ‘blessed’ or ‘happy’ like its German cognate *saelig*.

“In the **Middle English Period** (ME) the word ‘silly’ was often used satirically in a tone of mockery, envy or admiration, and hence acquired the disparaging sense which it now has acquired”.

The adjective word ‘*base*’ which now implies **moral unworthiness** originally meant “of humble birth”. In the sixteenth century playwright Marlowe used the word in the original sense in “*Edward II*” (1593).

The character Younger Mortimer says in the play:

“The glozing head of thy **base** minion thrown” (*Edward II Act I, Sc. i, L. 133*)

Obviously **Marlowe** used the word ‘base’ in the sense of “of humble birth”.

Shakespeare also used it in the original sense in his play “Hamlet” (1603). When Hamlet says that he once regarded it as “baseness to write fair” (v, ii, 34) he means that he once thought that the ability to write fair belonged to those who were of humble birth, and not that it was morally unworthy.

The semantic history of the word ‘*minion*’ is also very interesting. *Minion* (from French *mignon*) was formerly used in a good sense of “darling”, but now it has acquired the contemptuous sense of a base, unworthy favourite.

Marlowe used the word in the modern contemptuous sense, as in “The glozing head of thy base minion thrown.” Shakespeare used it both in the good and bad senses. Sergeant’s description of Macbeth as “valour’s minion” contains the original (also good) sense while the line, “Go, rate thy minions, proud insulting boy” (Henry VI, Part 3, II, ii, L 84) contains the modern bad sense.

According to A. C. Baugh⁸, the degeneration of meaning may take the form of the gradual extension to so many senses that any particular meaning which the word may have had is completely lost. In other words, degeneration results sometimes from generalization or widening of meaning.

The word ‘*great*’ originally meant large in size, the opposite of ‘small’. But today anything from a ball game to the weather may be great. Other words which have suffered this type of degeneration are *lovely*, *awful*, *terrible*, and so on.

7.6 Elevation of Meaning

If words sometimes go downhill, they sometimes undergo the opposite process known as *elevation*. The word ‘*fame*’ (Latin *fama*) originally meant ‘report, talk’, but the word is now used in a good sense. The older sense is preserved in the phrase “a house of ill fame”. Many words which were formerly slangs have now undergone elevation of meaning. Thus in the eighteenth century *snob* and *sham* were slangs, but in the nineteenth century they attained respectability, the former partly through the influence of Thackeray. The word *sturdy* which originally meant “harsh, rough or intractable” is now used in a wholly complimentary sense. Smock was applied to a woman’s undergarment down to the 18th century and was an offensive in tone with

reference to the weaker sex. But now the word has been uplifted in its connotative meaning and has come to be applied to a woman's outer garment. Nowadays, we also speak of an artist's smock.

“Extension of meaning”, as G. L. Brook⁹ says “has often led to elevation. A word which once had quite a precise meaning is liable to become a vague expression of approval if it describes a quality which many people regard as admirable”. The word ‘nice’ best illustrates this semantic development. This French word found its way into English in the thirteenth century, and was used in derogatory senses. In the sixteenth century it was specialized in the sense of “fastidious, difficult to please”. In the eighteenth century the word again underwent an extension of meaning and became a term of praise. Nowadays we use the word in many senses – *a nice book, a nice girl, a nice picture, a nice dinner, a nice journey*. The word has been raised in caste, but has become vague in signification.

7.7 Semantic Changes through Emotional Addition

There are in English a large number of words which have undergone semantic change through the addition of emotional connotation to their primary meaning. Illustrative examples of this semantic process are the adjectives *enormous*, *extraordinary*, and *extravagant*. In their etymological sense these words merely express the fact that something passes the ordinary or prescribed limits. Thus “an enormous appetite” formerly meant what we now call an abnormal appetite; “an extraordinary event” was simply not an ordinary event; “extravagant conduct” was conduct which did not conform to the established rules of conduct. Nowadays the use of these adjectives not only indicates something that is unusual or abnormal, but also excites our wonder, indignation or contempt, while referring to the abnormal or unusual character of their respective nouns.

The word ‘*grievous*’ has also undergone this kind of change. The word, nowadays, implies sympathy on the part of the person speaking, while formerly, it did not signify any such emotional association. The words *great* and *large* mean very much the same thing, but the word ‘*great*’ has emotional implication which the word ‘*large*’ lacks in English.

7.8 Semantic Change through Popular Misunderstanding

There are many English words which have undergone semantic changes because they have been popularly misunderstood. The use of the verb to *transpire* in the sense of ‘to happen’ or ‘to take place’ is not uncommon nowadays, especially in newspapers.

Literally *to transpire* means ‘to emit or to be emitted through the pores of the skin’ and a circumstance may be correctly said to have transpired in the sense of becoming known, becoming public gradually. But the use of *transpire* in the sense of ‘to happen’ has arisen, Jespersen thinks, through a vulgar misunderstanding of the English signification of an English word.

The word ‘**preposterous**’ is another such word which illustrates this process of semantic change through people’s misunderstanding. Literally the word means only “placed in reversed order”. If a letter written today is delivered (before the letter written) on yesterday, the delivery of the letter should be called *preposterous* in accordance with the original sense of the word. But from the use of the word in contexts in which its exact meaning was not obvious, the unlearned people wrongly took it to mean something like “outrageously absurd”. This mistaken sense is now firmly established.

Other words belonging to this class of semantic changes is *emergency* (as used in the sense of *urgency*), *premises*, and *ingenuity*.

7.9 Let us Sum up

- Specialization is the restricted usage of wide referenced words.
- Widening of a word’s signification from its original idea is extension.
- Addition of emotional connotation to the primary meaning of a word results in semantic change.
- Misunderstood words undergo semantics changes.

7.10 Review Questions

1. How is meaning of a word established?
2. Is it appropriate to say the meaning of a word is static? (Give examples)
3. How do you understand the term ‘extension of meaning’? Give some examples
4. How do you understand the term specialization? What are some unique examples?
5. Can a word which was respectable earlier lose its meaning? What is this phenomenon called? Discuss with the example of a word like ‘curiosity’.
6. What does elevation of meaning refer to? How does this happen?
7. There is a phenomenon called semantic change? Do you experience it now?

8. What are the two types of semantic changes?
9. What was the original meaning of the word 'transpire'? What does it mean today?
10. Do you know the word 'transpiration' in plants? Which of the meanings of transpire does it convey?

7.11 References and Reading List

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Notes

- 1 Scientific study of meaning of English words in context
- 2 Restricted usage of particular English word
- 3 Old English
- 4 (of a word) having the same linguistic derivation as another (e.g. English *father* ← German *Vater* ← Latin *pater* ← Sanskrit *pitri*).
- 5 Phonological oral words -suggested
- 6 The semantic process by which a word loses its glorious position and means something mean or debased
- 7 Bradley Henry. *The Making of English*. Dover. Dover Press (Reprint, 2006)
- 8 *A History of the English Language* (Routledge: 2002)
- 9 *A History of the English Language* (W. W. Norton Inc. 1958)

Unit 8 □ Phonological Processes

8.1 Introduction

8.2 Objectives

8.3 Assimilation

8.4 Dissimilation

8.5 Insertion

8.6 Deletion

8.7 Metathesis

8.8 Co-articulation

8.9 Summary

8.10 Review Questions

8.11 Reading List

8.1 Introduction

In the previous units of the module, you have learnt on affixes, and semantic changes. This unit is on Phonological process, where you will learn more on sound changes of a language. When we write we give spaces between the words. But when we speak, we do not give pauses. We speak continuously and in different paces. We speak slowly to enunciate words, at normal speech or at a fast pace and speak with intonations and other suprasegmentals features. The continuous spoken form of the language causes words to come in contact with each other and result is sound changes. This change is usually between the last sound of the pervious word and the first sound of the following word or it can be within a word. In some places there is a partial change, while at other places there are total changes in the sound segments. The sound changes occur because of ease of utterances, from overlapping sounds and for speaking at different paces.

8.2 Objectives

After going through the unit, you will:

- Learn on the concept of sound change,
- Learn on partial and total sound changes,
- Understand various kinds of phonological process,

- Know about the application of sound changes in utterances.

8.3 Assimilation

The features of sounds of the phonological system of a language are affected due to processes. These changes can be partial or total. The process which affect the sounds of the phonological system of a language are phonological processes. Sound changes are not arbitrary. Let us take few examples. The regular plural in English is (-s) as in book-s or it is uttered as (-z) as in bag-z or it is uttered as (-iz) as in rose-iz. The phonetic shape of the plural allophones changes due to a voice element. The plural suffix agrees with the voicing of the previous phoneme and becomes voiced as in ‘bags’. This sound change or change of utterance is called assimilation, or specifically voice assimilation. Assimilation is the process whereby one sound becomes more like another sound which are adjacent or at a distance, by one or more phonetic features. It is the most common phonological process amongst the languages of the world. Assimilation can occur within the same word or between two words. Let us work on the following tasks to make this concept clear.

Task 1 Find the sound changes in the following plural forms and discuss the reasons.

- dog /dæg/ ⇒ dogs /dɒgz/
- love /lʌv/ ⇒ loves /lʌvz/
- dock ⇒ docks
- giraffe ⇒ giraffes
- moth ⇒ moths
- badge ⇒ badges
- nose ⇒ noses
- bird ⇒ birds
- sea ⇒ seas

Your answer:

These are examples of **progressive assimilation**. In dogs, loves, birds and seas, the plural morpheme ‘-s’ becomes /-z/ and for badges, noses it becomes /-iz/. For giraffes, moths and docks it is /-s/. The voiced feature of the last phoneme of the root word assimilates the plural marker as a voiced phoneme /z, iz/.

Task 2 Find out the sound changes for the following paradigms.

- a. /in+ possible/ impossible
- b. /in+ reclaimable/ irreclaimable
- c. /in+ balance/ imbalance
- d. /in+ logical/ illogical

Your answer:

You must have noticed that the nasal consonant /n/ in English negative prefix /in/ shows a change in its phonetic features when occurring as a word. The changes in the above paradigm are either partial assimilation (when /n/ changes into another nasal sound ‘m’) or total assimilation (when it becomes ‘r’ or ‘l’). When the preceding sound is changed, or the following sound influences the preceding sound, the change is **regressive assimilation**. In progressive assimilation, the direction is forward, while for regressive assimilation it is backward. Let us work on the following tasks.

Task 3 Find out whether the following are progressive assimilation or regressive assimilation

Wash-washed /d/ → /t/

nice shirt /naɪʃ ʃɜ:t/

Trick-tricks /z/ → /s/

in+pose = impose

Tenth /n-dental/

handkerchief /hæŋkətʃi:f/

Your answer:

When the changed sound retains one of its phonetic features, there is **partial regressive assimilation**. For example incredible /ɪŋkredəbl/. When two sounds become identical (geminate, or double consonants), there is **total assimilation**. Let us take a few examples.

Account, Arrive, Aggressive, Abbreviate

The prefix ‘ad-’, meaning to, towards, assimilates to the first consonant of the following morpheme. The organs of speech prepares for the following sound.

Task 4. Find out the type of assimilation form the following word sets:

A	B
Appeal	indivisible /ɪndɪ'vɪzɪb(ə)l /
Attend	imbalance
Affect	inadmissible
Appear	incredible

Your answer:

Task 5. Study the following words. Each one is a kind of assimilation. Name them.

- a) Little (loss of plosion)
- b) Does she /dʌ ʔi:/
- c) Read this /ri:d ʔis/ → /ri:ddis/
- d) Pen /p^hɛn/ (the vowel is nasalized)

Your answer:

Answer for Task 4

Set A is total assimilation as the prefix ‘ad-’ changes to ‘ap-’ in appeal and appear, changes to ‘at-’ in attend and to ‘af-’ for affect. Set B is partial assimilation as the prefixes retain their nasal feature when occurring in the context of another morpheme. /in-/+balance becomes imbalance due to the influence of the following bilabial phoneme.

Answer for Task 5

- a. Partial, b. total, c. progressive, d. regressive

8.4 Dissimilation

Dissimilation is a phonological process where two nearby sounds become less similar or distinct from each other in one or more features. Dissimilation is less common in the languages of the world. Dissimilation occurs to make speech sounds distinct from each other. Along with overlap and ease of pronunciation, distinction is an important feature of the spoken language. Let us consider the following paradigm of nouns and adjectives from English.

Noun	Adjective	Noun	Adjective
Mechanic	mechanical	module	modular
Nation	national	table	tabular
Orbit	orbital	circle	circular
Pasture	pastoral	angle	angular

In the first set of words, the adjective suffix /-al/ is added to the noun without the /l/ phoneme. In the second set this suffix is /-ar/ as there is /l/ in the base form. These are examples of progressive dissimilation, where two distant sounds have become dissimilar. Regressive dissimilation is more common than progressive dissimilation in English. Let us work on the following tasks on dissimilation.

Task 6. Discuss the sound changes in the following distant sounds and mention the direction of dissimilation.

February /'fɛbrʊəri/ → /'fɛbjʊəri/

Etcetera /et'sɛtərə/ → /ek'sɛtərə/

Asymmetry /,eɪ'sɪmɪtri/ → /,eɪ'sɪmətri/

Capitulate /kə'pɪtʃuleɪt/ → /kə'pɪtʃuleɪt/

Your answer:

8.5 Insertion/ epenthesis

Insertion is a kind of sound change where one or more sounds are added to a word or in between words. This phonological process can come from historical or diachronic changes or as a cross linguistic features. In English, there are examples of an intrusive /r/. The word car is usually uttered as /kɑː/, but when this occurs in continuous speech, it occurs as in car /kɑː(r)/ as in the utterance car and house /kɑː(r) ən haʊs/. The intrusive /r/ is found even if it is not there in the spelling. For example, law and order /lɔːr ən ɔːdə/.

Many Indian languages have borrowed words from English and modified their utterances. English school /sku:l/ becomes /lsku:l/ and class /klɑːs/ → /kɪlɑːs/ in many Indian languages. These are all examples of epenthesis. Ep-en-thesis means Epi= on; en-in; thesis = putting. That is addition of a sound to a word.

Task 7. Discuss intrusive / r/ from the following examples. You may need to transcribe the word first.

Star-staring

Draw-drawing

Asia and Africa

Fear-fear of it

Your answer:

Task 8. Find out the epenthetic vowel/consonant from the following.

Balck-/blæk/

Train-/trein/

Change-/tʃeɪndʒ/

Bus+s-/bʌzɪz/

Your answer:

8.6 Deletion/ Elision

Deletion is a phonological process where a sound is deleted, that is, it is no longer pronounced. Let us take a few examples to learn this process.

- a) Handbag - /hændbæg → hænbæg/
- b) Family - /fæmili → fæmli/

For a) ‘handbag’, a medial consonant sound /d/ in between /n/ and /b/ is deleted in pronunciation. For b) ‘family’, the vowel /i/ in between /m/ and /l/ is deleted.

Apheresis is the loss of an initial vowel or syllable from words in speech. For example,

- ‘bout’ for about
- ‘round’ for around
- ‘cause’ for because

In the first and second examples, the word initial short vowel /ə/ is not pronounced and makes the word mono-syllabic. In the third example, the first syllable /bɪ/ is dropped. The phonological processes in the words lead to reduction in the number of syllables.

Syncope is the loss of a medial vowel or syllable from a word while it is pronounced. For example,

- Choc’late for chocolate
- Ev’ning for evening
- Batt’ry for battery
- Camra for camera

In choc’late, the medial vowel ‘-o-’ is dropped, and the medial vowel ‘e’ is dropped in ev’ning, batt’ry and ‘camra’. The reduced pronunciations results make the tri-syllabic words bi-syllabic.

Apocope is the loss of a final vowel or syllable from a word during its utterance. For example:

- Ad for advertisement
- Demo for demonstration
- Bio for biology

Can you add five more words to this list, where one or more than one syllable is deleted word finally?

Your answer:

Task 9. Find out the kind of elision for the following examples:

Surprise /sə'prɪʌɪz/ → /sə'prɪʌɪz/

Broccoli /brəʊklɪ /

Restaurant /restɹɒnt/

Specs for Spectacles

Maths for mathematics

Sample for example

Champ for champion

Your answer:

8.7 Metathesis

Metathesis is a process which occurs when two sounds interchange their positions in an utterance. That is they are transposed. Metathesis can occur between two adjacent sounds or between two distant sounds. The sounds involved can be two vowels or two consonants. For example,

Ask → /aks/

Asterisk → /astəɪks/

In the two examples, the sound segment /s/ and /k/ interchange their places during pronunciation. This is an example of contiguous metathesis word finally between two consonant sounds. Now let us look at some more examples:

Comfortable → comfɹɔrbl /'kʌftɹɔrbl/

Introduce → intɹɔdju:s /intɹɔ'dju:s/

Here we find non-contiguous metathesis between vowel and consonant sounds word medially. For 'comfortable' the sound /t/ jumps ahead two sounds, /o/ and /r/ to occur in the second syllable of the word during pronunciation. In 'introduce', /r/ and /o/ interchange their places. This is also an example of contiguous metathesis word medially. In English, metathesis is diachronical. Sounds from Old English have changed in Modern English due to metathesis. Let us work on the following task.

Task 10: Discuss metathesis from the following:

Prescription → prescription

horse → hros

/Brid/ Old English → /Bird/ Modern English

/frist/ Old English → /first/ Modern English

Your answer:

8.8 Co-articulation

Co-articulation is the spreading of phonetic features either in anticipation or in the preservation of the articulatory process. For example, it is easier to lower the velum while a vowel sound is uttered before a nasal sound than to wait for the vowel articulation to complete and then lower the velum for the nasal sound. As in the articulation of /comment/ or /langue/. Co-articulation is also found in word sequences. Let us look at the articulation of the following word sequences.

this shop /ðɪs/ /ʃāp^h/ ⇒ *this shop* /ðɪʃ ʃāp^h/

this tree /ðɪs/ /tri:/ ⇒ *this tree* /ðɪs tri:/

this fast /ðɪs/ /fɑ:st/ ⇒ *this fast* /ðɪs fɑ:st/

In the above co-articulations, the alveolar fricative ‘s’ changes to palato-alveolar fricative ‘ʃ’, when the initial sound segment of the word following it is a palato-alveolar sound. Let us work on few more examples to understand co-articulation in English.

Task 11: Mention the sound changes from the following words

Language /læŋgwɪdʒ/

Song /sɒŋ/

Length /leŋθ/

Your answer:

In the examples, the /ng/ is co-articulated as /ŋ/. This sound segment consists of the velar feature from /g/ and the nasal feature from /n/.

Let us take another set of illustrations on co-articulation. Is there any difference in the articulation of the voiceless velar stop in the following sets of words?

Pork peek

Walk week

Look leak

You must have noticed that the velar sound after front vowels is fronted to palatal and are retracted after back vowels. Now examine the following sets of words.

Key	caw
Kit	caught
Kid	could
Keep	cook

Task 12: Discuss the changes in articulation of the velar sound from the above paradigm.

Your answer:

8.9 Summary

We have studied different kinds of phonological processes. There are certain statements that can be made on the processes that are covered in this unit. These statements are:

- Due to sound change there exist multiple forms of utterances of a single word.
- Metathesis and Epenthesis are examples of dissimilation.
- Voicing is a kind of assimilation.
- Assimilation rules reflect co-articulation.

You have learnt on writing phonological rules in Paper 4 Module 4 Unit 14. There are ample instances of phonological rules from the phonological processes that we have learnt. From assimilation, write two rules for each of the phonological processes. There are few review questions to test your comprehension on the unit.

8.10 Review Questions

Discuss the phonological changes for the following words/ word sequences:

1. Integral → intregal, Disintegration → disintregation
2. Bank → /bɑŋk/, sung → /sʌŋ/, long → /lɒŋ/
3. Every time she thought of the parrots /'ɛvrɪ 'taɪm ʃɪ 'θɔːrəv ðɪ 'pærɔts/
4. /Kæb/ → /kæbz/, /kæp/ → /kæps/, /mætf/ → /mætfəz/
5. News /nju:z/ → newspaper /nju:speɪpə/
6. Used /ju:zd/ → used to /ju:st tu/
7. Start → started /'stɑ:tɪd/, decide → /dɪ'saɪdɪd/
8. Christmas /krɪsməs/, sandwich /sænwɪtʃ/, handsome /hænsəm/
9. Lovely /lʌvli/, secretary /sek(ə)trɪ/, mustn't /mʌsnt/
10. I don't know /,aɪ 'də nəʊ/, For the first time /fəðə, fɜ:s'taɪm/

8.11 Reading List

- Halle, Morris. (1983). *Problem Book in Phonology- A work book for introductory courses in Linguistics and in Modern Phonology*. Cambridge, Massachusetts:MIT Press.
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MODULE - 3 : MORPHOLOGY ACROSS LANGUAGES

Unit 9 □ Linguistic Processes (alliteration, assonance)

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Objectives
- 9.3 Assonance
- 9.4 Gemination
- 9.5 Alliteration
- 9.6 Summary
- 9.6 Review Questions
- 9.7 References and Reading List

9.1 Introduction

The canonical linguistic process is the cycle of the speech-circuit (Saussure: 1915¹). A speaker expresses a psychological idea by means of a physiological articulation. The signal is transmitted through the medium by a physical process incident on a hearer who from the consequent physiological impression recovers the psychological idea. The hearer may then reply, swapping the roles of speaker and hearer, and so the circuit cycles.

9.2 Objectives

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

- Learn on surface structures based on consonants and vowels of English,
- Learn on Linguistic Processes,
- Understand functions of Linguistic Processes.

9.3 Linguistic Processes

For communication, successful speakers and hearers must have shared associations between forms (*signifiers*) and meanings (*signifieds*). De Saussure called such a pairing of signifier and signified a *sign*. The relation is one-to-many (ambiguity) and many-to-one (paraphrase). Let us call a stable totality of such associations of a *language*.

It would be arbitrary to propose that there is a longest expression (where would

we propose to cut off *I know that you know that I know that you know ... ?*) therefore language is an infinite abstraction over the finite number of acts of communication that can ever occur.

The program of formal syntax (Chomsky: 1957²) is to define the set of all and only the strings of words which are well-formed sentences of a natural language. Such a system would provide a map of the space of expression of linguistic cognition. The methodological idealisations the program requires are not unproblematic. How do we define ‘words’? Speaker judgements of well-formedness vary. Nevertheless there are extensive domains of uncontroversial and robust data to work with. The greater scientific prize held out is to realize this program ‘in the same way’ that it is done psychologically, i.e., to discover principles and laws of the language faculty of the mind/brain. Awkwardly, Chomskyan linguistics has disowned formalisation as a means towards such higher goals. The program of formal semantics (Montague: 1979³) is to associate the meaningful expressions of a natural language with their logical semantics. Such a system would be a characterisation of the range and means of expression of human communication. Again there are methodological difficulties. Where is the boundary between linguistic (dictionary) and world (encyclopedic) knowledge?

Speaker’s judgments based on precondition of reading experience and world view as well as entailments vary in different situations. The program holds out the promise of elucidating the mental domain of linguistic ideas, thoughts and concepts and relating it to the physical domain of linguistic articulation. That is, it addresses a massive, pervasive and ubiquitous mind/body phenomenon. Therefore, we need to see through the **surface layer** of a given linguistic structure and the **deep structure** under it. Linguistic process involves both the structures as reiterated below:

- a. **Surface layer** that is better known as **Syntactic structure**,
- b. **Deep structure** that is better known as **Semantic structure**.

In this unit our focus is on the surface layer or on the syntactic structure based on Vowel and Consonantal sounds of English language.

Activity 1

Define “linguistic Process”. Which linguistic process will you apply to understand the following figures of speech:

- i. Metaphor
- ii. Simile
- iii. Synecdoche

iv. Assonance

v. Alliteration

The process of building of words from component morphemes that retain their form and meaning in the process of combination can easily be identified in the following phenomena where linguistic process concerns only with the surface layer. Based on the **surface structure** of a sentence we may get different figures of speech. We would keep our focus on three major figures in the forth coming discussion.

9.4 Alliteration

Alliteration is derived from Latin’s “*Latira*”. It means “letters of alphabet”. It is a stylistic device in which a number of words, having the same first consonant sound, occur close together in a series. This device is used in Media and Advertisement Industry as well as in Marketing Industry and in Customer Management.

Function of Alliteration

Alliteration has a very vital role in poetry and prose.

→ It creates a musical effect in the text that enhances the pleasure of reading a literary piece.

→ It makes reading and recitation of the poems attractive and appealing; thus, making them easier to learn by heart.

→ It renders flow and beauty to a piece of writing.

In the Marketing and Media Industry, as what we have already discussed, the use of **Alliteration** makes the brand names interesting and easier to remember. This literary device is helpful in attracting customers and enhancing sales.

Example 1: From James Joyce’s “The Dead”

“His soul swooned slowly as he heard the snow falling faintly through the universe and faintly falling, like the descent of their last end, upon all the living and the dead.”

We notice several instances of alliteration in the above mentioned prose work of James Joyce. Alliterations are with “s” and “f” in the phrases “swooned slowly” and “falling faintly”.

Example 2: From Maya Angelou’s “I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings”

“Up the aisle, the moans and screams merged with the sickening smell of woolen black clothes worn in summer weather and green leaves wilting over yellow flowers.”

Maya gives us a striking example of alliteration in the above extract with the letters “s” and “w”. We notice that alliterative words are interrupted by other non-alliterative words among them but the effect of alliteration remains the same. We immediately notice alliteration in the words “screams”, “sickening smell”, “summer”, “weather” and “wilting”.

Example 3: From William Shakespeare’s “Romeo and Juliet” (prologue to Act 1)

From forth the fatal loins of these two foes;
A pair of star-cross’d lovers take their life.”

This is an example of alliteration with the “f” and “l.” in words “forth, fatal, foes” and “loins, lovers, and life”.

Example 4: From an anonymous poet

A fly and flea flew into a flue,
said the fly to the flea ‘what shall we do?’
‘let us fly’ said the flea
said the fly ‘shall we flee’
so they flew through a flaw in the flue

Activity 2

Read the following excerpts and find out the figure of speech involved, and comment on each excerpt:

- i. “The camel is the ship of the desert.”
- ii. “We will meet again once the hurly burly is over”
- iii. “Ye are valour’s minion and a minimal hero at the same time”
- iv. “Tomorrow, Tomorrow And tomorrow, I hope for Better tomorrow.”

9.5 Gemination

The term “**Gemination**” refers to “consonant length” and this linguistic process is markedly different from the process of **Assonance** i.e **repetition of the vowel sound** that will be described in details later on in this unit.

In English phonology consonant length is not distinctive within root words.

Example:

➔ The word **baggage** is pronounced /bæg**Id**/, not */bæg:Idz/.

However, phonetic gemination does occur marginally.

Gemination is found across words and across morphemes when the last consonant in a given word and the first consonant in the following word are the same **fricative, nasal, or stop**.

Examples:

- /b/: *sub basement* → /sʌbbeɪsmənt/
- /d/: *mid day* → /mɪd.deɪ/
- /f/: *life force* → /laɪffɔrs/
- /k/: *bookkeeper* → /bʊkeki: pə./
- /m/: *calm man* → /kɑ:m¹ mæn/
- /s/: *prime minister* → /praɪm'mɪnɪstə/
- /n/: *evenness* → /i: vənəs/
- /p/: *lamb post* → /læmp.pəʊst/ or/ lamb post/

With affricates, however, this does not occur. For instance:

- *orange juice* → /ɔrɪndʒ: dʒu:s/

Let us Practice Gemination and Learn

In most instances, the absence of this doubling does not affect the meaning, though it may confuse the listener momentarily. The following minimal pairs represent examples where the doubling *does* affect the meaning in most cases as shown below:

- *ten nails* and *ten ales*
- *this sin* and *this inn*
- *five valleys* and *five alleys*
- *his zone* and *his own*
- *unnamed* and *unaimed*
- *forerunner* and *foreigner* →

(Observed only in some varieties of General American)

In some dialects **gemination** is also found for some words when the suffix *-ly* follows a root ending in *-l* or *-ll*, as in:

- *solely* → /soʊl.li/

but not

- *usually* → /juʒ (ʊə)li/

In some varieties of Welsh English, the process of **Gemination** takes place indiscriminately between vowels, e.g. in *money*/mʌni/ but it also applies with graphemic duplication (thus, is orthographically dictated), as in:

- *butter* → /bʌtə/

-Activity 3 Define the “Linguistic Process” and judge the value of “Gemination” in English language. Give examples of any five cases of “Gemination” and comment on each.

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

v.

Activity 4

Read the following English Phrase and comment on each with reference to “Linguistic Process/s” involved:

i. “*this inn and this sin*”

ii. “*play marble but never to be out of marble*”

iii. “*five alleys and five valleys*”

iv. “My love is like red

Red rose that spring

In winter”

v. To love her is to love her

To love but her is

To love for ever.”

Assonance is, basically an *intensifier* of a language that is recognized as a linguistic process based on phonology. This intensifying occurs in several senses as stated below:

→ **Assonance** tends to draw out the sonic quality of words in a group. This drawing out makes those words more obvious or clearer to the reader

→ **Assonance** also tends to encourage the reader to spend more time looking at the sound effect and for thinking about those assonant words.

→ **Assonance** encourages continued attention of the readers.

→ **Assonance** *slows down* the reading process (and the reading comprehension process).

→ **Assonance** also sounds good and is often easy and/or pleasurable to pronounce, it can also *speed up* the reading experience of a group of words. This simultaneous speeding up and slowing down of language is pleasurable.

→ Needless to explain: Assonance is linguistically so vibrant that it scarcely need any explanation. As semantic meaning is never so formidable in Assonance, it does not involve any need of interpretation or explanation for that matter.

Assonance as a Linguistic Process

The writers know that creating text that is pleasurable to read will attract more attention of the readers. Assonance is of special use to poets because it encourages repeated reading of a group of words. Poets' lines are often more dense with meaning, wordplay, and figures of speech than a typical line of prose is. Sometimes, assonant words can resonate with the content of the lines or sentences in which it occurs, as in the John Donne example from Holy Sonnet 3, above.

The assonance in these words allows the poem to *put into effect*, or to *do* the thing it is describing, rather than simply to describe or to tell about it. In prose that reaches for poetic beauty, assonance highlights the craft of the language by calling attention to the language itself. Not all prose wants to make itself known as language; some prose wants to report facts plainly and clearly.

But prose using assonance conveys information *and* guides the reader to consider the words chosen and the order in which they're written. In songs, assonance increases the texture of the lines as they are sung, and provides opportunities for interaction with the tones and pitches the singer uses, in combination with the lines. In both the Destroyer and Nirvana lyrics, above, the assonant features are highlighted by the singer via a change in pitch, or a notable increase in the length of the word as it is sung.

Definition: Assonance is a **figure of speech** in which the same vowel sounds are repeated within a given poetic or prosaic structure.

Examples from English Literature:

In both poetry and prose, assonance's repetition of sound can give language a musical element, as well as emphasize sounds or words that particularly resonate with

the ideas or themes of the work. When assonance is also alliterative, it can add rhythm to text,

- i. “He was soon borne away by the waves, and lost in darkness and distance.”
(Source: Mary Shelley, *Frankenstein*, 1818)
- ii. “Water water everywhere Not a drop to drink” (Source: S.T. Coleridge. **The Ancient Mariner**)
- iii. “Ted takes you to Chinatown for turtle
Soup, each piece of its floating meat
Wholly disparate ...”

Source: Chris Martin. “Trajectory of a Thief”

Relevant Note

This poem contains both assonance and alliteration. The /l/ sound in the words “each,” “piece,” and “meat” slows down that particular sequence, rendering especially vivid the eating of the turtle soup.

- iv. “Some vodka that’ll jump start my heart quicker
Than a shock when I get shocked at the hospital
By the doctor when I’m not co-operating
When I’m rocking the table while he’s operating”
(Source: **Eminem. “Without Me”**)

Relevant Note

Eminem uses assonance in complicated ways throughout his songs, giving them additional rhythm and structure. This example from “Without Me” is a good example:

- v. “Do not go gentle into that good night,
Old age should burn and rave at close of day;
Rage, rage, against the dying of the light. . . .
Grave men, near death, who see with blinding sight
Blind eyes could blaze like meteors and be gay,
Rage, rage against the dying of the light.”
(Source: Dylan Thomas, “**Do not go gentle into that good night**”)
- vi. “O might those sigh and tears return again! ...”
(Source: **John Donne. “Holy Sonnet 3”**)

Relevant Note

Here, the long /l/ sound is assonant, and its repetition emphasizes how the sound itself seems to embody the feeling being described, that of longing and sighing—of emotional turmoil. Assonance is particularly useful for this kind of sonic demonstration

of feeling.

Prime Features of Assonance: Linguistic Process

- a. Assonance occurs when **speech sounds are** repeated. In the example above, the /[^]/ sound is what matters, not the letters used to produce that sound.
- b. Assonance does not require that words with the same vowel sounds be directly next to each other. Assonance occurs so long as identical vowel sounds are **relatively close** in a given structure.
- c. Assonant vowel sounds can occur anywhere (at the beginning or end, on stressed or unstressed syllables) within any of the words in the given structure.

Comparison between Assonance and Consonance

Assonance is identical to another figure of speech called **consonance**, with one critical difference: Assonance has to do with repeated **vowel sounds**, whereas **consonance** has to do with repeated *consonant* sounds.

- **Assonance is repetition of vowel sounds:** "I might like to take a flight to an island in the sky."
- **Consonance is repetition of consonant sounds:** "A duck that clucked drove a truck into an aqueduct."

Comparison between Assonance and Alliteration

Alliteration is another figure of speech that involves the repetition of sounds and is related to assonance. Assonance and alliteration differ in two key respects.

➔ **Types of repeating sounds:** Assonance involves the repetition of only vowel sounds, whereas alliteration can involve the repetition of *either* vowel sounds or consonant sounds.

➔ **Position of repeating sounds:** The repeating sounds of assonance can occur anywhere in a word. The repeating sounds of alliteration, in contrast, must occur either in the first syllables of words or on the stressed syllables of words.

In practical terms, these rules mean that assonance can sometimes also be alliteration, but isn't always.

Assonance may also be Alliteration

Here are two examples of assonance that is also alliteration. In the first example, the assonance occurs at the beginning of words in the group. In the second example, assonance always occurs on stressed syllables of words (note that the second syllables of the words "decline" and "define" are the stressed syllables):

- "Aunt Agnes! Ack! Another accounting error!"
- I like to decline an offer of wine to define my style.

Assonance may not be Alliteration

In the example below, assonance is *not* also alliteration; because the repeating vowel sound almost never occurs on either the first or stressed syllables (only on “imp” does it do either):

“Alice ignored the malice of the imp and bought the palace.

If you read this example aloud, and also read aloud the assonance examples that *are* alliteration, you’ll sense that, while both have repeating vowel sounds, the examples that are also alliteration have a kind of rhythm to them that non-alliterative assonance lacks.

Assonance and Rhyme

Assonance also plays a role in **rhyme**. Rhyme is the repetition of identical sounds located at the ends of words. Rhymes can be either repeated consonant sounds or vowel sounds (or combinations of the two). A rhyme, then, *can* be assonant, but not *all* rhymes are assonant. Here’s an example of assonance functioning as rhyme at the end of lines three and four of the limerick below:

“There once was a man named Clark
Whose dog refused to bark
But when he gave the dog pie
It stopped being so shy
And is loud nonstop until dark”

Activity 5

Read the following excerpts and comment on their capacity of upholding different figures of speech by using combined linguistic processes:

- i. Thistle and darnell and dock grew there,
And a bush, in the corner, of May,
- ii. Would sometimes stoop and sigh,
And turn his head, as if he’d said,
‘Poor Nicholas Nye!
- iii. Where words come out from the depth of truth;
Where tireless striving stretches its arms towards perfection;
- iv. Where the clear stream of reason has not lost;
Its way into the dreary desert sand of dead habit;

Assonance also plays a noticeable role in **”Slant Rhyme”**. The “Slant Rhyme” is a type of rhyme formed by words with sounds that are similar but not identical. The

“Slant Rhymes” often pair similar **vowel sounds** with dissimilar **consonant sounds**. In other words, “Slant Rhymes” often contain **Assonance**. In the example below from the song “N.Y. State of Mind”

“And be prosperous,
though we live dangerous
Cops could just arrest me, blamin’ us,
We’re held like hostages.”

The rapper Nas uses **Assonance** to create **Slant Rhymes** between the first syllable of the word, “**prosperous**,” the word “cops,” and the first syllable of the word “hostages.” In addition, the assonance of the “us” sound in final syllables of “prosperous,” “dangerous,” and “could just” establishes the **Slant Rhyme** that ends with the slightly different vowel sound in “hostages.”

9.6 Summary

Linguistic process *inter alia* involves close interaction between the surface structure and the deep structure of a given sentence structure. If observed carefully, the surface structure may lead to understanding of Assonance, Geminatio and Alliteration in a given literary structure. Assonance involves the repetition of only vowel sounds, whereas alliteration can involve the repetition of *either* vowel sounds or consonant. **Assonance** refers to “repeated **vowel sounds**”, whereas **consonance** refers to “repeated *consonant* sounds” in a given structure. Geminatio occurs when the consonant sound gets lengthened due to phonemic need.

9.7 Review Questions

1. What are Linguistic Processes?
2. What is Assonance?
3. Give examples of Assonance with different senses.
4. What is Alliteration?
5. Are Assonance and Alliteration identical to each other? Why? Why not?
6. What is geminatio?
7. Cite examples of geminatio from English and your first language.
8. Mention the linguistic process for the following:

- a. Roy ran in the raging rain.
- b. Her brown braid brushed the bridge of her brow
- 9. Mention the linguistic process for the following:
 - a. Water falls across the autumn rocks.
 - b. The green field gleams in the warm sunbeams.
- 10. Mention the Linguistic process for the following:
 - a. The lock stuck quickly, so Mark called a locksmith.
 - b. Laura called to tell me that Lila had fallen ill.

9.8 References and Reading List

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Notes

- 1 Course in General Linguistics (Eds. Bally and Sechehaye and Trans. Roy Harris. 1915)
- 2 Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structure. Mouton Publishers. Paris (1957)
- 3 Montague's Universal Grammar: An Introduction to Linguist. 1979

Unit 10 □ Morphophonemic Transcription

10.1 Introduction

10.2 Objectives

10.3 Application of Morphophonemics

10.4 Morphophonemic Processes: Pluralisation in English

10.5 Application of IPA for Morphophonemic Transcription

10.6 Summing up

10.7 Review Questions

10.8 References and Reading List

10.1 Introduction

The **sound structure** (phonology) and the **word structure** (morphology) are the main components of a language system including English. Many a times, these systems interact and inter - affect each other in some interesting ways and give rise to a phenomenon which is known as ‘morphophonemics’. Sometimes, due to this interaction, pronunciation of a morpheme may get modified or completely changed.

Morphophonemics may be defined as analysis and classification of the phonological factors which affect the pronunciation of morphemes or, correspondingly, the morphological factors which affect the appearance of phonemes. In morphophonemics, we basically study interaction between morphological and phonological processes and how they these factors affect each other.

These morphophonemic changes may be regular or irregular and are context sensitive in nature. In ‘morphophonemics’, we specifically study the changes which occur at the boundaries of morphemes.

10.2 Objectives

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

- Understand interactions between phonological and morphological processes
- Know about different kinds of morphophonemic changes
- Learn on IPA and Morphophonemic transcriptions.

10.3 Application Of Morphophonemics

Morphophonemics is a study about phonological realization of a morpheme (Katamba, 1989). In connection with its phonological process at the level of basic morpheme. Crowley (1987) divides the morphophonemic processes into eight types. They are namely:

i. Lenition

The word **lenition** itself **means** "softening" or "weakening" (from Latin *lēnis* "weak"). An example of synchronic **lenition** in American English is found in flapping in some dialects: the /t/ of a word like wait /weɪt/ becomes the more sonorous /ɾ/ in the related form waiting → /weɪtɪŋ/.

Crowley divides "lenition" into five sub types. They are namely:

a. Cluster reduction: The combination of "two consonant sounds" is reduced to one consonant sound, Examples:

→ *Victoria* has become /Vittoria/ ;(/k/ sound is reduced)

→ Cold becomes / kəʃ l / (/d/ sound is reduced)

b. Apocope: Loss of the last vowel sound of a word in its evolution. Example: Old English "lufu" /lufu/ becomes "love" (/u/ sound at the end is lost).

c. Syncope: The omission of sounds or letters from within a word. Example:

→ The word "library" *library* is pronounced as /lʌbrɪ/.

d. Haplology: Contraction of a word by omission of one or more similar sounds or syllables. Example:

→ "mineralogy" for "mineralology"

→ /prə-blē/ for probably

e. Compression: Vowel sound is compressed and consonants take care of the phonemic word. SMS language is the result of compression. Examples:

→ Suppose = /spz/

→ Care = /kr/

Activity 1: Use your study skill of English Language Teaching and exemplify the following morphophonemic processes as listed below (You may take help of the last part of this unit):

ii. Sound addition:
iii. Metathesis:
iv. Fusion:

v. Unpacking:
vi. Vowel breaking:
vii. Assimilation:
viii. Dissimilation:

Completing the type, Keraf (1996) ¹mentions a kind of “sound deletion” that occurs at the beginning of a word that is called “aphaeresis”.

“Sound addition” is further divided by Crowley (1987) into three, namely:

- a. Anaptyxis: In English, anaptyxis is the insertion of a vowel between two consonants to aid pronunciation, e.g., he went thataway. /a/ is inserted in between /t/ and /w/.
- b. Epenthesis: **Epenthesis** most often occurs within unfamiliar or complex consonant clusters. **Example:**
 → In English, the name Dwight is commonly pronounced with an **epenthetic** schwa between the /d/ and the /w/ /dəwaɪt/, and many speakers insert a schwa between the /l/ and /t/ of realtor.
- c. Prothesis: When a vowel sound is inserted before a “**consonant cluster**” of English, in some situations, where the word is borrowed from English prothesis occurs.

Example:

- In Bangla /i/ sound is inserted at the beginning of English Words as shown below:
- School → /iskul/
- Staff → /istʌtʃ/

Crowley (1987) gives examples in Kairiru and Bislama as the following: 1. Vowel breaking in Kairiru */pale/ → /pial/ ‘home’; 2. Unpacking in Bislama /baik/ ← B.Ing /bæg/ ‘bag’. In addition to the phonological processes described above, there are also other kinds of processes called monophthongization, diphtongization (Schendl, 2001) and fortition and neutralization (Katamba, 1989). At the level of derivative morphemes, Nida (1949) and Katamba (1989) classify the morphophonemic process as the following:

- a. Assimilation,
- b. Dissimilation,
- c. Loss of phonemes,
- d. Fusion,
- e. Palatalization.

In addition to the five, there is a new term called incorporation. Parera (1993: 133) says that incorporation is the integration of case into verbs or, morphologically verbalized case without a semantic difference. In other words, it is a verb formation

derived from a morphologically verbalized case. Morphophonemic change usually occurs at morpheme boundaries and it involves sounds that are associated with separate phonemes. One very obvious example to morphophonemics would be the use of indefinite articles in English language.

Indefinite article in English has two distinct manifestations: “a and an”. If a word begins with a consonantal sound then indefinite article is manifested as ‘a’ (a mango or a cat), while it is manifested as ‘an’ (an apple or an idiot) if following word starts with a vowel sound.

Points to Remember

The term ‘**sound**’ refers to the way a **phone** (consonant or vowel) is pronounced, not necessarily written, in English. Therefore, an hour is a correct phrase not *a hour and a university is the correct phrase not *an university.

Morphophonemic Processes: Pluralisation in English

Word (Singular)	IPA Transcription	→	Word (Plural)	IPA Transcription
→ Pluralisation Process 1 Voiceless Consonant + s = /s/				
cut	/kʌt/	→	cuts	/kʌts/
kick	/kɪk/	→	kicks	/kɪks/
top	/tɒp/	→	tops	/tɒps/
→ Pluralisation Process 2 Voiced Consonant + s = /z/				
dog	/dɒg/	→	dogs	/dɒgz/
rib	/rɪb/	→	ribs	/rɪbz/
kid	/kɪd/	→	kids	/kɪdz/
→ Pluralisation Process 3 Voiced Consonant + s = /əz/				
judge	/dʒʌdʒ/	→	judges	/dʒʌdʒəz/
wish	/rɪʃ/	→	wishes	/rɪʃəz/
church	tʃɜ:tʃ	→	churches	/tʃɜ:tʃəz/
→ Pluralisation Process 4 Vowel / diphthong + s = /əz/				
pea	/di:ə/	→	peas	/di:əz/
shoe	/ʃu:/	→	shoes	/ʃu:z/
day	/deɪ/	→	days	/deɪz/

To understand the morphophonemics, it's very important to understand concepts A to B not only in isolation but also as to how they appear in a morphophonemic process. Here, we will present regular pluralisation process of English language.

Upon careful observation of the data, it is noticed that plural morpheme in English is realized as /-s/, /-z/ and /-əz/ given different phonological environment of the stem to which plural morpheme gets attached to. When one morpheme takes more than one form (morph) in different phonological or morphological environment, these morphs are referred as allomorph to one another.

In this kind of situation, we need to set up a single underlying representation from which other morphs are derived for their pronunciation in any particular context. This underlying representation is achieved with the help of some rules, usually referred as morphophonemic rules. Therefore, it is evident that distribution of **plural allomorph** in English is not random in nature but is conditioned by **phonological environment** occurring at right boundary of the morpheme.

Usually, the allomorph with the wisest distribution qualifies as a suitable candidate for underlying representation. In this case, /-z/ qualifies to become underlying allomorph as it occurs after most voiced consonants and after all vowels. And from allomorph /-z/, other allomorphs /-s/ and /- əz/ have been derived by (a set of) rules.

Activity 2	
Write the Plural Forms of the following English words using correct IPA symbols and brace marks¹:	
Words (Singular)	Plural Words in IPA Symbols
i. advertisement	
ii. reading	
iii. horse	
iv. stable	
v. morpheme	
vi. dream	
vii. paper	
viii. attendee	
ix. language	
x. measure	

10.4 Morphophonemic Changes

There are some common types of morphophonemic changes in English:

a. Loss of phonemes and Duplication of the Initial Consonantal Sound: The phoneme /n/ of the negative prefix/in-/ is lost before the morphemes beginning with **sonorant sounds** /m/; /r/; /l/ and /n/. Examples:

- i. in + moral → immoral
- ii. in + mobile → immobile
- iii. in + regular → irregular
- iv. in+ limitable → illimitable
- v. in+ numerable → innumerable.

b. Addition of phoneme /s/

When words are joined, the phoneme /s/ is inserted.inbetween and the new word is formed. Examples:

sword + man = swordsman;

sale + girl = salesgirl;

craft + man = craftsman

c. Change of Allophones and allomorphs

The example which is mentioned above, the change from singular to plural

Examples:

dog + (plural) = dogs;

judge + (Plural) = Judges

d. Assimilation

Assimilation is the influence of a sound on a neighboring sound so that the two become similar or the same. For example, the Latin prefix *in-* 'not, non-, un-' appears in English as *il-*, *im-*, and *ir-* in the words

→ *Illegal*

→ *Immoral*

→ *impossible* (both *m* and *p* are bilabial consonants), and

→ *irresponsible*.

The **Assimilation** of the /n/ of /in-/ to the **following consonant** in the preceding examples was inherited from **Latin**. English examples that would be considered native are also plentiful. In rapid speech, native speakers of English tend to pronounce *ten*

bucks as though it were written /*tembucks*/, and in anticipation of the voiceless /s/ in the word “*son*” the final consonant of *his* in *his son* is not as fully voiced as the *s* in “*his daughter*”, where it is clearly voiced one i.e. /hiz/.

e. Dissimilation

When the linguistic process does not allow the assimilation as explained above, the unassimilated original form ‘*in-*’ is kept in the words.

- *indecent*
- *incompetent*
- *inaccurate*

f. Synthesis

There is the fusion of the two phonemes brought together by morpheme combination into a single new phoneme. Examples:

- Hindi + English = Hinglish
- Bangla + English = Banglish

g. Stress shift, gradation

In many cases the addition of an affix to a word is accompanied by a shift in stress called *stress shift*. Examples:

- /Promise (Noun) → the stress is on the first syllable
- Pro/mise (Verb) → the stress is on the second syllable

h. Suppletion

This type of morphophonemic change is, the occurrence of the allomorph completely different in phonemic structure from the normal form. Those are some common change of morphophonemics, in English. If we can predict the rule behind the different kind of pronunciation or monomorphemic change that happened, it will make it easier for us to learn English.

The prefix /in-/ has the allomorphs [il] and [ir]

/in-/ + responsible	irresponsible
/in-/ + logical	illogical

Phonological rules in English: The prefixes /un-/ and /non-/ would also exhibit this regular pattern, but they do not.

/un-/ + responsive	(*urresponsive)	unresponsive
/un-/ + limited	(*ullimited)	unlimited
/non-/ + retroactive	(*nor-retroactive)	non-retroactive
/non-/ + lethal	(*nol-lethal)	non-lethal

Therefore, there must be a morphophonemic rule which determines the allomorphs [il] and [ir] of the prefix /in-/.

10.5 Application of IPA For Morphophonemic Transcription

Morphophonemic or Phonetic transcription refers to the systematic representation of language in written form through consistent use of phonemic symbols. The source can either be utterances (speech or sign language) or preexisting text in another writing system. ... It also plays an important role for several subfields of speech technology in Computer Aided Language Teaching (CALT).

The International Phonetic Alphabet has been developed by the International Phonetic Association as a writing system that can be used to describe the sounds used in speech across languages. This is important because it allows us to describe sounds accurately based on a number of distinctions used to separate speech sounds in languages.

At the outset we will focus on learning the vowel and consonants (pulmonic) charts, focusing in particular on the sounds used in English. However, in order for you to use these charts well, it is important for you to understand how they are organized.

English Consonants

First, you will see that for the consonant chart after Activity 3, the columns are organized according to *place of articulation*;

- ➔ moving from the *forward-most articulation* points to the **back-most articulation** points,
- ➔ the rows, then, are organized according to *manner of articulation*,
- ➔ these are only two of the variables that distinguish sounds from each other. Note that *voicing* is also shown in this chart through the placement of the symbols to the right or left sides of each cell in the table. If a symbol is placed in the left side of a cell, that means that that symbol corresponds to a voiceless sound. If a symbol is placed in the right side of a cell, that symbol corresponds to a voiced sound.

When describing consonant segments, it is typical to describe them in the order of *voicing, place of articulation, manner of articulation*. If you wanted to describe a [p] sound in English, then, you would say that it is a voiceless bilabial stop. Using these three variables is sufficient to pick out that a particular segment is in contrast to the other segments. For instance, if you left out the *voicing* distinction, you could refer to either [p] or [b] with the description bilabial stop. If you left out the *placement* distinction, you could be referring to either [p] [t] [k] in English with the description voiceless stop. If you left out the *manner* distinction, you could be referring to either [p] or the semivowel [w] with the description voiceless bilabial.

English Vowels

When describing English vowels, we must use different descriptors to distinguish the different sounds made. Unlike consonants, **vowels** cannot be as easily described with *manner of articulation, place of articulation, and voicing* because the tongue

does not touch, make contact with the roof of the mouth in the same way as consonants.

Linguistically speaking, **vowels** are generally voiced. In other words some languages do have voiceless vowels², and the tongue’s position is rather imprecise in producing vowels (since it does not meet the roof of the mouth at a particular point, producing the same vowel may have slightly different tongue positions depending on the consonant segments around the production of that vowel). In essence, we must use different variable to describe vowels as being distinct from one another.

English Vowels are of two types:

A. Monophthongs

A **monophthong** (pronounced /mono-f-thong/ is simply a vowel sound. The word **monophthong** means that a vowel is spoken with exactly one **tone and one mouth position of the articulators involved**.

Example: When you pronounce the word, “teeth”, then while you are creating the sound of the long /I/, there is no change in the position of the articulators in the oral cavity.

English has 20 vowel sounds of which 12 are **Monophthongs** and 8 are **Diphthongs**.

English Monophthongs are of two types as displayed below:
Short vowels in the IPA are:
→ /ɪ/ as in “pit”
→ /e/ as in “pet”
→ /æ/ as in “pat”
→ /ʌ/ as in “cut”
→ /ʊ/ as in “put”
→ /ɑ/ as in “dog”
→ /ə/ as in “about”
Long vowels in the IPA are:
→ /i:/ as in “week”
→ /a:/ as in “hard”
→ /ɔ:/ as in “fork”
→ /ɜ:/ as in “heard”
→ /u:/ as in “boot”

Diphthongs
There are eight diphthongs commonly used in English. They are:
→ /eɪ/ as in “place”
→ /aɪ/ as in “find”
→ /əʊ/ as in “home”
→ /aʊ/ as in “mouse”
→ /ɔɪ/ as in “boy”
→ /ɪə/ as in “clear”
→ /eə/ as in “care”
→ /ʊə/. as in “tour”

Table 1. English Monophthongs

Table 2. English Diphthongs

Activity 3

Use the above information and find out the type of the Vowel sounds involved in the following words. Transcribe the words in phonetic symbols:		
Words	Vowel Type/s	Phonetic Transcription
i. regular		
ii. inscribe		
iii. outward		
iv. home-bound		
v. tourist		
vi. omniscient		

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 1993, corrected 1996)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

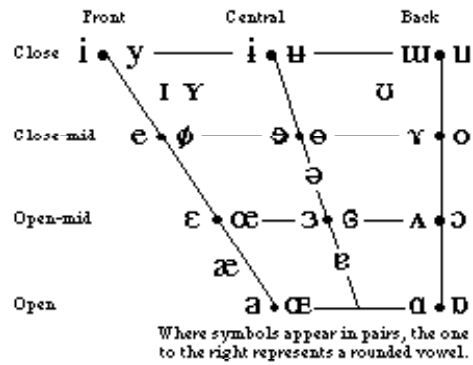
	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill				r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap				ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		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.

CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
ʘ	ɓ	ʼ
ǀ	ɗ	ɰ
ǃ	ɟ	ɰ
ǂ	ɠ	ɰ
ǁ	ʄ	ɰ

VOWELS



OTHER SYMBOLS

ʍ	Voiced bilabial fricative	ɸ	Unvoiced bilabial fricative
ʋ	Voiced bilabial approximant	ɰ	Alveolar lateral flap
ɥ	Voiced bilabial-palatal approximant	ɰ	Simultaneous ʃ and x
ħ	Voiced epiglottal fricative		
ʕ	Voiced epiglottal fricative		Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary
ʡ	Epiglottal plosive		

Click on any part of this chart to see the symbols and hear the sounds

Table 3. IPA Symbols to be used in Morphophonemic Transcription

When describing vowels, we describe them in terms of *height*, *backness*, and *rounding*. "Height" refers to the proximity of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth. For instance, /i/ in English is a very high vowel. If you produce the segment /i/ and then breathe in, you can tell that your tongue is close to the roof of your mouth because the air feels cool on your tongue) whereas /a/ is a very low vowel. You should be able to tell this by looking at yourself in a mirror. Practice articulation and see how your jaw drops when you produce this segment. *Height*,

then, is shown on the table along the vertical axis, with the higher vowels being placed higher on the table than the low vowels.

“**Backness**” refers to the approximate location of the tongue’s articulation of the vowel relative to the front of the mouth. As with *place of articulation* for the vowels, the left is assumed to represent the front of the mouth, while the right represents when the tongue is articulating primarily towards the back of the mouth.

Finally, vowels are also affected by whether the lips are *rounded* or *unrounded*. In English, [i] is clearly an unrounded vowel. This is why you are supposed to say ‘cheese’ [tʃi:z] for photos) while [u] is a rounded vowel (where the lips are pursed). For vowels in particular, the order that is often used to describe them is *height*, *rounding*, *backness*. In order to describe /i/ in comparison to all of the other vowel segments, then, we would say that it is a high, unrounded, front vowel.

Now that you know how to read the charts, you should find it relatively easy to understand the phonetic symbols that will be used in this class. In this class, you will be expected to be able to identify the *voicing*, *manner*, and *place of articulations* for the English consonants, but it is useful to know how to read the chart in case you encounter a phonetic symbol that you do not recognize. Similarly, in the vowel chart, you will be expected to know the *height*, *rounding*, and *backness* of the English vowels, but should find knowing how to read the chart helpful, since you may encounter some symbols that you are not familiar with.

Activity 4 ³	
Read the following conversation and re-write the text in phonetic transcription:	
Orthographic Transcript	Phonetic Transcription
((DOOR_OPENS)) <<TALK REBECCA: <<FOOTSTEPS Okay. ... (SNIFF) Um,	
>ENV: ((DOOR_CLOSES	
REBECCA: The .. The way that your testimony is FOOTSTEPS>> coming .I don't know if I explained this to you o[n the ph]one,	
RICKIE: [Hm-m].	
REBECCA: is, (H) when a person (Hx) is charged with murder (Hx) .. and, um, .. there .. are other incidences, where he acted in the same way?	

RICKIE: [Mhm], REBECCA: [(H)] When we have to prove, in this case we have to prove specific intent.	
>ENV: TALK>> to expose himself to a person, for sexual arousal (H)	
RICKIE: <P Mm P>.	
REBECCA: Um, .. when we have to prove something like specific intent, (H) um, or we have to prove identity. ... Because he's disputing identity in a coup- -- in ... at least one of the cases.	
RICKIE: [Hm].	
REBECCA: [(H)] Um (Hx), then, we are allowed to bring in, ... prior similar conduct. ... U=m, .. where he acted in .. a, .. an identical way, or where the victims were	

Semi Vowels

Semi Vowels are segments that are essentially produced like tiny vowels. Have you ever noticed that whenever you pronounce a word with a /w/, that you are essentially pronouncing a tiny /u/ before the following vowel? You may notice this even more when you draw out your pronunciation of words with such half glides. Did you ever wonder why when learning your vowels, you learned /a/ /e/ /i/ /o/ /u/, and sometimes /j/ This is because the letter ‘y’ sometimes stands for a vowel /j/ as in the name “Amy” and sometimes stands for the half glide /j/ as in the word, ‘yes’.

Semi Vowels are different from vowels on the basis of how they are used in the language. Especially, unlike vowels, these half glides can never act as the nucleus of a syllable . In English, we have just two half glides: /j/, which sounds like a really short /oi/ + /; and /w/, which sounds like a really short /u/. You can remember how these symbols correspond with the different sounds, because the symbol ‘j’ in the alphabet actually was originally just an ‘i’ with a long tail. This is why it is the only other letter in the alphabet with the dot above it and the ‘w’ is called, of course, a ‘double /u/’ These Semi Vowels function both as **Vowels** as well as **Consonants**.

English Consonants
English has 24 consonant sounds. Some consonants have voice from the voicebox and some don't. These consonants are voiced and voiceless pairs
→ /p/ /b/
→ /t/ /d/
→ /k/ /g/
→ /f/ /v/
→ /s/ /z/
→ /θ/ /ð/
→ /ʃ/ /ʒ/
→ /tʃ/ /dʒ/
These consonants are voiced
→ /h/
→ /w/
→ /n/
→ /m/
→ /r/
→ /j/
→ /ŋ/
→ /l/

Table 4. English Consonants

English Stops

As the name suggests, **Stops** are produced when a complete closure is made in the oral cavity. There are two kinds of stops: “**Nasal Stops**” and “**Oral Stops**”. **Nasal stops** are produced when a closure in the oral cavity is made, but air is allowed to escape through the nasal cavity by lowering the velum. **Oral Stops** are made similarly with a closure in the oral cavity, but the velum is raised so that air cannot escape. Since the air is not allowed to escape, you can never really produce an oral stop for long.

Experiment 1: → Try holding the pronunciation for /b/ and share your experience. nasals can be produced for long periods of time because the air is allowed to escape from nasal and oral cavities. Experiment 2: → See how long you can pronounce /m/.

Experiment 3: → You can tell if you are producing a **Nasal Stop** by placing a finger on the tip of your nose. If you can feel your nose vibrate when you pronounce a segment, it's a **Nasal Stop**.

Fricatives

Fricatives are produced when the constriction is really tight, but the articulators are not quite touching. As the articulators are so close, it causes the air to become

turbulent due to the persistent friction. This means that these segments sound like a variation of white noise that you would hear on a television. These segments are also known for being quite noisy (there's a reason why when people are trying to drown out the noise of someone else talking to make them quiet, they say "Shhh!" and not "Nnnnnn!")

Affricates

Affricates are segments that are produced by a combination of articulations that are similar to producing a **Stop** followed directly by a **Fricative**. An example of this is the /tʃ/ as in the word, "*church*" or the /dʒ/ in the word, "*judge*". However, it is important to note that these are considered to be segments of their own, and are not counted as two segments. You can remember their name because they are similar to the name **fricatives**. However, remember that they are named **affricates** and not *'affricatives'.

Liquids

Liquids are segments produced where airflow is allowed to continue through the vocal tract relatively uninhibited. In English, the two key liquids are /l/ and /r/. Notice that when you make these articulations, you are not completely stopping the airflow, unlike in Stops or Affricates or even creating turbulent airflow, unlike Fricatives and Affricates. Instead, the air is allowed to continue on in a continuous stream. To remember the segments that are liquids in the English language, just think of a sentence like "rivers are filled with liquids", where every word in this sentence contains one of the two **English Liquids**.

Morphophonemic transcription is the route through which spoken variety of any language can easily be captured and can easily be translated in different languages around the world. Most of the BPOs thrive on different domains of morphophonemic transcriptions like Medical Transcription, Engineering Transcription, Legal Transcription and Military transcription and so on. In English Language Teaching, the study of Morphophonemic Transcription is proved essential due to recurrent need of studying Inter-lingual **translation**. The study of Morphophonemic Transcription brings forth the opportunity of studying translinguistic features of **pidgin** and **creole** variety of English as a "Borrowed language" in different parts of the world. The study of Morphophonemic Transcription can also lead to the study of segmental and suprasegmental features of English phonology.

10.6 Summing Up

Morphophonemic Transcription refers to the systematic representation of spoken language in written form through consistent use of phonemic symbols and speech technology. Phonetic Transcription is the other name of Morphophonemic transcription. Morphophonemic change usually occurs at morpheme boundaries.

The combination of “two consonant sounds” is reduced to one consonant sound under consonant reduction. When describing consonant segments, it is typical to describe them in the order of *voicing, place of articulation, manner of articulation*. When describing vowels, we describe them in terms of *height, backness, and rounding*. *Height* refers to the proximity of the tongue relative to the roof of the mouth. Semi Vowels function both as **Vowels** as well as **Consonants**. Vowel glides are different from vowels because of how they are used in the language.

Computer Aided Language Teaching (CALT) is used worldwide and Computer Aided English Language Teaching (CaELT) has become a new trend.

10.7 Review Questions

1. What is a morphophonemic change?
2. Discuss Morphophonemic change in the terms of IPA.
3. What is addition of a sound segment called? Discuss the processes of sound addition.
4. Discuss different kinds of processes on sound deletion.
5. Discuss suppletion from English.
6. What is morphophonemic transcription?
7. You have learnt on IPA in Paper 3. How is phonetic transcription different from phonemic transcription?
8. Discuss morphophonemic processes from English.
9. What is morphophonemics?
10. “Use of Indefinite articles in English is an example of morphophonemics”- do you agree? Why? Why not?

10.8 References and Reading List

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4. Laura Lunger Knoppers (Ed).(2013). *The Oxford Handbook of Literature and the English Revolution*. OUP. Oxford.UK.
5. Karttunen, L. (1977). 'Syntax and Semantics of Questions', *Linguistics and Philosophy*.
<http://web.stanford.edu/~laurik/publications/archive/questions.pdf>

Notes :

- 1 Using Brace Marks /...../ is a linguistic convention to capture "Speech Sounds" in IPA symbols.
- 2 **Voiceless vowels** are also an areal feature in **languages** of the American Southwest (like Hopi and Keres), the Great Basin (including all **Numic languages**), and the Great Plains, where they are present in Numic Comanche but also in Algonquian Cheyenne, and the Caddoan **language** called Arikara.
- 3 <https://www.linguistics.ucsb.edu/sites/secure.lsit.ucsb.edu.ling.d7/files/sitefiles/research/SBC/SBC008.trn>

Unit 11 □ Features Of Bangla Morphology

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Objectives
- 11.3 Evolution of Morphophonemic Features of Bangla
- 11.4 Influence of Different Languages on Bangla Morphology
- 11.5 Syntactic Morphology
- 11.6 Morphological Analysis of Bangla Language
- 11.7 Conclusion
- 11.8 Summing up
- 11.9 Review Questions
- 11.10 References and Reading List

11.1 Introduction

In the present unit of Paper 6 Module 3 we will focus on the *morphology* /mɔr¹fəldʒi/ of Bangla language. Bangla language (also called Bengali) is the easternmost of the languages belonging to the Indo-Aryan language family. This new Indo-Aryan (NIA) language is historically related to Modern Indo-European Languages like Irish, English, French, Greek, Iranian and Russian languages. Bangla is influenced by Oriya, Magadhi and Maithili and has influenced Assamese, Mizo and various Austric languages like Santali, Mundari, Khasi and Sino-Tibetan languages like Kachhari, Boro, Garo and Tripuri, each of them encroaches at times on the Bangla-speaking areas and vice versa.

11.2 Objectives

In our course of study we need to focus on **the study of Bangla words** which inter alia involves finding answers to the following:

- How the Bangla **words** are formed using finite set of Bangla alphabet?
- How the words are related to other words in the same language?
- How does the morphophonemic syntax of Bangla language function?
- How do different parts of speech function with intonation and stress?
- How does the change in a given **context** can change the pronunciation and meaning of a Bangla phrase or clause or a sentence?

Bangla language (also called **Bengali**) is the eastern most of the languages belonging to the **Indo-Aryan** language family. This new Indo-Aryan (**NIA**) language is historically related to Modern Indo-European Languages like **Irish, English, French, Greek, Iranian** and **Russian** languages. **Bangla** is influenced by Oriya, Magadhi and Maithili and has influenced **Assamese, Mizo** and various **Austic** languages like **Santali, Mundari, Khasi** and **Sino-Tibetan** languages like **Kachhari, Boro, Garo** and **Tripuri**, each of them encroaches at times on the Bangla-speaking areas and vice versa. The State of Bangladesh has adopted Bangla as the official language. Bangla is also one of the Scheduled Regional languages listed in the Indian Constitution. Bangla is the administrative language of the following Indian Provincial States:

- West Bengal
- Tripura
- Assam
- **Jharkhand**

Bangla speakers are available across the length and breadth of India. **Bangla** speakers number about more than 230 million today, making **Bangla** the seventh language after **Chinese, English, Hindi, Spanish, Arabic and Portuguese**. It is perhaps the only language on the basis of which an independent state was created. Bangla emerged as a new Indo-Aryan language by 900-1000 CE through **Magadhi apabhramsh** and Abahatha, two subsequent phases of **Magadhi** (600 BC - 600 CE), along with two other Indo-Aryan languages, **Oriya** and **Assamese**. Until the 14th century, there was little linguistic difference between **Bangla** and **Assamese**. The study of **Bangla Morphology** requires a morphophonemic understanding of the key linguistic features of **Bangla**. Let us study these features in phase-wise evolution of **Bangla** language.

11.3 Evolution Of Morphophonemic Features Of Bangla

The evolution of Bangla may be divided into three historical phases. The linguistic features of these three phases of Bangla language can be classified as follows:

→ **Phase 1: Old Bangla (900-1400 CE)**

The earliest example of old Bangla is to be found in the anthology of the oldest called “**Charyapada**”¹ poems of the mystical related to eastern Magadhi languages. Examples:

i. //kaye tarubara panchavi dal// i.e. The body is a tree having five branches.

Interpretation: The above “pada” is highly metaphorical as human body is earth-bound like a tree having five branches that are metaphorically none other than five sense organs.

Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language (900 -1400 CE)	
Phonological Features	Morphological Features
<p>A. Geminate clusters born out of conjunct consonants were simplified into single consonants and the preceding vowel grew longer as a result of compensatory lengthening.</p> <p>B. The word-final /a/ (অ) remained in place and the word-final /ia/ (ইঅ) turned into long /i/ (ঐ).</p>	<p>A. Feminine gender continued to be used with genitive inflections and past verbal inflections that are ending in /l/ (ল).</p> <p>B. Inflections as used in modern Bangla started surfacing at this stage; but verbal inflections ending in /-ila/ (-ইল) and /-iba/ (-ইব) began to be used with the subject of the Intransitive Passive Voice.</p> <p>C. The proto forms of modern Bangla Pronouns like /ahme/ (আম্বে), /tuhme / (তুজে) etc. surfaced at this stage of the Bangla language.</p>

Table 1. Old Bangla Morphophonemic Changes

→ **Phase 2: Medieval Bangla (1400-1800 CE)**

Shrikrnakirtan or **Shrikrnasandarbhā** of Baruchandidas is an example of the early form of Medieval Bangla. Other writings in Medieval Bangla are:

- Poetic translations of the Sanskrit **epics**, the **Ramayan** and the **Mahabharat** by Krittibas and Kashiram Das.
- Srikrishnakirtan Kavya.
- **Vaishnava Mystical** lyrics,
- Poetical biographies of Sri Chaitanya,
- Various forms of the mangalkavya, narrative,
- Secular poetry written at the court of **Arakan** and **Rosang** Kings,

- Shakta Padabali Poetry,
- Purbabanga-gitika,
- Mangalkavya.

Let us study the major morphophonemic changes that occurred during the period. For the convenience of the study we will be using two separate tables as displayed below:

Early Medieval Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language (1400 -1600 CE)	
Bangla Phonological Features	Bangla Morphological Features
A. In the early phase of Medieval Bangla, the half-vowels /i/ (ই) and /u/ (উ) started weakening.	A. Verbal inflections like /-il/ (-ইল) and /-ib/ (-ইব) started to be used with the subject of the Active Voice instead of Intransitive Passive Voice.
	B. Post-positions, rather than verbal inflections, started to be used for Intransitive Passive Voice.
	C. Phrasal and compound verbs gained linguistic currency.
B. Nasal Aspirates lost aspiration	
C. Nasalised vowel + consonant started replacing nasal sound + consonant	

Table 2. Early Medieval Morphophonemic Changes

Let us look into the Morphophonemic Changes that were observed during the later part of the Medieval period.

Later Medieval Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language (1600 -1800 CE)	
Bangla Phonological Features	Bangla Morphological Features
A. the elision of the word-final /a/ (অ).	A. The evolution of new inflections like /-r/ (-র), /gula/ (-গুলা), /guli/ (-গুলি), -dig(e)r (-দিগ(ে)র) etc.
B. The evolution and currency of epenthesis.	B. Assimilation of Lexical loan words of Sanskrit and Persi-Arabic words.
C. The evolution of the new vowel sounds and diphthongs /ae/ (ঝা) as in the English phonetic transformation /hat/.	C. Influence of Vaishnavism changed the approach of using “ Bhaktigeeti ” i.e. devotional songs as literary style.

Table 3. Later Medieval Morphophonemic Changes

➔ **Phase 3: Modern Bangla (1800- 2000 CE)**

An influx of Persi-Arabic words into the language took place at this point of evolution. Bangla also borrowed from Sanskrit, the words known as **tatsama** and **tadbhava**, English and other languages. Michael Madhusudan Datta and Rabindranath Tagore are the most influential literateurs of Modern Bangla language.

Major Literary works of the period that bear the imprint of Bangla Morphology are:

- ➔ Bangla Novels,
- ➔ Bangla Essays,
- ➔ Bangla Short Stories,
- ➔ Bangla Lyrics,
- ➔ Bangla Critical Essays.

Activity 1	
Go through the above information again and fill in the table with correct information	
a. Important Phonological change you Noticed in the Mediaeval period	
b. Three important features of Bangla Morphology that have influenced Bangla language	
c. Two important Morphophonemic changes you observed in Modern Bangla	

Let us closely look into the major morphophonemic implications of the Modern period of evolution of Bangla language in the following table:

Modern Morphophonemic Changes in Bangla Language	
Phonological Features	Morphological Features
A. The widespread use of vowel harmony or vowel height assimilation influenced by /i/ (ই) and /u/ (উ).	<p>A. Use of Shorter Forms: Modern Bangla morphology has got the feature of using the shorter form of pronouns and verbal forms in standard colloquial Bangla that have been adopted in written.</p> <p>Bangla.Examples: তাহার(tahar) → তার (tar)= his করিয়াছিল (kariyachhila) → করেছিল(karechhila)</p>
B. The elision of epenthetic /i/ (ই) and /u/ (উ).	B. Many features of medieval Bangla are still found in many Bangla Dialects.
C. An increase in the number of words beginning with the sound /ae/ (অ্যা), pronounced as in 'hat,' stemming from e (এ).	C. Use of colloquial words in Bangla literature.

<p>D. The separation of consonant clusters in spoken form with anaptyxis or prothesis (insertion of a vowel or schwa in between two Consonants for easing out the pronunciation).</p>	<p>D. Attempt of using more and more “chalit Bangla” standardized Rhada Dialect (used by Calcuttans during British rule, as Calcutta was the Capital city of British India till 1911 CE).</p>
<p>E. The assimilation of tatsama conjunct consonants formed with /b/ (ব), /m/ (ম) and /y/ (য).</p>	<p>E. Rhetorical structures evolved due to strict Censor Policy of the British Rulers and spread of University Education during the second half of the Nineteenth century and afterwards.</p>

Table 4. Modern Morphophonemic Changes

11.4 Influence Of Different Languages On Bangla Morphology

Bangla has got its vocabulary extensively enriched, due to various influences it has undergone through, in course of time as highlighted above. Let us discuss some interesting influences that have enriched Bangla vocabulary of modern times.

Influence of Dravidian and Kol

Bangla has been greatly influenced by two non-Aryan languages: Dravidian and Kol. Their influence is evident not only in the **vocabulary** but also in the **syntactic construction** of sentences. A large number of **onomatopoeic words**, **repetitive words** and **conjunctive verbs** in Bangla reveal non-Aryan influence. Examples:

i. Onomatopoeic words		ii. Repetitive words	
→ ghoda-toda (horses...)	→ Khatkhat	→ kapad-chopad (clothes....)	→ Dhandhan
→ tuk-tuk (nick nack....)	→ Khankhan	iii. Conjunctive verbs	
Sadhubhasha	Chalitobhasha	English Meaning	
→ Basiya pada	bosepada	Sit down.	
→ lagiya thaka	lege thaka	Keep up persevering.	

Table 5. Bangla Words derived from Dravidian Vocabulary

There are plenty of Dravidian and other non-Aryan words in Bangla, especially in place names, indicating that Bangla passed through many stages and was influenced by various other languages.

Influence of Sanskrit Language upon Bangla

One of the main influences on Bangla was that of Sanskrit as this language was the vehicle of literature and culture for almost the whole of the subcontinent since the beginning of the Christian era. In the days of old Bangla, many Bengalis used to write poetic works in Sanskrit. Even after the evolution of Bangla, many well-known Bengali poets, such as JAYDEV, UMAPATIDHAR and GOVARDHAN ACHARYA, continued to compose their literary works in Sanskrit. The result was that many pure Sanskrit words entered into Bangla from the very early stages.

Examles:

Bangla Words	←	Sanskrit Root	English Equivalent
পাতক	←	पातक	sinner
পানি	←	पानीय	water
পিতা	←	पिता	father
পুঞ্জ	←	पुञ्जक	collection
পুরুষ	←	पुरुष	male
পুস্তক	←	पुस्तक	book
প্রকার	←	प्रकार	kind / type
প্রাণী	←	प्राणिन्	animal
প্রেম	←	प्रेमन्	love

Table 6. Bangla Words Derived from Sanskrit Roots

Influence of Pali and Ardhamagadhi

The religious discourses of the Buddhists and the Jains were carried on in PALI and Ardhamagadhi respectively. The colloquial dialect of Magadha was called **Magadhi** while **Maithili** (Colloquial dialect of **Ardhamagadhi** of Mithila region). These dialects influenced the Old Bangla, “**Doha-makers**” i.e. Mystical Rhyme-makers and versifiers as well as “**Geetikars**” i.e. lyricists of the Medieval period. The lilting tone of **Maithili** and folk element in **Magadhi** attracted the attention of Bangla speakers due to their attachment to agriculture and other related activities. Examples:

- a. From **Pali** language Bangla has got words like :

- /nirban/ → Anirban
- /sangha/ → /stupa/
- /samiti/ → /kaya/
- /samadhi/ → /tarubara/ → /kalpataru/

b. The word **magadhi** in Ardhamagadhi dialect means strolling bards from which Bangla has coined words like

- /mag/,
- /mager muluk/
- /madhukari/

Activity 2	
Study the following Bangla words given in the left column and find out their sources/roots and write your answers in the right column:	
Bangla Words	Sources/Root
/bazar/	
/bæjar/	
/tumi/	
/bikar/	
/ingreji/	
/far òi/	
/pranI/	

Influence of Arabic, Persian and Turkish Languages

Following the establishment of Islamic rule in Bengal in the 13th century, Bangla came under the influence of Arabic, Persian and Turkish. Persian was the language of the court during Muslim rule in the 14th and 15th centuries. Because of this special status as well as other cultural influences, Bangla picked up many Persian words and adapted them to its vocabulary. Examples:

Bangla Word	←	Persian Word	English Equivalent
জায়গা <i>jayga</i>	←	/d 3 aj.ga/	Property/ place
ডেগ্‌চি <i>degchi</i>	←	/deg.t ə i/	Cooking pot/utencil
দম <i>dôm</i>	←	/d g m/	breath
দেরি <i>deri</i>	←	D ẽ.ri	late
দোকান <i>dokan</i>	←	/do.kan/	store, shop
পর্দা <i>pôrda</i>	←	/pɔ̣.d a/	curtain
বদ <i>bôd</i>	←	/b d /	bad
বাগান <i>bagan</i>	←	/ba.gan/	garden
রাস্তা <i>rasta</i>	←	/ras.t a/	route

Table 7. Bangla Words Derived from Persian Roots

Activity 3

- Analyze any four important features of Perso-Arabic Words that have influenced Bangla Morphology.
- Do you find any trace of this influence on any dialect of Bangla?

Influence of Portuguese Language

In the 16th century, with the Portuguese inroads, several Portuguese words entered into Bangla. Examples:

Portuguese	→	Bangla	English Equivalent
/anaras/	→	/ānāras/	pineapple
/ata/ =	→	/ātā/	custard-apple
/tamaku/ =	→	/tāmāk/	tobacco

Table 8. Bangla Words Derived from Portuguese Words

Activity 4

- Analyze any five important features of Portuguese Words that have influenced Bangla Morphology.
- Do you find any trace of this influence on any aspect of Bangla language?

Influence of Dutch French and English Languages

From the 17th century, the Dutch, French and English started arriving in Bengal. As a result, words from these languages started enriching Bangla vocabulary. With the introduction of the Press and Publication in Bengal, Bangla adopted English Punctuation Marks like **Comma**, **Semi Colon**, **Colon** and other linguistic nuances⁴ into Bangla Written form due to the great efforts of Pundit Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar, Mrityunjoy Tarkalankar and Pundit Haraprasad Shastri who popularized the concept of Academic and Professional writing Examples:

→ Source Word	→	Bangla Word	= English Equivalent
→ French ← /cartouche/	→	/k.rtuɟ/	= cartridge
→ French ← /coupon/	→	/kupan/	= coupon
→ French ← /depot/	→	/dipo/	= store/godown
→ Dutch ← /hartan/	→	/bartan/	= utensils
→ Dutch ← /iskaban/	→	/iskapan/	= Heart (Playcard)
→ Dutch ← /iskurup/	→	/iskurup/	= screw
→ English ← /teIb(ə)l/	→	/tabil/	= table =
→ English ← /tʃeɪ/	→	/tɕɛɪ/	= chair
→ English ← /lɔ:d/	→	/lat/	= lord
→ English ← /dʒn(ə)r(ə)l/	→	/jandrel/	= General (Military)

Table 9. Bangla Words Derived from French Dutch and English Words

During the 18th and 19th centuries effective use of Modern Bangla prose began through the persistent efforts of Christian missionaries and the Orientalists. With the commencement of British rule in the second half of the 18th century and the spread of English education, Bangla started absorbing increasing numbers of **English** words. Following the establishment of the Bengali Department at Fort William College,

Calcutta in 1801, the efforts of its head, William Carey and his associate Bangla scholars, made Bangla language a suitable tool for writing fine prose.

With the development of Calcutta as a Metropolitan town and the growth of Press and Journalism in regional language, i.e., Bangla during the second half of the 19th century, newly educated Graduates of Calcutta University played an important part for spreading the news of Nationalism and patriotism in undivided Bengal..

During the 19th century Bangla writers contributed to the further growth of Bangla language. Among them were Raja Rammohan Roy, Bhabani Charan Bandyopadhyay. The language witnessed the elevation of colloquial Bangla to a written literary medium through the work of many talented writers like Rabindranath Tagore, Sarat Chandra Chattopadhyay and many others.

Bangla Lexicon

The main inherited elements of the Bangla language are:

→ **Tadbhava Words:** These words are derived from ‘that’, i.e. **Sanskrit**; the Sanskrit word that has changed at least twice in the process of becoming Bangla.

Example: Pitri (Sanskrit) → Pita (**Tadbhava**) → Pita (Bangla)

→ **Tatsama Words:** These words are similar to that, i.e. spoken Sanskrit dialects like **Prakit Ardhamagadhi or Apabhrangsha**. i.e. of low variety. Sanskrit word loaned into Bangla, with changed pronunciation but retaining the original spelling.

Example: Example: /prati/ + /asha/ = প্রত্যশা /pratyasha/ i.e. expectation •

→ **And ardha-tatsama** (half tatsama in nature; the Sanskrit words changed in the spoken form in Bangla, প্রত্যশা /pratyasha/ → পিতেশ /pityesh/ i.e. expectation •

Bangla has a large number of words of unknown etymology, also known as deshi or local words, which might have their origin in old Indo Aryan loan words from **Dravidian, Austric or Sino-Tibetan** languages. The new loan words are from **Persian, Arabic, Portuguese, English**, and other Indo European languages.

Prof. Sunitikumar Chatterji made a critical study **Bangala Bhashar Abhidhan**² and found that Bangla has 51.45 per cent **tadbhava** words, 44.00 per cent **tatsama** words, 3.30 per cent **Perso-Arabic** words and 1.25 per cent words from **English, Portuguese** and other languages. Although Jnanendra Mohan Das’s lexicon has around 150,000 words, the total number of Bangla words, including dialect words, is much more than that.

11.5 Syntactic Morphology

Syntactic Variation In Bangla: Bangla exhibits all the features of diglossia³, though some scholars have proposed triglossia or even n-glossia or heteroglossia between the written and spoken forms of the language. Two styles of writing have emerged, involving somewhat different vocabularies and syntax.

1. Shadhubhasha (সাধুভাষা or "uptight language") was the written language, with longer verb inflections and more of a Pali and Sanskrit-derived Tatsama vocabulary. Songs such as India's national anthem **Jana Gana Mana** (by Rabindranath Tagore) were composed in Shadhubhasha. However, use of **shadhubhasha** in modern writing is rare and restricted to some official deeds and documents in Bangladesh as well as in West Bengal that too for achieving particular literary effects.

i. Cholitobhasha (চলতিভাষা or "running language") is known to linguists as Standard Colloquial Bangla. This written Bengali style exhibits a preponderance of colloquial idioms and shortened verb forms and is the practiced standard for written Bangla now a days. **Cholitobhasha** is modelled on the dialect spoken in the Shantipur region in Nadia district, West Bengal. This form of Bangla is often referred to as the "Nadia standard", or "Nadia dialect", or "Southwestern/West-Central dialect" or even "Shantipuri Bangla".

This form came into vogue towards the end of the 19th century, promoted by the writings of Peary Chand Mitra's novel **Alaler Gharer Dulal** (1857), Pramatha Chaudhuri's **Sabujpatra** (1914) and in the later writings of Rabindranath Tagore.

Word Order in Bangla Sentences

As a head-final language, Bangla follows **Subject–Object–Verb (SOV) word order**, although variations to this theme are common. Bangla makes use of **postpositions**, as opposed to the **prepositions** used in English and other European languages. **Determiners** follow the Noun, while **numerals, adjectives**, and **possessors** precede the Noun.

Stress and Intonation

In standard Bangla stress is predominantly initial. Bangla words are virtually all **trochaic** (In disyllabic situation the first syllable is stressed.) In other words, the **primary stress** falls upon the initial syllable of the word, while **secondary stress** often falls on all odd-numbered syllables thereafter, giving strings such as in সহযোগিতা / **shô-hô-jo-gi-ta**/ i.e., "cooperation", where the **boldface** represents primary and secondary stress.

"Yes-No Type questions" do not require any change to the basic word order;

instead, the low (L) tone of the final syllable in the utterance is replaced with a falling (F) tone.

Additionally, optional particles (e.g. কি /-ki/, না/-na/) are often encliticised onto the first or last word of a yes-no question.

/ki/ /Kemon/ /kena/ questions (known as Wh-questions in English) are formed by using these words at the beginning of the sentence..

Bangla Punctuation Marks

Bangla maintains the only punctuation mark a straight down stroke or /da[i/ (।) which is the Bengali equivalent of a **full stop**. The other punctuation marks like **comma, semicolon, and colon** have been adopted from English writing style and their usage is similar to English.

Unlike in western scripts (Latin, Cyrillic) where the letter-forms stand on an invisible baseline, the Bangla letter-forms instead hang from a visible horizontal left-to-right headstroke called মাত্রা **matra** (—————) is important.

Example:

➔ The letter ত / ta/ and the numeral ৩ i.e. 3 are distinguishable only by the presence or absence of the **matra**,

➔ The consonant cluster ত্র/trô/ and the independent vowel এ /e/.

➔ The letter-forms also employ the concepts of letter-width and letter-height (the vertical space between the visible matra and an invisible baseline).

11.6 Morphological Analysis Of Bangla Language

The morphology of Bangla is **accidence-based**⁵, although its analytical nature has gradually evolved as the language passed through the influence of the ruling class. **Bangla** has more than **50 verb-inflections**, and a fewer number of **case endings**.

The **case** of the nominal word is expressed in three ways:

- i. Through **case endings (indirect object Dative, Genitive and Locative cases)**
- ii. Through **case endings and post-positions (instrumental case, Gerundial)** and
- iii. Through **post-positions (Ablative case)**.

The **Nominative case** does not primarily take any case ending, but in case of ‘collective’ agents, the **case** takes the **case ending /-e/ (-এ)**, such as:

→ manuse eman kaj kare na (মানুষ এমন কাজ করে না) = Human beings are not supposed to do this type of (heinous) work.

There is also no **case** ending for inanimate indirect objects. In standard colloquial Bangla, the **case** ending for indirect objects is **-/ke/** (কে), the genitive case-ending is **-/e/r** [এ] and the locative case ending is **-/e/te** -(এ). The word-final sound determines where the ending should be in **-r** or **-/er/**, and **-/te/** or **-/ete/**.

The **accidence** of verbs is fairly complex.

Finite verbs are chiefly split into two groups based on the **verb inflections**:

A. Indicative: All the three Tense Forms are applicable for this as shown below:

→ **Present Tense:** The ‘Present Tense’ includes three **Aspects**:

- i. **Simple Present** e.g. /kari/ করি
- ii. **Progressive Present** e.g. /karchhi/ করছি
- iii. **Perfect Present** /karechhi/ করেছি

→ **Past Tense:** The ‘Past Tense’ includes four **Aspects**:

- i. **Simple Past** e.g. /karlam/ করলাম
- ii. **Progressive Past** e.g. /karchhilam/ করছিলাম
- iii. **Perfect Past** e.g. /karechhilam/ করেছিলাম
- iv. **Habitual Past** e.g. /kartam/ করতাম .

→ **Future Tense:** There is only one **Aspect** of the future tense:

- i. **Simple Future** e.g. /karba/ করব

B. Imperative:

i. The **Second Person Imperative** has three forms:

- a. **Honorific:** /karun/ করুন
- b. **Ordinary:** /karo/ করো and
- c. **Familiar or contemptuous:** /kar/ কর

The **Second-Person Imperative** is used in both **Present and Future Tenses**.

Example:

- a. করবেন /karben/ or করুন /karun/
- b. কর /koro/ করো /karo/,
- c. কর /kar/ করিস /karis/

ii. The **Third Person Imperative** has two forms:

a. **Honorific:** : /karun/ করুন

b. **Ordinary** /karuk/ করুক, The indicative mood has three tenses

Bangla Nouns/Pronouns and Inflections

Nouns and Pronouns are inflected for **Case**, including **Nominative**, **Objective**, **Genitive** (possessive), and **Locative**. The case marking pattern for each noun being inflected depends on the noun's degree of animacy.

When a definite article such as -টা -ta (singular) or -গুলো -gulo (plural) is added, as in the tables below, nouns are also inflected for number. Functionally we see the use of four Cases in Bangla though theoretical grammarians refer to Possessive Case which is no other than the Genitive Case as displayed in the Table 10 below:

Cases	Application of Case-based Inflections in Bangla			
	Singular Noun Inflections		Plural Noun Inflections	
	Animate	Inanimate	Animate	Inanimate
Nominative	ছাত্রটি /chātrô-ṭi/ the student	জুতাটা /jutā-ṭā/ the shoe	ছাত্ররা/ছাত্রগণ /chātrô-rā/ /chatrô-gan/ the students	জুতাগুলো/জুতাগুলো /jutā-gula/juto-gulo/ the shoes
Objective	ছাত্রটিকে /chātrô-ṭi-ke/ the student	জুতাটা /jutā-ṭā/ the shoe	ছাত্রদের(কে) /chātrô-der(ke)/ the students	জুতাগুলো/জুতাগুলো /jutā-gula/juto-gulo/ the shoes
Genitive	ছাত্রটির /chātrô-ṭi-r/ the student's	জুতার /jutā-ṭā-r/ the shoe's	ছাত্রদের /chātrô-der/ the students'	জুতাগুলো/জুতাগুলোর /jutā-gula/juto-gulo-r/ the shoes'
Locative	–	জুতায় /jutā-ṭā-y/ on/in the shoe	–	জুতাগুলো/জুতাগুলোতে /jutā-gulā/juto-gulo-te/ on/in the shoes

Table 10. Analysis of Case-based Inflections

Semantic value of Measuring Word (MW) in Bangla Syntax

When counted, Nouns take one of a small set of measure words. Nouns in Bangla cannot be counted by adding the numeral directly adjacent to the Noun. An appropriate measure word functions as a **classifier**, and it must be used between the **numeral** and the **Noun** concerned⁶ Most Bangla Nouns take the generic measure word -টা /ma/ though other measure words indicate semantic classes. Example:

- জন/jôn/ for humans. There is also this classifier.
- /khana/ and its diminutive form /khani/ used for objects.

Such pluralizing suffixes are attached only to Nouns, denoting something flat, long, square, or thin objects. These are the least common of the **classifiers**. Measuring nouns in Bangla without their corresponding measure words (e.g.

- আট বিড়াল */aṭ biral / (ungrammatical)
- আটটা বিড়াল /aṭṭa biral / i.e. eight cats.

However, when the semantic class of the Noun is understood from the **measure word**, the Noun is often omitted and only the **measure word** is used, Example:

→ শুধু একজন থাকবে /Shudhu êk-jôn thakbe. i.e. Only one person will remain.. It would be understood to mean “Only one **person** will remain.”, given the semantic class implicit in -জন -jôn.

In this sense, all Nouns in Bangla, unlike most other Indo-European languages, are similar to mass Nouns.

Bangla Verbs and Inflection (See Paper 6 Module 1 for English Inflectional Verbs)

There are two classes of Bangla verbs:

A. Finite Verb: Finite verbs are fully inflected for:

- a. **Person** (First, Second, Third)
- b. **Tense** (Present, Past, Future)
- c. **Aspect** (Simple, Perfect, Progressive)
- d. **Honour** (Intimate, Familiar, and Formal) but not for number. Conditional, imperative, and other special inflections for mood can replace the tense and aspect suffixes.

B. Non-finite Verb: Non-finite verbs have no inflection for Tense or Person,(See Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 12 for details.)

Inflectional Usage in Regional Bangla Dialects

The number of inflections on many verb roots can total more than 200.

Inflectional suffixes in the morphology of Bangla vary from one region to another region, along with minor differences in syntax.

Bangla differs from most Indo-Aryan Languages in the zero copula where the copula or connective "be" is often missing in the present tense. Example:

→ সে শিক্ষক /se shikkhôk/ = "S/he is a teacher"

In this respect, Bangla is similar to **Russian** and Hungarian as well as Romani semantic morphology.

11.7 Conclusion

Let us have a re-look into some significant key concepts that are worth considering with reference to Bangla morphology in conclusion. Bangla Consonant conjuncts are simplified in loan words in spoken language. Stress usually falls on the first syllable of a word and on the first word of a meaningful phrase. The primary stress of a question falls on the neuter gender interrogative pronouns /ke/, /ki/, /keno/ (who, what, why). General statements end in low pitch, and questions, affirmative or negative, end in high pitch. The length of vowel sounds is sometimes prolonged, influenced by emotion or voice projection Example:

→ কে-কী? ke-ki?

→ যা-ই! ya-i!

Stress is also employed to put emphasis on a word. In compound sentences, the connecting words have the least stress.

Bangla verb usually takes five inflections depending on the person, such as

- i. First Person (/āmi/ আমি)
- ii. Second Person ordinary (/tumi/ তুমি),
- iii. Second Person familiar (/tu/ তুই),
- iv. Second Person honorific (/āpni/ আপনি),
- v. Third Person ordinary (/øe/ সে)
- vi. Third-person honorific (/tini/ তিনি).

These sets of **verb inflections** are different for different **Tenses**. The inflections for **Aspect** and **Tense** do not change depending on the person; only the personal endings, that end the verb *forms change in Present Tense*:

-/i/ (-ই), -/o/ (-ও), -/is/ (-ইস), -/e/ (-এ), -/en/ (-এন):

Examples:

→ /kari/ (করি)

- /kar/ (কর)
- /karis/ (করিস)
- /kare/ (করে)
- /karen/ (করেন).

Causative Verbs : The **causative verbs** are formed with an -/a/ (-†) appended to the verb root Example:

- /kare/ করে → /karai/ করাই

An -/d/ (-†) appended to root can also be classified as **nominal verb root**. Example:

- /ghumai/ ~ ঘুমাই
- /santrai/ - সাঁতরাই

The order of endings in a verb root has the following order:

- Verb root (/kar/ কর) + causative ending (/ai/আই) + Aspect ending (/acI/ আচিশ) + Tense ending (ইল) + personal ending (/ām/আম)

The Bangla Verb roots are basically either **monosyllabic** or **disyllabic**. Examples:

- /kar/ (কর)
- /kara/ (করা)

The **causative** and the **nominal** verb roots are by nature **disyllabic**.

Exceptions: Onomatopoeic Verb groups that are formed under Dravidian influence:

- /jhɔlmalɔ/ + Verb
- Chɔkmɔka + Verb

Conjunctive Verbs: The **conjunctive verbs** has four forms as displayed below:

- i. Verbal Noun e.g. /kara (করা)
- ii. Completive e.g. /kɔre/ (করে)
- iii. Conditional e.g. /karle/ (করলে)
- iv. Inchoative e.g. /karte/ (করতে).

Correlative Compounds: Correlative compounds are formed in compliance with the rules of correlative compounds that are combinations of **conjunctive verbs** and **Verbal Nouns**. Examples:

- /dākādāki/ (ডাকাডাকি)
- /ghorāghuri/ (ঘোরাঘুরি)

Phrasal Verbs : Bangla Phrasal Verbs are formed with **finite forms** of verbal roots like /kar/ (কর), /hā/ (হ) or /mar/ (মার) placed after Nouns or Adjectives. Example:

- /upakār kara/ (উপকার করা)

→ /bhālo haoyā/ (ভালো হওয়া)

→ /chokh marā/ (চোখ মারা)

Compound Verbs: Bangla Compound Verbs are formed with verbs like /uth/ (উঠ), /par/ (পড়), /phel/ (ফেল), /thāk/(থাক) and the like placed after **completive** or **inchoative conjunctives**.

Example:

→ /kāre othā/ (করে ওঠা)

→ /base pṛā/ (বসে পড়া)

→ /bole phelā/ (বলে ফেলা)

Sanskrit Affixes in Bangla: The formation of the substantive **Bangla** words with affixes is limited in Bangla. There are very few original Bangla affixes. Bangla has borrowed the following suffixes from Sanskrit:

→ -/tā/ (তা) → Nominalizing effect on Adjectives e.g. /swacha/ (Adjective)+ -/tā/ = swachata (Noun)

→ -/tv/ (ত্ব),

→ -/imā/ (-ইমা)

Bangla Degree Words and Ordinals: Bangla degree words (-/tara/তর), -/tama/ -তম) and ordinals /pratham/ প্রথম /dvitiyā/ (দ্বিতীয়া) are dependent on Sanskrit affixes.

Other Important Bangla Affixes

i. Bangla, suffixes for **enclitic definitives** are:

→ -/tā/ -তা,

→ -/ti/ -তি,

→ /Khānā/ -খানা

ii. Bangla, suffix suggesting largeness or ungainliness is:

→ /jholā/ ঝোলা

iii. Bangla, suffix suggesting smallness or prettiness is

→ /jhuli/ ঝুলি

iv. Bangla, suffix showing loveableness:

→ /ramā/ রমা

Sequence in Bangla Phrase Structure

The order of words in Bangla phrase structure is maintained by “left branching”, i. e, **Adjectives** are placed on the left of **Nouns**; and **Adverbs** precede the **Verbs**.

Let us analyse the following Bangla sentence for understanding the sequence of Bangla phrase structure:

আমি কাল স্টেশনে কথাটা রুনাকে কানে কানে বলেছিলাম /āmi kāl steshane runāke kathāṭa kāne kāne balechlām/ (I uttered the words into Runa's ear yesterday at the station)

→ Subject + temporal phrase + locative phrase + indirect object + direct object + adverbial phrase + verb

→ Please note the place of the locative phrase can change, affecting the meaning of the sentence.

Copula not required in Bangla Phrase Structure

As in **Russian, Tamil** or **Japanese** languages, in Bangla also **copula** (the linking verb between the subject and the complement) is not required.

Example:

→ আমার নাম রুহুল কুদ্দুস/ āmār nām ruhul kuddus/

Copula is a must in English language. Example: .

→ (My name [**is**] (copula) Ruhul Quddus).

11.8 Summing Up

There are more than 200 sub dialects of Bangla language as identified by 2011 Census. Nouns in Bangla, unlike most other Indo-European languages, are similar to mass Nouns. The most common borrowings from foreign languages come from three different kinds of contact.

Wh-questions are formed by fronting the wh-word to focus position, which is typically the first or second word in the utterance. As in Russian, Tamil or Japanese languages, in Bangla also copula (the linking verb between the subject and the complement) is not required. In addition to the second person imperative, Bangla has another mood called the third person imperative. Non-finite verbs have no inflection for Tense or Person.

There is yet to be a uniform standard collating sequence (sorting order of graphemes to be used in dictionaries, indices, computer sorting programs, etc.) of Bangla graphemes. Experts in both Bangladesh and India are currently working towards a common solution for this problem.

11.9 Review Questions

1. Discuss morphological analysis from Bangla.
2. What is the Bangla word order? How is it different from English?
3. Discuss syntactic variations from Bangla.
4. What are the distinct features of Bangla pronouns?

5. Discuss the morphological changes from Old Bangla and Middle Bangla.
6. What are correlative compounds?
7. Discuss kinds of loan words in Bangla.
8. What are the punctuations marks for the Bangla script?
9. Compare English and Bangla punctuation marks.
10. Discuss conjunctive verbs from sadhu bhasa and calit bhasa.

11.10 Reference and Reading List

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Endnotes

- 1 Brought out by Pundit Haraprasad Shastri in his famous Article, "Hajar bochhorer purono Bangla bhasay rochito Bouddho gan o doha" (1916)
- 2 See Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 9 under Gemination for details.
- 3 Bagchi and Dey. S.K. 2006. *Exploring History*. Vol.1.Cambridge India.Kolkata
- 4 Compiled by famous linguist and lexicographer, Jnanendra Mohan Das (1872-1939)
- 5 In a linguistic situation where two varieties of the same language are used under different conditions within a community, often by the same speakers. The term is usually applied to languages like Arabic and Bangla with distinct '**high**' and '**low**' (colloquial) varieties.
- 6 See Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 12 for sample text of each variety.
- 7 Based on grammatical inflections
- 8 Most of the Indo-Aryan languages of the Mainland Southeast Asia linguistic area are similar in this respect.

Unit 12 □ Comparison Between English And Bangla Morphology

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Objectives
- 12.3 Pedagogical Implications of Contrastive Approach in ELT/BLT
- 12.4 Contrastive Analysis of Bangla Personal Pronouns in Application
- 12.5 Contrastive Analysis of Bangla Indefinite and Negative Pronouns
- 12.6 Contrastive Study of Bangla Case of Nouns
- 12.7 Comparing Bangla Adjectives with English
- 12.8 Bangla Verbs in Application
- 12.9 Summing up
- 12.10 Review Questions
- 12.11 References and Reading List

12.1 Introduction

A contrastive Analysis of **Morphological structure of English and that of Bangla language** will make ELT students and teachers more confident, so that they can handle the bilingual classroom situation more proficiently than they could do otherwise.

Bangla is a widespread Indo-Aryan new language that has got the status of “National Language” in Bangladesh. This language has also got the status of “Select Regional Language” in the Eighth schedule of the Indian Constitution. The study of the **morphology** and syntax of Bangla is also carried seriously in Higher Education in the Indian subcontinent.

12.2 Objectives

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

- Learn to compare Morphology across languages
- Learn to contrast Mophology across languages
- Understand pedagogical implications of morphology

12.3 Pedagogical Implications Of Contrastive Approach In ELT/BLT

Grammar Translation Method¹ is still followed in School Grammar. The underlying principle of this method suggests that school students learn English better when they get opportunity to apply their L-1 Grammar skill in contrast to English Grammar. Though ELT does never prescribe this GT Method for Classroom Teaching, a few linguists keep this method open to the choice of experienced teachers who face great difficulty in teaching English through Advanced Communicative Method (ACM), while teaching rural students especially when the latter are the first generation English learners.

This chapter aims at encouraging English Language Teachers to experiment with Eastern Region based **Mother Tongue i.e. Bangla** which is highly influential in shaping the great intellects of the the past as well as of present time. Further, contrastive method is useful method a so far researches in Linguistics are concerned. ELT experts may begin understanding the Contrastive Approach with reference to English and Bangla and later on proceed to carry out such studies with other Regional Languages such as Gujrati, Marathi, Tamil and Hindi.

With reference to New Education Policy (July 2020) the scope of applying **Contrastive Approach** is ever-widening as foreigners can also use this approach for learning Indian Languages through their basic proficiency in **English Grammar**. For example, foreign students who visit Viswabharati University for learning **Bangla** can also find this chapter very useful along with ELT experts and Applied Linguistics Trainers.

Contrastive Approach may be conducive to solve the following Classroom Language Teaching problems in **ELT or Bangla Language Teaching (BLT)**:

A. Students having Regional Language as L-1/and desirous of learning English as L-2.

- Students with **Exposure to English Speech Sounds**
- Students with **Exposure to English Grammar Rules**
- Students with **less Practice in English Grammar Rule**

B. Students having English / Foreign Language as L-1/and desirous of learning Bangla or other Indian Language as an Alternative Language

- Students with **Exposure to Bangla sh Speech Sounds**
- Students with **Exposure to Bangla Grammar Rules**
- Students with **less Practice in Bangla Grammar Rule**

C. Conducting Action Research in all the Teaching –Learning situations as mentioned above.

Application of **of Contrastive Approach** in **ELT** class will broaden the linguistic insight of **ELT Practitioners** who are interested in Researches in **Multilingualism** or **Bilingualism** for that matter as well as in **Applied Linguistics**.

12.4 Contrastive Analysis Of Bangla Personal Pronouns

Bangla **Personal Pronouns** are somewhat similar to English Pronouns, having different words for **First, Second, and Third Person**, and also for **singular** and **plural** (unlike for verbs, below). Bangla **Pronouns**, unlike their English counterparts, do not differentiate for **gender**; that is, the same pronoun may be used for “**he**” or “**she**”. However, Bangla has different third-person pronouns for proximity. The first are used for someone who is nearby, and the second are for those who are a little further away.

The Third Person Pronouns are usually for those who are not present. In addition, each of the Second and Third Person Pronouns has different forms for the familiar and polite forms. The Second Person also has a “very familiar” form (sometimes called “**derespective**”). It may be noted that the “very familiar” form is used when addressing particularly close friends or family as well as for addressing subordinates, or in abusive language. (See the Table 1 below for examples)

A. The Nominative Case

The **Nominative Case** is used for pronouns that are the subject of the sentence, such as “**I** already did that” or “Will **you** please stop making that noise?”

Animate Personal Pronouns : Nominative Case			
Referred Person		Referred Number with English Translation	
		Singular	Plural
First Person		আমি / <i>āmi</i> / = I	আমরা / <i>āmrā</i> / = we
Second Person	Very Familiar	তুই / <i>tui</i> / = you	তোরা / <i>torā</i> / = you Plural
	Familiar²	তুমি / <i>tumi</i> / = you	তোমরা / <i>tomrā</i> / = you Plural
	Polite	আপনি / <i>āpni</i> / = you	আপনারা / <i>āpnārā</i> / = you Plural

Third Personⁱ	Familiar	এ /e/ he or she	এরা /erā/ = they
	Polite	ইনি /ini/ = he or she	এঁরা /ērā/ = they
Personal Pronouns : Nominative Case			
Inanimate		এটি/এটা /eṭi /eṭā/ = it	এগুলো /egulo/ = these
Animate	Familiar	ও /o/ = he or she	ওরা /orā/ = they
	Polite	উনি /uni/ = he/she	ওঁরা /ōrā/ = they
Third Person	Inanimate	ওটি/ওটা /oṭi/oṭā/ = it	ওগুলো /ogulo/ = those
	Familiar	সে /se/ = he/she	তারা /tārā/ = they
	Polite	তিনি /tini/ = he/she	তঁরা /tārā/ = they

Table 1: Nominative Case: Bangla Personal Pronouns and their Use

B. The Objective Case

The **Objective Case** is used for the Personal Pronouns serving as the Direct or Indirect Objects, as exemplified below:

- ➔ I told **him** to wash the dishes
- ➔ The teacher gave **me** the homework assignment.

The inanimate pronouns remain the same in the Objective Case. (See Table 2 for details.)

Personal Pronouns: Objective Case		
Person	Singular	Plural
First	আমাকে/ <i>āmāke</i> / me	আমাদেরকে/ <i>āmāderke</i> / us
Second Very Familiar	তাকে (<i>toke</i> , you)	তাদেরকে/ <i>toderke</i> / you
Second Familiar	তামাকে (<i>tomāke</i> , you)	তামাদেরকে/ <i>tomāderke</i> / you
Second Honorific	আপনাকে (<i>āpnāke</i> , you)	আপনাদেরকে/ <i>āpnāderke</i> , you/
Third Very Familiar	একে (<i>eke</i> , him/her)	এদেরকে/ <i>ederke</i> / them
Third Honorific	এঁকে (<i>ēke</i> , him/her)	এঁদেরকে* <i>ēderke</i> / them
Inanimate	এটি/এটা (<i>eṭi/eṭā</i>) = it	এগুলো/ <i>egulo</i> / these
Third Very Familiar (Distant)	ওকে (<i>oke</i> , him/her)	ওদেরকে <i>oderke</i> / them
Third Honorific (Distant)	ওঁকে <i>ōke</i> / him/her	ওঁদেরকে/ <i>ōderke</i> / them
Inanimate (Distant)	ওটি/ওটা <i>oṭi/oṭā</i> it	ওগুলো <i>ogulo</i> / those
Third Very Familiar	তাকে (<i>tāke</i> , him/her)	তাদেরকে <i>tāderke</i> / them
Third Honorific	তাঁকে <i>tāke</i> / him/her	তাঁদেরকে <i>tāderke</i> / them
Inanimate (Distant)	সেটি/সেটা <i>seṭi/ seṭā</i> , it	সেগুলো/ <i>segulo</i> / those

Table 2: Objective Case: Bangla Personal Pronouns and their Use

C. The Possessive Case

The **Possessive Case** is used to show possession. Examples:

- Where is **your** coat?
- Let's go to **our** business house.

In addition, let us read the following Bangla sentences and English sentences side by side to see the contrast:

Bangla Sentences	English Sentences	Possessive Words
আমার একটি বই আছে	<i>I have</i> a book	আমার
আমার টাকা দরকার	<i>I need</i> money	আমার

The literal translation of the Bengali versions of these English sentences would be as follows:

- There is **my** book
- There is **my** need for money.

Personal Pronouns in Possessive Case		
Person	Singular	Plural
First	আমার / <i>āmār</i> / my	আমাদের / <i>āmāder</i> /, our
Second	তোর / <i>tor</i> /, your	তোদের / <i>toder</i> / your
Second	তোমার / <i>tomār</i> / your	তোমাদের / <i>tomāder</i> / your
Third Person Honorific	আপনার / <i>āpnār</i> / your	আপনাদের / <i>āpnāder</i> / your
Third Person	এর/ <i>er</i> / his/her	এদের/ <i>eder</i> /, their
Third Person Honorific	ঐর/ <i>ēr</i> / his/her)	ঐদের/ <i>ēder</i> /, their
Inanimate	এটির/এটার/ <i>eṭir</i> / <i>eṭār</i> / its	এগুলোর/ <i>egulor</i> / of these

Third Person	ওঁর/ <i>or/</i> his/her	ওঁদের/ <i>oder/</i> , their
Third Person Honorific	ওঁর/ <i>õr/</i> his/her	ওঁদের/ <i>õder/</i> their
Inanimate	ওঁটির/ওঁটার/ <i>oṭir/ /oṭār/</i> , its	ওঁগুলোর/ <i>ogulor/</i> of those
Third Person	তার/ <i>tar/</i> , his/her	তাদের/ <i>tader/</i> their
Third Person Honorific	তাঁর/ <i>tār/</i> his/her	তাঁদের/ <i>tāder/</i> , their)
Inanimate	সেঁটির/সেঁটার / <i>ṣeṭir/ /ṣeṭar/</i> , its	সেঁগুলোর / <i>ṣegulor/</i> , of those

Table 3: Possessive Case: Bangla Personal Pronouns and their Use

The paradigm of English **Personal Pronouns** is presented as Activity 1 in an integrated presentation in contrast to the above paradigm of Bangla language:

Activity 1

Complete the table of English Personal Pronouns taking help of the Answer box.

Person	Number	Gender	Case			
			Nom.	Obj.	Ist Possessive	2nd Possessive
First	Singular					
	Plural.					ours
Second						
Third	Singular	Massculine			his	
		Feminine				
		Neuter				
	Plural					

Nom.= Nominative Obj.= Objective

Answer Box

your; yours; hers; her; my; mine;ours;hers;its; theirs; they;them;their; I; we; you;you; he;she;it;its; him;our;us; me.

The indefinite **pronouns**(*someone, somebody etc.*) form their paradigms like **Proper Nouns**; they show only **Case** contrast. Example:

- someone
- someone's
- somebody
- somebody's

But no number contrast is possible. Unlike **Personal Pronouns**, but like **Proper Nouns**, they show contrast by taking on the suffix **-s** with parallel phonological shapes.

12.5 Contrastive Analysis Of Bangla Indefinite Pronouns

Unlike English language, Bangla has no negative pronouns such as "no one", "nothing" "none". These are typically represented by adding the negative particle না (*nā*) to indefinite pronouns, which are themselves derived from their corresponding question words. Common indefinite pronouns are listed below.

Question word	Indefinite Pronoun	Indefinite Negative Pronoun
কে/ke/, who	কেউ/keu/ someone	কেউ না/keu nā/ no one
কার/kār/ whose	কারো/kāro/ someone's	কারো না/kāro nā/ no one's
কারে/kāke/ to whom	কাউকে/kāuke/ to someone	কাউকে না/kāuke nā/ to no one
কোন/kon/ which	কোনো /kono/ any	কোনো না/kono nā/ none
কী/ki/ what	কিছু/kichu/ some/something	কিছু না/kichu nā/ nothing

Table 4: Application of Indefinite Pronoun in Bangla

Bangla Relative Pronouns: The relative **pronoun** যে(*je*) and its different variants, as shown below, are commonly employed in complex sentences. The relative pronouns for animate objects change for number and honor, but those for inanimate objects stay

the same:

Animate and Inanimate Relative Pronouns			
Person	Nominative (<i>who</i>)	Genitive (<i>whose</i>)	Objective (<i>to whom</i>)
Singular	যে (who)	যার (whose)	যাকে (whom)
Singular (Honorific)	যিনি (who)	যাঁর (whose)	যাঁকে (whom)
Plural	যারা (who)	যাদের (whose)	যাদের (whom)
Plural (Honorific)	যাঁরা (who)	যাঁদের (whose)	যাঁদের (whom)
Inanimate	যা (which/that)	যার (which/that)	যাতে (in which/what)

Table 5: Application of Animate and Inanimate Relative Pronoun in Bangla

12.6 Contrastive Study Of Bangla Case Of Nouns

Bangla Nouns are also inflected for each of the following CASE situations:

- i. **Nominative Case**
- ii. **Accusative Case**
- iii. **Genitive Case (Possessive Case and**
- iv. **Locative Case**

The Case marking pattern for each Noun being inflected depends on the noun's degree of animacy.

The **Accusative Case** cannot be inflected upon Nouns which are inanimate, and the **Locative Case** cannot be inflected upon nouns which are animate. When a definite article such as *-tā/* (তা, for singular Noun) or *-gulo/* (গুলো, for plural Noun) is added, Nouns are also inflected for number.

In formal contexts, especially in writing, the definite article *-tā/* is replaced by *-ti/* (তি). There is also an alternative way of using the plural definite article, *-gulo/*, by making it *-guli/* (গুলি). For animate nouns, *-gulo/-guli/* are often replaced by *-ra/*

(রা)।

Let us go through the following table (Table 6) for understanding the inflections of an animate Noun, ছাত্র /*chhātrô*/ (student), and an inanimate Noun, জুতা/*jutā*/ (shoe) in different Case situations:

Studying Inflections of Animate and Inanimate Bangla Nouns				
Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ছাত্রটি / ছাত্রটা <i>chhātrô-ṭi/chhātrô-ṭā</i> the student	ছাত্ররা <i>chhātrô-rā</i> the students	জুতাটি/জুতাটা <i>jutā-ṭi/jutā-ṭā</i> the shoe	জুতাগুলো <i>jutā-gulo</i> the shoes
Accusative	ছাত্রটিকে/ছাত্রটাকে <i>chhātrô-ṭi-ke/chhātrô-ṭā-ke</i> (to) the student	ছাত্রদেরকে <i>chhātrô-der-ke</i> (to) the students	Not Applicable	Not Applicable
Genitive	ছাত্রটির/ছাত্রটার <i>chhātrô-ṭi-r/chhātrô-ṭā-r</i> the student's	ছাত্রদের <i>Chhātrô-der</i> the students'	জুতাটির/জুতাটার <i>jutā-ṭi-r/jutā-ṭā-r</i> the shoe's	জুতাগুলোর <i>jutā-gulo-r</i> the shoes'
Locative	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	জুতাটিতে/জুতাটায় <i>jutā-ṭi-te/jutā-ṭā-y</i> on/in the shoe	জুতাগুলোতে <i>jutā-gulo-te</i> on/in the shoes

Table 6: Studying Inflections of Animate and Inanimate Bangla Noun Measure Words

When counted, nouns must also be accompanied by the appropriate measure word. As in many East Asian languages like Chinese, Japanese and Thai, Nouns in Bangla cannot be counted directly by adding the numeral directly adjacent to the Noun. Measure Word (MW) must be used in between the numeral and the Noun. Unlike English, Most **Bangla** Nouns take the generic measure word /*tā*/, although there are many more specific **measure words**, such as /*jon*/, which is only used to count human beings. Let us see the Table 7 below for understanding the Bangla Measure Words:

Bangla Measure Words	
Bangla Measure Words	English Translation
Նոյ-դ̄ā ghoṛi	Nine clocks
Քոյ-դ̄ā balish	How many pillows
Շոնեկ-յոն lok	Many people
Char-pañch-յոն shikkhōk	Four or five Teachers

Table 7. Bangla Measure Words in Application

12.7 Comparing Bangla Adjectives With English

Adjectives do not inflect for Case, Gender, or Number in Bangla and are placed before the Noun they modify.

Some adjectives form their opposites by **prefixing** **অ-** (before consonants) or **অন-** (before vowels): Examples:

➔ **Opposite of the word** **সম্ভব/ժոմբհոյ/**i.e. **“possible”** is **অসম্ভব/ժոմբհոյ/** **“impossible”**.

Demonstrative Adjectives English words *“this and that”* correspond to Bangla **এই** and **ওই** “respectively with the definite article attached to the following Noun. Their plural forms are *“these/those”* remain the same with the plurality denoted by the definite article or the classifier. Thus *this book* would translate to **“এই বইটি”** “while *those books* would translate to **“ওই বইগুলো”**।

Understanding Usage of Comparative and Superlative

Bangla adjectives form their comparative forms with **“আরও”**, “more”, and their superlative forms with **চেয়ে** /*shôbcheye*/, “than all”. Comparisons are formed by using Genitive form of the object of comparison, followed by the **postposition** **“মতো”** “than” or the **postposition** **আরও** like and then by **কম** “less”.

The word for “more” is optional, but the word for “less” is required, so in its absence “more” is inferred. Adjectives can be additionally modified by using **অনেক/** *ônek/* i.e. “much” or **অনেক বেশি** *ônek beshi* i.e. “much more” which are especially

useful for comparing quantities.

Usage of Bangla and English Degree Words		
Bangla Usage	Degree Word in Use	English Usage
সুভাষ রাহিমের চেয়ে লম্বা	চেয়ে লম্বা = taller than	Subhash is taller than Rahim
সুভাষ রাহিমের চেয়ে (আর)ও লম্বা	চেয়ে (আর)ও লম্বা = taller than	Subhash is taller than Rahim
সুভাষ রাহিমের চেয়ে কম লম্বা	Subhash of Rahim than less tall	Subhash is shorter than Rahim
সুভাষ রাহিমের মতো লম্বা	Subhash of Rahim like tall	Subhash is as tall as Rahim
সুভাষ রাহিমের অনেক লম্বা	Subhash of Rahim than much tall	Subhash is much taller than Rahim

Table 8.Usage of Comparative and Superlative Degree Words

12.8 Bangla Verbs In Application

Bangla **verbs** are highly inflected and are regular with only few exceptions. They consist of a stem and an ending; they are traditionally listed in Bangla dictionaries in Bangla “**verbal noun**” form, which is usually formed by adding *-ā* to the stem: for example (*kôrā*, = *to do*) is formed from the stem /ক/. The stem can end in either a vowel or a consonant.

Bangla Verbs are conjugated for tense and person by changing the endings, which are largely the same for all verbs. However, the stem vowel can often change as part of the phenomenon known as “**vowel harmony**”, whereby one vowel can be influenced by other vowels in the word to sound more harmonious.

/lekh/ → *lekho* = *you all write*

but also */likhi/* = *we write*

Copula: Bangla language is considered a **zero copula** language in some aspects. In the simple present tense there is no verb connecting the subject to the predicative (the “zero verb” copula). There is one notable exception, however, which is when the predicative takes on the existential, locative, or possessive aspects; for such purposes,

the incomplete verb *আছ/āch/* is used, which is conjugated according to the rules given below. Where as the verb *আছ/howā/* means “to be”, the verb *আছ* can be roughly translated as “to exist” or “to be present”

In the past tense, the incomplete verb *আছ* is always used as the copula, regardless of the nature of the predicative.

→ For the future tense and non-finite structures, the copula is supplied by the verb */howā/*, with the exceptions being the possessive and locative predicatives for which the verb *থাকা (thākā, “to remain”)* is utilized.

→ **Possession:** Bangla does not have a verb for possession i.e. “to have”, “to own”. Instead of the sentence “*You have a book*”, possession in Bangla is expressed by the verb *থাকা* (for present and past tenses) and the verb *থাকা* (for future tense) inflected with the possessed object (“*book*”) and a possessive (genitive) case for the possessor i.e.

→ তুমি → তোমার → you → your.

For example: তোমার একটা বই আছে (“*You have a book*”; Literally: = “*Your one book exists*”).

Negation: There are four sentence negators employed in Bangla:

Existential sentences that use the verb are negated with */nei/*, which does not need to be conjugated. All other verbs (with the exceptions of the ones listed above) are negated using the universal negative particle */nā/*, which can also refer to “no” in yes-no questions. The negative is typically placed after the finite verb (see examples below), but can also be placed at the end of the sentence, which negates the whole sentence. The negative can be used in all tenses except two: the present perfect and the past perfect. Verbs in the present perfect and the past perfect tenses are negated using the suffix - (*ni*) attached to the simple present verb form; this naturally means that in negative sentences the distinction between the two tenses is lost, since they both use the same verb form.

Activity 2		
Fill in the blanks using Negative Verbs in Bangla taking help from the English translation. The first one is done for you.		
Negating verbs		
Bangla	English	Explanation
আমি সুখী নই	I am not happy	Incomplete negator ন- conjugated for first-person
	We don't have a car	
	I don't work	
	I didn't help him	

Personal Pronouns (See Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 11 for details)

Bangla verbs are inflected for **person** and **honour**, but not for **number**. There are five forms: first person, second person (very familiar), second person (familiar), third person (familiar), and second/third person (polite). The same sample subject pronouns will be used for all the example conjugation paradigms: /ami/ আমি), /tui/, /tumi/ /she/ and /apni/. These Personal Pronouns have the following plurals respectively: /āmrā/, torā , tomrā, tārā and āpnārā/

Application of Mood

There are two **moods** for Bangla verbs:

→ The **Indicative Mood**: The indicative mood is used for statements of fact; its various tenses are given **Paper 6 Module 3 Unit 11**.

→ The **Imperative Mood**: The imperative mood is used to give commands. Just as in other Indo-Aryan languages, the imperative form of a verb differs on the basis of honorifics. The three sets of second-person pronouns - (VF), (F), H) - combined with slight modifications to the stem of any verb form the imperatives for that verb; these are described in the table below. Note that the plural command forms change the Pronoun but not the verb ending.

Application of Imperative Mood			
Verb	Very Familiar	Familiar	Honorific
/bɔlā/	tui bɔl	tumi bɔlo	āpni bɔlun
/kholā/	tui khol	tumi kholo	āpni khulun
/khæ̃lā/	tui khæ̃l	tumi khæ̃lo	āpni khelun
/chenā/	tui chen	tumi cheno	āpni chinun
/jānā/	tui jān	tumi jāno	āpni jānun
/hɔoā/	tui hɔ	tumi hɔo	āpni hɔn
/deoā/	tui de	tumi dāo	āpni din

Table 9: Bangla Verbs in Application

For non-causative verbs the verbal infinitive and perfect participle forms require stem transformations according to the principles of vowel harmony. Causative verbs only require stem transformations for forming their perfect participles. The verbal noun can act like a regular noun, and can therefore take case endings and classifier particles; additionally it can also function as an adjective. Both the verbal noun and the verbal infinitive are often used in constructions where the infinitive is needed.

Impersonal Structures

Many common sentence constructions, such as those involving obligation, need, and possibility (“*I have to*”, “*We must*”, “*He is supposed to*”, etc.) are built in Bangla without using nominative subjects; instead, the subject is omitted or often, used in the genitive case. These are typically constructed using the verbal noun (or the verbal infinitive in some cases) along with other nouns or verbs.

- i. Obligation is expressed using the verbal infinitive and a third-person form of খাওয়া (in any tense, but present tense also uses the future tense conjugation), with the subject in the objective case. For example আম খেতে হবে (“*I have to eat a mango*”; is the future tense conjugation for “খাওয়া” (Khaoya).
- ii. Need is expressed by using the verbal noun with the noun দরকার (*dôrkar*, need), and the subject in the genitive. For example: কথা বল দরকার (“*I need to talk*”).

→ Passive Structure

Any active verb can be turned into a passive one by attaching the auxiliary to the verbal noun aspect of the verb in question. Only this suffix is conjugated, using the third-person endings for the various tenses. For example: “to eat” is খা so “to be eaten” becomes in the future tense, “will be eaten” would be হবে, where the third-person conjugation for future tense.

Causative Function

Most verbs (not all verbs have causative forms) can be made causative by adding the suffix ন/to it. For example: “to do” is কর which takes the -ন suffix to become করান না or “to cause to do”. The stem of such a causative verb - to be used when conjugating it - is thus the verbal noun form of the base verb (কর)in the case of করান না, However, such stems do not undergo any vowel transformations when conjugating for tenses.

Tense Structure

Bengali has four simple tenses: the present tense, the past tense, the conditional or habitual past tense, and the future tense. These combine with mood and aspect to form more complex conjugations: the perfect tenses, for example, are formed by combining the perfect participles with the corresponding tense endings.

Aspect Function

There are three aspects for Bangla verbs: simple aspect, the progressive/continuous aspect, and the perfect. The progressive aspect is denoted by adding prefix the regular tense endings with ছ (for stems ending with consonants) or ছি (for stems ending with vowels), while the perfect aspect requires the use of the perfect participle. These are combined with the different tenses described below to form the various verbal conjugations.

Simple Present Tense

The present tense in Bangla is similar to that of English: I eat, you run, he reads. The endings are -i, -chis, -o, -e, and -(e)n, and only the 1st-person and the VF forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony. (A type of assimilation, where a vowel shares certain features with contrastive vowels elsewhere in a word. For example a Front vowel in the first syllable would require the presence of a Front vowel in the second syllable)

Present Progressive Tense

The present progressive tense is also similar to that of English: I am eating, you are running, he is reading, etc. This tense is formed by combining the progressive aspect suffix (ছি/ছি) with the present tense endings; we thus get -chhi, -chhish, -chho, -chhe and -chhen, and all forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony.

See the following table for details.

Integrated Activity 3

As you go through Table 10 compare Bangla forms with English translation in the boxes provided and study the differences:

Studying the differences between Bangla and English Tense Structure					
Bangla Verb	Present	Present Progressive	Present Perfect Familiar	Familiar 3 rd Person	Honorific 3 rd Person
<i>bolā</i>	<i>āmi bolchhi</i>	<i>tui bolchish</i>	<i>tumi bolchho</i>	<i>se bolchhe</i>	<i>āpni bolchhen</i>
tell	I tell	You are telling	You have told	He/ She is telling	You are telling
<i>kholā</i>	<i>āmi khulchhi</i>	<i>tui khulchhish</i>	<i>tumi khulchho</i>	<i>se khulchhe</i>	<i>āpni khulchhen</i>
open	I open	You are opening	You have opened	He/She is opening	You are opening
<i>khēlā</i>	<i>āmi khelchhi</i>	<i>tui khelchhish</i>	<i>tumi khelchho</i>	<i>se khelchhe</i>	<i>āpni khelchhen</i>
play	I play	You are playing	You have played	He/She is playing	You are playing
<i>chenā</i>	<i>āmi chinchhi</i>	<i>tui chinchhish</i>	<i>tumi chinchho</i>	<i>se chinchhe</i>	<i>āpni chinchhen</i>
know	I know	You are knowing	You have known	He/she is knowing	You are knowing
<i>jānā</i>	<i>āmi jānchhi</i>	<i>tui jānchhish</i>	<i>tumi jānchho</i>	<i>se jānchhe</i>	<i>āpni jānchhen</i>
<i>understand</i>	<i>I understand</i>	<i>You understand</i>	<i>You have understood</i>	<i>He/Sheis understanding</i>	<i>You are understanding</i>

<i>hɔoā</i>	<i>ami hochhi</i>	<i>tui hochhish</i>	<i>tumi hochho</i>	<i>se hochhe</i>	<i>āpni hochhen</i>
become	I become	You are becoming	You have become	He/She is becoming	You are becoming
<i>dhoā</i>	<i>āmi dhuchhi</i>	<i>tui dhuchhish</i>	<i>tumi dhuchho</i>	<i>se dhuchhe</i>	<i>āpni dhuchhen</i>
wash	I wash	You are washing	You have washed	He/She is washing	You are washing
<i>khāoā</i>	<i>āmi khāchhi</i>	<i>tui khāchhish</i>	<i>tumi khāchho</i>	<i>se khāchhe</i>	<i>āpni khāchhen</i>
eat	I eat	You are eating	You have eaten	He/She is eating	You are eating
<i>deoā</i>	<i>āmi dīchhi</i>	<i>tui dīchhish</i>	<i>tumi dīchho</i>	<i>se dīchhe</i>	<i>āpni dīchhen</i>
give	I give	You are giving	You have given	He/She is giving	You are giving

Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense is used to relate events that happened fairly recently, or even past events whose effects are still felt in the present. It is formed by adding the present progressive tense suffixes (see above) with the perfect participle of the verb.

Integrated Activity 4

As you go through Table 11 compare Bangla forms with English translation in the boxes provided and study the differences.

Application of Bangla Verbs in Present Perfect Tense						
Bangla/ English Verb	English Main Verb	First Person	Second Person (Very Familiar)	Second Person (Familiar)	Third Person (Familiar)	Second/ Third Person (Honorific)
<i>bola</i>	say/tell	<i>āmi bolechhi</i>	<i>tui bolechhish</i>	<i>tumi bolechho</i>	<i>she bolechhe</i>	<i>āpni bolechhen</i>
say/tell	say/tell	I have said/told	You have said/told	You have said/told	She/he has said/told	You have said/told
<i>kholā</i>	Open	<i>āmi khulechhi</i>	<i>tui khulechhish</i>	<i>tumi khulechho</i>	<i>fe khulechhe</i>	<i>āpni khulechhen</i>
open	Open	I have opened	You have opened	You have opened	She/he has opened	You have opened
<i>khēla</i>	Play	<i>āmi khelechhi</i>	<i>tui khelechhish</i>	<i>tumi khelechho</i>	<i>fe khelechhe</i>	<i>āpni khelechhen</i>
play	Play	I have played	You have played	You have played	She/e/ has played	You have played
<i>chenā</i>	Recognize	<i>āmi chinechhi</i>	<i>tui chinechhish</i>	<i>tumi chinechho</i>	<i>fe chinechhe</i>	<i>āpni chinechhen</i>
Know/ recognize	Know/ Recognize	I have known/ recognized	You have known/ recognized	You have known/ recognized	She/He known/ recognized	You have known/ recognized
<i>jānā</i>	know/ understand	<i>āmi jenechhi</i>	<i>tui jenechhish</i>	<i>tumi jenechho</i>	<i>fe jenechhe</i>	<i>āpni jenechhen</i>

Know/ understand	know/under stand	I have known/ recognized	You have known/reco gnized	You have known/reco gnized	She/He has known/reco gnized	You have known/reco gnized
<i>hɔoā</i>	become	<i>āmi hoyechhi</i>	<i>tui hoyechhish</i>	<i>tumi hoyechho</i>	<i>ʃe hoyechhe</i>	<i>āpni hoyechhen</i>
become	become	I have become	You have become	You have become	She/He has become	You have become
<i>dhoā</i>	wash	<i>āmi dhuechhi</i>	<i>tui dhuechhish</i>	<i>tumi dhuechho</i>	<i>ʃe dhuechhe</i>	<i>āpni dhuechhen</i>
wash	wash	I have washed	You have washed	You have washed	She/He has washed	You have washed
<i>khāoā</i>	eat	<i>āmi kheyechhi</i>	<i>tui kheyechhish</i>	<i>tumi kheyechho</i>	<i>ʃe kheyechhe</i>	<i>āpni kheyechhen</i>
eat	eat	I have eaten	You have eaten	You have eaten	She/He has eaten	You have eaten
<i>deoā</i>	give	<i>āmi diyechhi</i>	<i>tui diyechhish</i>	<i>tumi diyechho</i>	<i>ʃe diyechhe</i>	<i>āpni diyechhen</i>
<i>give</i>	give	<i>I have given</i>	<i>You have given</i>	<i>You have given</i>	<i>She/He has given</i>	<i>You have given</i>

Table 11: Bangla Present Perfect Verbs in Application

Bangla Simple Past Tense

The (simple) past tense differs from its use in English in that it is usually reserved for events that have occurred recently; for instance, less than a day ago. It would be translated into the English simple past tense: I ate, you ran, he read. The endings are -*lam*, -*li*, -*le*, -*lo*, -*len* (notice that the vowels for the second and third [familiar] persons

are the reverse of those in the present tense), and all forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony. For example: *ami dekhlam, tui dekhli, tumi dekhle, se dekhlo, apni dekhlen*. In Eastern varieties of Bangla, “a” is substituted for “e” in second-person familiar forms; thus *tumi bolle, khulle, khelle* etc.

Integrated Activity 5

As you go through Table 12 provide English translation in the blank boxes provided and study the differences:

Application of Bangla Simple Past Verbs in Present Perfect Tense							
Bangla Verb	English Verb	First Person	Second Person (Very Familiar)	Second Person (Familiar)	Third Person (Familiar)	Second/Third Person (Honorific)	Second/Third Person (Honorific)
<i>bolā</i>	say	<i>āmi bollām</i>	<i>tui bolli</i>	<i>tumi bolle</i>	<i>se bollo</i>	<i>āpni bollen</i>	<i>tini bollen</i>
<i>khola</i>	open	<i>āmi khullām</i>	<i>tui khulli</i>	<i>tumi khulle</i>	<i>se khullo</i>	<i>āpni khullen</i>	<i>tini khullen</i>
<i>khēla</i>	play	<i>āmi khellām</i>	<i>tui khelli</i>	<i>tumi khelle</i>	<i>se khello</i>	<i>āpni khellen</i>	<i>tini khellen</i>
<i>chenā</i>	recognize	<i>āmi chinlām</i>	<i>tui chinli</i>	<i>tumi chinle</i>	<i>se chinlo</i>	<i>āpni chinlen</i>	<i>tini chinlen</i>
<i>jānā</i>	know	<i>āmi jānlām</i>	<i>tui jānli</i>	<i>tumi jānle</i>	<i>se jānlo</i>	<i>āpni jānlen</i>	<i>tini jānlen</i>

<i>hɔoā</i>	become	<i>āmi holām</i>	<i>tui holi</i>	<i>tumi hole</i>	<i>fe holo</i>	<i>āpni holen</i>	<i>tini holen</i>
<i>dhōā</i>	wash	<i>āmi dhulām</i>	<i>tui dhuli</i>	<i>tumi dhule</i>	<i>fe dhulo</i>	<i>āpni dhulen</i>	<i>tini dhulen</i>
<i>khōā</i>	eat	<i>āmi khelām</i>	<i>tui kheli</i>	<i>tumi khele</i>	<i>fe khelo</i>	<i>āpni khelen</i>	<i>tini khelen</i>
<i>deoā</i>	give	<i>āmi dilām</i>	<i>tui dili</i>	<i>tumi dile</i>	<i>fe dilo</i>	<i>āpni dilen</i>	<i>tini dilen</i>

Table 12 Bangla Simple Past Tense Verb in Application

Bangla Habitual Past Tense

The habitual past tense has a few different uses. It is used for events that happened regularly, such as “I used to eat out every day” or “He wrote poems when he was young”, the equivalent of an imperfect. It may also be used as a sort of conditional, such as the following: “If you asked I **would come**” or “If you had asked I **would have come**”. It is easy to form the habitual past tense: simply start with the simple past tense and change the *l* to *t* (except in the *tui* form). The endings are *-tam*, *-tish*, *-te*, *-to*, *-ten*, and all forms require stem transformations for vowel harmony. For example: *ami dekhtam*, *tui dekhtish*, *tumi dekhte*, *she dekhto*, *apni dekhten*. In less standard varieties of Bengali, “a” is substituted for “e” in second-person familiar forms; thus *tumi bolte*, *khulte*, *khelte* etc.

Bangla Verbs in Habitual Past Tense Application						
Bangla & English Verb	1st Person	2nd Person (Familiar)	2nd Person (Honour)	3rd Person (Familiar)	2nd Person (Honour)	3rd Person (Honor)
<i>bolā</i> say	<i>āmi boltām</i>	<i>tui boltish</i>	<i>tumi bolte</i>	<i>fe bolto</i>	<i>āpni bolten</i>	<i>tini uni bolten</i>
<i>khælā</i> play	<i>āmi kheltām</i>	<i>tui kheltish</i>	<i>tumi khelte</i>	<i>fe khelto</i>	<i>āpni khelten</i>	<i>Tini/uni khelten</i>
<i>chenā</i> recognize	<i>āmi chintām</i>	<i>tui chintish</i>	<i>tumi chinte</i>	<i>fe chinto</i>	<i>āpni chinten</i>	<i>Tini/uni chinten</i>
<i>jānā</i> know	<i>āmi jāntām</i>	<i>tui jāntish</i>	<i>tumi jānte</i>	<i>fe jānto</i>	<i>āpni jānten</i>	<i>Tini/uni jānten</i>
<i>hɔā</i> become	<i>āmi hotām</i>	<i>tui hotish</i>	<i>tumi hote</i>	<i>fe hoto</i>	<i>āpni hoten</i>	<i>Tini/uni hoten</i>
<i>dhoā</i> wash	<i>āmi dhutām</i>	<i>tui dhutish</i>	<i>tumi dhute</i>	<i>fe dhuto</i>	<i>āpni dhuten</i>	<i>Tini/uni dhuten</i>
<i>Khāoā</i> Eat	<i>āmi khetām</i>	<i>tui kheltish</i>	<i>tumi khete</i>	<i>fe kheto</i>	<i>āpni kheten</i>	<i>Tini/uni kheten</i>
<i>Deoā</i> give	<i>āmi dītām</i>	<i>tui dītish</i>	<i>tumi dīte</i>	<i>fe dīto</i>	<i>āpni dīten</i>	<i>Tini/uni dīten</i>

Table 13: Bangla Habitual Past Tense Verbs in Application

Application of Bangla Future Tense³

Quite contrary to English, there are special vocabulary in Bangla that points to Future application. For example there is not a single word in English that serves the purpose of using it in future reference. In English we have to depend on Modal Auxiliaries and even Present Tense Verb with Adverbials implying future happening. In less standard varieties of Bangla, “a” is substituted for “e” in second-person familiar forms; thus

Examples:

→ /*tumi bolbe, khulbe, khelbe*/.

→ The endings are *-bo, -bi, -be, -ben*; the

→ তুমি and সে conjugations are identical in this tense, and

→ All forms require stem transformations⁴ **Stem transformation of verb** is not required in English language when we need to express any thing with reference to any time in future. Example: I am to visit UGC office in Delhi for an urgent meeting tomorrow.

Bangla & English Verb	1 st Person	2 nd Person (Familiar)	2 nd Person (Honour)	3 rd Person (Familiar)	2 nd Person (Honour)	3 rd Person (Honour)
<i>jānā</i> know	<i>āmi jānbo</i>	<i>tui jānbi</i>	<i>tumi jānbe</i>	<i>she jānbe</i>	<i>āpni jānben</i>	<i>Tini/uni jānben</i>
<i>hōoa</i> become	<i>āmi hōbo</i>	<i>tui hōbi</i>	<i>tumi hōbe</i>	<i>je hōbe</i>	<i>āpni hōben</i>	<i>Tini/uni hōben</i>
<i>dhoā</i> wash	<i>āmi dhubo</i>	<i>tui dhubi</i>	<i>tumi dhube</i>	<i>je dhube</i>	<i>āpni dhuben</i>	<i>Tini/uni dhuben</i>
<i>khāoā</i> eat	<i>āmi khābo</i>	<i>tui khābi</i>	<i>tumi khābe</i>	<i>je khābe</i>	<i>āpni khāben</i>	<i>Tini/uni khāben</i>
<i>deoā</i> give	<i>āmi dībo</i>	<i>tui dībi</i>	<i>tumi dībe</i>	<i>je dībe</i>	<i>āpni dīben</i>	<i>Tini/uni dīben</i>

Table 14: Bangla Future Tense Verbs in Application

English Prepositions and Bangla Postpositions

Whereas English language features *prepositions*, Bangla typically uses *postpositions*. In other words these modifying words occur **before** their object in English.

Examples:

inside the house

→ For his occupation

On the other hand these modifiers typically occur **after** their object in **Bangla**.

→ **Examples**

→ *baṛir bhitore*

→ *or pashe*

Some **Bangla Postpositions** require their object Noun to take the *Possessive Case*, while others require the *Objective Case* (which is unmarked for inanimate Nouns). This distinction must be taken into account. Most **Bangla postpositions** are formed by taking Nouns referring to a location and inflecting them for *Locative Case*. They can also be applied to verbal nouns also as exemplified below:

Bangla Postpositions that require Genitive (Possessive) Case

Bangla Postposition	English Word	Bangla Usage	English Usage
আগ /aage /	before	/shôkal-er age	'before the morning'
পর/pôre/	after	/shondha-r pore/	'after the evening'
/upore/	on top of, above	/bichhana-r upore/	'on top of the bed'
/niche/	below under	/boi-er niche/	'under the book'
/pichhone/	behind	/almari-r pichhone/	'behind the cupboard'
/shamne/	in front of	/gaṛi-r shamne/	'in front of the car'
/oi pare/	across	/nodi-r oi pare/	'across the river'
/kachhe/	near	/janala-r kachhe/	'near the window'
/pashe/	beside	/chula-r pashe/	'beside the stove'
/jonno/	for	/shikkhôk-er jonno/	'for the teacher'
/shôngge/	with	/am-ar shôngge/	'with me'

Bangla Postpositions that require Accusative (objective) case

Bangla Postposition	English Word	Bangla Usage	English Translation
/kore/	'by means of':	/têksi kore/	'by taxi'
/chhara/	'without'; 'aside from':	/ama-ke chhara/	'without me'
/theke /	from' (places):	/Bangaluru theke /	from Bangaluru'
/diye /	'by':	/ta-ke diye/	'by him'
/Niye/	'about' (animate), 'with' (animate)	/toma-ke niye/	'about/with you'
/porjonto/	'until':	/dôshṭa porjonto/	'until ten o' clock'
সহ /shôho/	'with'; 'including':	/taka shôho/	'along with the money'
/hoe/	'via':	/Kolkata hoe Delhi/	'to Delhi via Kolkata'

Bangla Postpositions that require Nominative Case

Bangla Postposition	English Word	Bangla Usage	English Translation
/dhore/ = for (time):		/dudin dhore/	' <i>continuing</i> for two days'
/niye/= 'about' (inanimate); 'with' (inanimate):		/niye/	'about/with it'

BanglaPrepositions that require locative case

Bangla Postposition	English Word	Bangla Usage	English Translation
/bina/	'without':	/bina onumoti-te /	'without permission'

At the outset we need to know that Bangla language unlike English language⁵ has **two** distinct **forms**:

সাধুবাদ (*shadhu bhasha*): An **elevated old Written Variety** of Bangla that was practiced for Bangla Literature from the Fourteenth century till the first half of the twentieth century. Sadhubhasha is generally considered as “outdated” and is no longer used neither in writing nor in normal conversation.

Sample Text

বাহুবল কাহাকে বলি, এবং বাক্যবল কাহাকে বলি। তাহা প্রথমেই বুঝাইব। এবং দুই বলের প্রভেদও তারতম্য দেখাইব। (//bahubal kahake bali ebong bakyabal kahake bali taha prathame bujhaiba// Ebong dui baler praved o taratamy dekhaiba//

English Translation: I shall explain what is muscle power and what is oral power (power of speech) and then I shall make you understand the difference in between the two.

1. Ref: বঙ্কিমচন্দ্র চট্টোপাধ্যায়: বাহুবল ও বাক্যবল (*cholito bhasha*): A new **Spoken and Written Variety** of Bangla that is practiced for Bangla Literature and Journalism since the Nineteenth century to date.

Sample Text

পাড়ার প্রান্তে একটি বড়ো পুষ্করিণী। (//parar prante akti boro puskarini//)

English Translation

There is a big pond at the outskirts of a para (part of a village)

তার নাম পদ্মপুকুর(//tar nam Padmapukur//)

English Translation

This is called Padmapukur.

Ref: রবীন্দ্রনাথ ঠাকুর : সহজপাঠ (দ্বিতীয় ভাগ)

It is important to note that the Bangla Morphology discussed below applies fully only to the চলিত (*cholit*) form. Although Bangla is typically written in the Bangla script, a Romanization scheme is used in this unit to suggest the pronunciation.

12.9 Summing Up

The study of the **morphology** and syntax of Bangla is also carried seriously in Higher Education in the Indian subcontinent. Bangla Verbs are conjugated for tense and person by changing the endings, which are largely the same for all verbs. The inanimate pronouns remain the same in the Objective Case. The **Accusative Case** cannot be inflected upon Nouns which are inanimate. The stem can end in either a vowel or a consonant. In Eastern varieties of Bengali, “e” is substituted for “a” in second-person familiar forms; thus *tumi bolle, khulle, khelle* etc. In English we have to depend on Modal Auxiliaries and even Present Tense Verb with Adverbials implying future happening.⁵ The negative is typically placed after the finite verb can also be placed at the end of the sentence, that negates the whole sentence. The habitual past tense has a few different uses. It is used for events that happened regularly, such as *Likhbo pabo*. The comparison between English and Bangla Morphology will lead to successful implementation of ELT in classroom situation where the medium of classroom is Bangla or close to Bangla.

12.10 Review Questions

1. Critically evaluate the efficacy of Contrastive Approach (CA) in English teaching.
2. How GT Method can be used in teaching English Grammar to school students?
3. Make a full proof Lesson Plan and add comments with reference to with GT feasibility for teaching the first generation of English learners.
4. Execute a Lesson Plan applying Contrastive Approach for teaching English Grammar to students whose Mother Tongue is Bangla.

5. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 16 -18 Age group. Discuss application of English Personal Pronouns in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 (Mother Tongue).
6. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 13-15 Age group. Discuss application of English Generative Case in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 (Mother Tongue).
7. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 15-17 Age group. Discuss application of English Nominative Case in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 (Mother Tongue).
8. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 15-19 Age group. Discuss application of English Verbs in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 (Mother Tongue).
9. Suppose you are teaching a group of Bengali/Hindi Medium School children of 13-15 Age group. Discuss application of English Preposition in contrast to whatever they already know with reference to their respective L-1 Postpositions.
10. Draft a Lesson Plan using G T Method and show its effectiveness in contrast to Direct Method for teaching English Grammar to High School students whose L-1 is Bangla.
11. Study the following situation and conduct an Action Research for each of them:
 - a. Students with **Exposure to English Speech Sounds**
 - b. Students with **Exposure to English Grammar Rules**
 - c. Students with **less Practice in English Grammar Rule**

12.11 References and Reading List

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End notes

- 1 Popularly known as GT Method that was used for teaching English throughout the 18th and the 19th century across the globe.
- 2 English language has universal form “you” /ju/ for second person Nominative case and “thee” and “thou” are poetic words for the same.
3. English language has application of “he/she” with reference to third person nominative case.
4. Stem transformation of near in not required in English Language when we need to express anything with reference to any time in future. e.g., I am to visit there for an urfent meeting tomorrow.

MODULE - 4 : MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

Unit 13 □ Morphological Analysis 1

- 13.1 Introduction**
- 13.2 Objectives**
- 13.3 Identification of Morphemes**
- 13.4 Free Morpheme and Bound Morpheme**
- 13.5 Morphological Analysis**
- 13.6 Inflection**
- 13.7 Interface with Phonology**
- 13.8 Summary**
- 13.9 Review Questions**
- 13.10 Reading List**

13.1 Introduction

From the previous units we learnt that Morphology is the study of forms. This sub-discipline of Linguistics studies the internal structure of words, where the domains are word formation and inflection. The morphological structure of word plays an important role in determining its phonetic form, syntactic properties and its meaning. This unit is designed on practice activities of morphological structures.

13.2 Objectives

After working on the unit you will be able to:

- Revise on word formation and inflection,
- Understand the morphological interfaces,
- Know how new complex words derive their meanings,
- Learn on identification of morphemes from different languages.

13.3 Identification of Morphemes

Morphemes are language specific units larger than phonemes and syllables. For identifying morphemes, there are few strategies. These strategies are Segmentation of words into minimal sound-meaning constituents. This strategy is comparing and contrasting forms that are partially similar in sound and meaning and associating shared sound with shared meaning. This procedure can be continued until the forms

are unbreakable into smaller sound-meaning units. For example, segmentation of **reconsideration** into its constituent morphemes by comparing, contrasting and isolating the morphemes.

→ comparing → contrasting → isolating
Step 1. Reconsideration → **re**-consideration
Step 2. Consideration → **consider-ation**

Re-consider-ation
↓ ↓ ↓
prefix+root+suffix

Let us take some more examples:

a) Preferences

→ comparing → contrasting → isolating

Step 1: preferences: preference-s

Step 2: preference: prefer-**ence**

Prefer-**ence**-s
↓ ↓ ↓
root+ suffix + suffix

b) Segmenting **repayment** into its constituent morphemes:

Step 1: repayment : payment → **re**- payment

Step 2. payment : pay → pay-**ment**

re- pay-ment
↓ ↓ ↓
prefix+root+suffix

c) Segmenting **intrusion** into its constituent morphemes:

→ comparing → contrasting → isolating

1. intrusion : intrusion → **intru**-sion

intru-sion
↓ ↓
root+suffix

Task 1: Segment the following words into their constituent morphemes.

Clue: Consult a Dictionary (Oxford Advance Learners).

i) Inconsistent

- ii) Autonomous
- iii) Generalized
- iv) merchantable
- v) provocation

Your answer:

Task 2: Analyse the meanings of the constituent morphemes from the following words.

- a. Proximity: proxim-ity
- b. Rediscover: re-dis-cover
- c. Subcontractor: Sub-contract-or
- d. Unintentional: un-inten-tion-al
- e. Naturally: natur-al-ly

Your answer:

13.4 Free Morpheme and Bound Morpheme

We have learnt on Free and Bound morphemes in the earlier units. In segmenting a word into its constituent morphemes, some morphemes are not breakable. While some other morphemes can be segmented. Compare: -sist in consist

re- in rewrite

-er in writer

Some root morphemes never occur alone. In modern English, morphemes such as -ceive, -mit, -fer have lost their independent meaning and their meaning is derived from the word in which they occur. For example the following words with the above morphemes:

- receive, conceive, perceive
- permit, remit, omit, commit, transmit, admit
- refer, confer, prefer, defer, transfer

These are forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonemic form. Thus they are all representations a single morpheme.

Root morphemes (which are not segmented further) never occur alone and have no independent lexical meaning. These are called bound morphemes.

Task 3: List the morphemes in each word below, and state whether each morpheme is free (F) or bound (B). First one is worked out for you.

1. Creating Create(F) -ing (B)	2. unhealthy 6. reconsider 9. modernize	3. seaward 7. Poetic 10. incompletion	4. waiter 8. keys	5. wastage
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Your answer:

2. unhealthy Un- (B) health (F) -y (B)	3. seaward sea (F) ward (B)	4. waiter wait (F) -er (B)-age (B)	5. wastage waste (F)	6. reconsider re- (B) consider (F)
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7. poetic poet(F) -ic (B)	8. keys key(F) -s (B)	9. modernize modern (F) -ize (B)	10. incompletion in- (B) complete (F) -ion (B)
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Task 4: Write the definition of Free morpheme.

Your answer:

13.5 Morphological Analysis

Now let us try to understand the concept ‘morphological analysis’ by examining a data on Swahili.

Swahili is a Bantu language which is spoken primarily in East Africa. There are approximately 800,000 native speakers of Swahili, and some 30,000,000 people worldwide speak Swahili as a second language.

Task 5: From the following data sets¹ in Swahili, identify the strings of sounds which correspond to the morphemes.

anapenda ‘he likes’	alimua ‘he killed him’
alimona ‘he saw him’	alikupenda ‘he liked you’
atapenda ‘he will like’	ananitazama ‘he looks at me’
alimsaidia ‘he helped him’	alimpenda ‘he liked him’
alipenda ‘he liked’	atakusikia ‘he will hear you’
alimpiga ‘he hit him’	alitupenda ‘he liked us’
amependa ‘he has liked’	alitupanya ‘he cured us’

alimchukua 'he carried him'	aliwapenda 'he liked them'
alinipenda 'he liked me'	ninakupenda 'I like you'
nitampenda 'I will like him'	nitawapenda 'I will like them'

Your answer:

The words anapenda 'he likes' and alitupenda 'he liked us', have the common structure 'penda'. Therefore 'penda' signifies 'to like'.

Task 6: Identify the following morphemes from the above paradigm. The tense markers are given.

Pronouns	Tenses	Verbs
he:	[present]: na	see:
me:	[future]: ta	help:
you:	[past]: li	hit:
him:	[past part.]: me	carry:
us:		kill:
them:		look:
I:		hear:
cure:		
like:		

Your answer:

Pronouns	Tenses	Verbs
he: a	[present]: na	see: ona
me: ni	[future]: ta	help: saidia
you: ku	[past]: li	hit: piga
him: m	[past part.]: me	carry: chukua
us: tu		kill: ua
them: wa		look: tazama
I: ni		hear: sikia
cure: panya		
like: penda		

Task 7: Translate the following Swahili sentences into English.

- a) amenipiga
- b) anatusaidia

c) nitakutazama

Your answer:

He has hit me. amenipiga

He helps us. anatusaidia

I will look at you. nitakutazama

13.6 Inflection

The process of changing the form of a word to include information on number, person, case, gender, tense, mood or aspect is called inflection. Inflection does not change word category. For example, Plural forms in English are marked with ‘-s’, as in; cat/cats, chair/chairs, train/trains. The word category is unchanged in the examples. There are quite a few exceptions to this simple rule. In these groups, the plural is formed in different ways as in; box/ boxes, ox/oxen, wolf/wolves. There are few irregular forms in English as in; information/information, foot/feet, sheep/sheep, child/children.

Task 8: Find the plural morphemes in Assamese from the following paradigm data².

Number: Assamese has two grammatical numbers: singular and plural. The singular number is unmarked and plural number is marked by two plural morphemes -bur and bilâk. The difference between singular and plural number in Assamese is shown below.

Singular and Plural number in Assamese

Root	Singular	Plural
lorâ ‘boy’	lorâ ‘boy’	lorâ-bur/bilâk ‘boys’
âm ‘mango’	âm ‘mango’	âm-bur/bilâk ‘mangoes’
kitâp ‘book’	kitâp ‘book’	kitâp-bur/bilâk ‘books’
mâs ‘fish’	mâs ‘fish’	mâs-bur/bilâk ‘fishes’

Your answer:

Task 9: Can you state similar plural markers from your native language?

Your answer:

13.7 Interface with phonology

Words can be characterized as phonological units. That is a word which is a formed out of morpheme(s) consists of a combination of phonemes. These phonetic

shapes of the morphological structures have an important role in morphological analysis. There is phonological conditioning in the morpheme structures. Phonemes do not have any meaning of their own. When they occur in combination to form morphemes, they give rise to meanings. The morphological structure also can influence the phonetic shape of complex words. There is thus an interface where the two sub-domains of Linguistics meet and interact with each other. Let us take a few examples.

Examine the phonological structures of the following words: Nonessential, undecided, impractical, inexistent, illogical, illiterate, and irrespective. All these words have prefixes signifying not or opposite. Words logical and literate, the prefix ir- or im- is not applicable, showing that there is assimilation with the prefix final consonant and the root initial consonant. This is also evident in the morphemes of ‘irrespective’. Again in impractical /m/ and /p/ are both bilabial sounds, showing a similarity in the sound features. Thus the negation prefix has more than one form because different word initial phonemes occur with certain phonemes.

The words revisit, replay, rejoice, contains the prefix re- which signifies again or back. This prefix can combine with both vowel initial and consonant initial roots. For example re-open, re-consider. The phonetic combinations in the morphemes con-, co- and com- state that there is togetherness in the meaning of the words formed with the addition of these prefixes. The prefix ‘mis-’ stands for wrong or not, as in the words misjudge, misplace, misrepresent. While trying to figure out the meaning of a complex word like misanthrope, the meaning of the prefix dictates the meaning of the word to a reader. Dis-, diff-, di- signify apart or separation as in the words discover, difficult, diagonal. The morpheme di- stands for ‘two’ which has a matching meaning with apart or separation. The phoneme combinations of the prefix bring in focus the meaning of the morpheme structure to which it is attached. All the above discussions are presented in a tabular format below.

Prefix	Meaning	Example
Non-, un-, in-, il-, ir-, anti-	Not, opposite	Nonsense, unhappy, antitrust
Re- Con-, com-, co-, syn-	Again, back With , together. along with	Re-entry, re-discover Conference, competition, co-occurrence, syndicate
Mis- Dis-, diff-, di-	Wrong, not Separation, away, apart	Misrepresent, misplace Difference, Diaspora, disrespect

Task 10: Study the following words and comment on the phonological interfaces:

- a) pitter-patter, tick-tock, hocus-pocus, nitty-gritty
- b) give-gave, foot-feet,
- c) dog-z, cat-s, church-es and part-ies

Your answer:

The list in a) are reduplicated words, where the following segment is rhymed with the first segment and does not have a meaning in isolation.

The words in b) are stem alternations where the altered stem is a morpheme. Gave is the past form of the verb give and feet is plural of foot.

In c) there are three kinds of plural allomorphs which are phonologically conditioned. Both /g/ and /z/ are voiced sounds, /t/ and /s/ are voiceless and the vowel /e/ is added in between the consonants /t ɔ/ and /s/ for ease of pronunciation. In parties, /y/ which is a semivowel has changed to /-ies/ in plural form.

13.8 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt on the identification of Morphemes from English well as from languages other than English. Morphemes are language specific and working on morphological analysis on different languages adds to building knowledge on Morphology. Interfaces are of three kinds. Other than phonological interface, there are interface with semantics and relation between morphology and syntax. These are discussed in the next units. There are some review questions to check your comprehension on the unit.

13.9 Review Questions

1. What are the strategies for identification of morphemes?
2. Identify the morphemes and their meanings for the following words:
 - a) contentment,
 - b) disproportionate,
 - c) geography,
 - d) unclassified,
 - e) enclosure
3. What is inflection?
4. Give one example of inflection from English on number, person, case, gender, tense, mood or aspect.

5. Discuss Morphological and phonological interfaces in English.
6. Discuss 10 prefixes of English with examples.
7. Discuss with examples inflection from your mother tongue with glosses.
8. Discuss prefixes from your native language and compare with those of English.
9. Discuss morphological structure of words with the following:
 - a) two prefixes, root, and suffix
 - b) prefix, root and two suffix
 - c) prefix, root and suffix
10. What is the role of comparing in morpheme identification?

13.10 Reading List

Anderson, S. R. (1992). *A-morphous morphology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Aronoff, M. (1994). *Morphology by itself*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Notes:

1 <https://www.coursehero.com/file/59865069/Morphology-Exercise-7pdf/>

2 <https://www.google.com/exercises+on+morphological+analysis+in+assamese>

Unit 14 □ Morphological Analysis-2

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Objectives

14.3 Identification of allomorphs

14.4 Identification of morphemes

14.5 Interface with Semantics

14.6 Relation between morphology and Syntax

14.7 Summary

14.8 Review Questions

14.9 References and Reading List

14.1 Introduction

In the previous unit, we have worked on the morphological analysis from English, Swahili and Assamese. In this unit you will work on morphological analysis on few more languages. Here is a small task to revise the concepts you have learnt in this course.

Task 1 Give the morphological analysis for the following English words:

- a) Dehumidifier
- b) Recapitulation
- c) Antidisestablishmentarianism

Your answer:

14.2 Objectives

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

- Understand the interface on Morphology and Semantics,
- Learn to analyse morphology from sentence structures,
- Revise on the concept ‘identification of morphemes’,
- Develop ideas on how to teach morphology.

14.3 Identification of Allomorphs

A morpheme is defined as the minimal units of meaning. An allomorph is a phonetic realization of a morpheme in a different phonological or morphological environment. The word allomorph has two morphemes; allo- meaning ‘different’ and – morph or phonetic realization of a morpheme. An allomorph is conditioned by phonological rules or morphophonemic rules of a language. You will learn about morphophonemic analysis in the next unit. Now let us work on tasks on allomorphs.

Task 2: Identify the allomorphs with the same meanings from the following words:

In-considerate	Ir-responsible	Im-moral	il-legal
Non-entity	un-finished	end-less	dis-agreement

Your answer:

Without: -less; non-Not: un-

Task 3: Give a list of 10 allomorphs with the following English morphemes

- Plural (-s):
- Past (-ed):
- Subject-Verb Agreement (-s):

Your answer:

Task 4 : Morpheme or allomorph?

- Is the minimal unit of meaning in a language.
- Is a unit of meaning that varies in sound without changing its meaning.
- Can be a word or part of a word.
- Is usually a part of a word.
- Is concerned with the structure and meaning of a word.
- Is concerned with the sound of words.

Your answer:

14.4 Identification of morphemes

You have learnt on identification of morphemes in Unit 13. The processes are comparing – contrasting – isolation. Here lets us revise on the topic and also learn while working on tasks.

Task 5: Which of the following words cannot be segmented into prefix + root?

- | | | |
|------------------|-----------|--------------|
| a) miscellaneous | mistake | mispronounce |
| b) missile | misquote | mischief |
| c) rebel | rebate | rewrite |
| d) reclaim | record | return |
| e) industrious | innocent | interfere |
| f) inorganic | influenza | indecisive |

Your answer:

Task 6: Complete the matrix. Join the prefixes and the roots. Discuss the word where you find processes of regressive or progressive assimilation.

de-	re-	con-	per-	sub-	in-	ex-	pre-	ob-
								-ceive
								-clude
								-cur
								-duce
								-flect
								-form
								-pose
								-flect
								-sist
								-sume
								-serve

Your answer:

Task 7: What are the roots for the following words?

preceded	unilaterally		microscopic
disinterested	unforgetful		estrangement
bystanders	spaciousness		triumphantly
arguments	unhappiness		violently
revitalization	bejewelled		Suitability

Your answer:

Task 8: Which of the following is not a suffixation? Underline the word and explain by giving a paraphrase.

a) redden, harden, widen, heaven

b) trickster, gangster, lobster, punster

c) hostess, waitress, prowess, princess

d) employee, trainee, goatee, interviewee, examinee

e) hatter, hammer, prisoner, potter, banker

14.5 Interface with semantics

An important theory in morphology is the relation between form and meaning. There is a notion of ‘concatenation’ which means that each unit of morpheme should have a meaning, and added meaning goes hand in hand with the added form. This was explicit in the tasks from the previous sections of this unit. The interface of morphology with semantics is concerned with the formation of complex words and the composition of names and concepts. There are two sides of this interface. They are the semantic side and the structural side. You have already worked on this in Task 8. Let us work on some more examples to figure out the relation between them.

Task 9: Explain the non-suffixed word from the following:

a) action, creation, election, completion, passion

b) career, mountaineer, profiteer, engineer, racketeer

c) comment, development, achievement, government

Task 10: A Polysemy is a word with different but related senses. Point out different senses of the same word from the following pairs of sentences.

- a) Did you hear that sound?
He has a sound health.
- b) How do you express it in words?
She had sent her papers in express mail.
- c) The offer was accepted.
He accepted the truth

Your answer:

Task 11: Content morphemes or content words carry the semantic content of words. They are open class items: nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. These morphemes can add new morphemes to their structure. Grammatical or function morphemes are closed class items like pronouns, articles, prepositions, and conjunctions. These do not have clear meanings, but have grammatical functions. They are closed morphemes because they are not added to morphemes to form new words. From the following discuss the content morphemes and function morphemes with explanations:

- a) The girl in the car is the author of a new book.
- b) A complex sentence has an independent clause and a dependent clause.
- c) Because she is an English Teacher, some people expect her to speak and write perfectly.

Your answer:

14.6 Relation between Morphology and Syntax

Morphology builds up words from combinations of roots, stems and affixes and applying other operations to them. Syntax takes inflected words and combines them with phrases and sentences. The domain of morphology is below the word level. Syntax operates above the word level. Morphemes or combinations of morphemes are smallest units in a sentence. Morphology has stems and affixes, while Syntax has NP

(Noun Phrase) and VP (Verb Phrase). You had a preliminary introduction to these terms in Paper 4. The two components morphology and syntax have an interface, in the structures of language. You have worked on some of these in Task 11. Let us find out more on how these interfaces work from the following tasks.

Task 12: Which types of morphemes can be found in the following sentences¹. Classify them according to ‘free/ bound’, and ‘lexical/ grammatical’.

- a) Often when it is a choice between mindset and skill-set those with a better mindset are preferred and do better in life.
- b) We are beginning to recognise that that doing small things that focus in inner wellness is what is ‘trending’.
- c) Your character influences your mindset and your way of thinking and it is clearly visible in your choices and decisions.
- d) Cultivate passion and imagination and a curious mind that never tires of learning.
- e) And if evolution towards a better self is the purpose of life-then character alone is responsible for your journey towards that purpose.

Your answer:

Task 13: Study the sentence structures in Task 12. Comment on how the inflected words combine to form phrases in the sentences.

Your answer:

14.7 Summary

This unit is a step further into morphological analysis. There are many new terms and concepts introduced with simple explanations and tasks. Interface of morphology with semantics and relation of morphology with syntax are discussed from the ELT perspective. You can consult the books mentioned in the reading list for venturing further on the topics. There are few review questions at the end to test your comprehension.

14.8 Review Questions

1. What are polysemous words?
2. Discuss Function morphemes.
3. What are open morphemes and close morphemes? Why are they called so?

4. What is concatenation? Illustrate with examples.
5. Design a lesson plan on teaching Morphological Analysis.
6. Cite examples of English allomorphs from 10 different content and function morphemes.
7. Distinguish between function words and content words.
8. Design a task on identification of allomorphs.
9. Cite examples of grammatical morphemes. Can you also call them free morphemes? Why?
10. Discuss the interface between morphology and semantics.

14.9 References and Reading List

- Aarts, Flor and Jan Aarts. (1987). *Functions and Categories in Sentence Analysis: Workbook*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Bauer, Laurie. (2021). *An Introduction to Morphology*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Matthews, P. H. (1991). *Morphology*. 2nd Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gillian Ramchand and Charles Reiss. (2012). *The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Interfaces*. Oxford Handbooks Online. Oxford: Oxford University Press. DOI: 1093/oxfordhb/9780199247455.001.0001
https://www.academia.edu/1427280/Worksheets_morphology_and_word-formation

Notes

1. *The times of India*, Kolkata July 25, 2021, Times Life, p. 4.

Unit 15 □ Morphophonological Analysis-1

- 15.1 Introduction**
- 15.2 Objectives**
- 15.3 Morphological processes**
 - 15.3.1 Compounding**
 - 15.3.2 Blending**
 - 15.3.3 Borrowing**
 - 15.3.4 Coinage**
 - 15.3.5 Clipping**
 - 15.3.6 Back formation**
 - 15.3.7 Conversion**
 - 15.3.8 Multiple Processes**
 - 15.3.9 Acronym**
 - 15.3.10 Reduplication**
- 15.4 Summary**
- 15.6 Review Questions**
- 15.7 References**
- 15.8 Reading List**

15.1 Introduction

Morphophonology is a branch of Linguistics that studies the interaction between morphological and phonological processes. It studies the phonemic representation of morphemes in different environments. Its concern is the sound changes that take place in morphemes when they combine to form words. In this unit, we will learn on these changes. The term ‘morphophonemics’ (zmɔ :fə (j)fəni:mlks), is derived from two words, morpheme and phoneme.

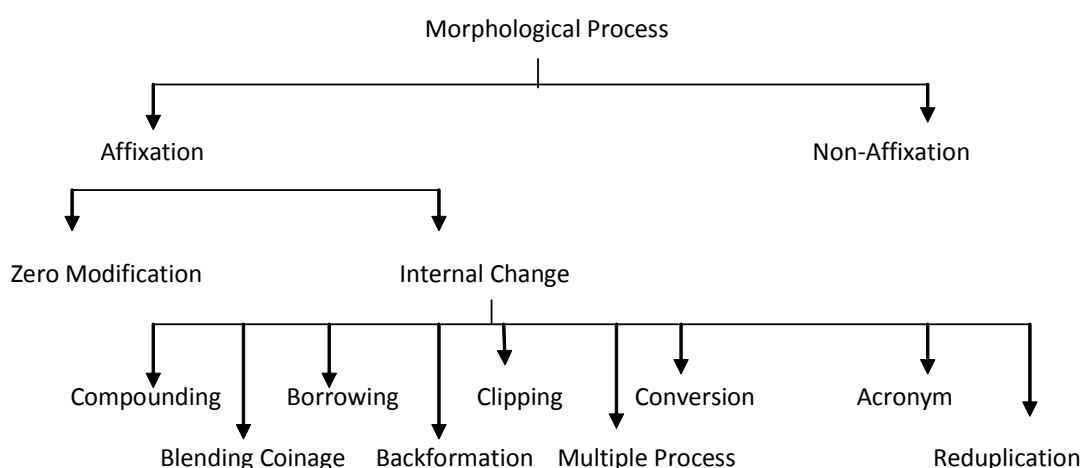
15.2 Objectives

After going through the unit, you will be able to understand better

- the concept of word formation,
- the structure of language in terms of morphological processes,
- the analysis of morphemes,
- how to differentiate various word formation process.

15.3 Morphological processes

The processes by which the words of a paradigm with a common base are differentiated from each other are known as morphological processes. Morphological processes in English are of two main types: Affixation and non-affixation. Affixation has ten processes as shown in the following flow diagram:



You have learnt about affixes and their types in Module 1. Here, you will learn about the morphological process that results from affixations. Let us recapitulate what we have learnt so far. In the sentence: ‘The boy’s innocence shocked the partner’, we have the following distinctions:

The (functional) boy (lexical) -’s (inflectional) innocen(t) (lexical) -ce (derivational) shock(lexical) -ed (inflectional) the (functional) partner (lexical).

Internal change is a morphological process. When two or more words, related in form and meaning, differ from each other in one or more phonemes of their structure, then one word is derived or inflected from the other in the same paradigm by internal change. For example, ‘talk’, ‘talked’, ‘talking’ are members of the same paradigm of inflection.

15.3.1 Compounding

In compounding, two or more free morphemes combine to form a new word. For example, ‘postman’, ‘bookcase’, ‘football’ are compound words. The components can be free morphemes, derived words or new word forms by compounding. For example, ‘mother-in-law’, ‘passers-by’, ‘airline’, ‘pathfinder’, etc. Let us work on a few examples.

Task 1 Find the type of morphemes from the following compounds:

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| a) Classroom | b) Know-all |
| c) Air-conditioner | d) Looking-glass |
| e) Homework | f) Watch maker |
| g) Fireman | h) Homework |
| i) Blackbird | j) Girlfriend |
| k) Textbook | l) Housekeeper |
| m) Flower-pot | |

Your answer:

Task 2: Add compounds to the following categories:

- a) Noun + noun: coffee cup, towel rack, _____, _____,
 b) Noun + adjective: fat free, lap top, _____, _____,
 c) Adjective +Noun: white collar, blue bird, _____, _____,

15.3.2 Blending

Blending is another word formation process, where two words combine to form a new word with a new meaning. In blending, only parts of the words are combined. In compounding, whole words are combined. Examples of blending are: smoke + fog = smog, motor + hotel = motel. Let us work on on a few more examples to understand this concept.

Task 3: Find the blended words. Are there phonological process in the changes?

- a) Breakfast + lunch =
 b) Gasoline + alcohol =
 c) Mobile + episode =
 d) Web + log =

Task 4: Find the combining words:

- a) Sci-fi =
 b) Internet =
 c) Fortnight =
 d) Sitcom =
 e) Emoticon =

Answers Task 3: a) brunch, b) gasohol, c) mobisode, d) motorbike, e) blog. There are instances of multiple phoneselisiar word initially and word finally.

Answers Task 4: a) science + fiction, b) international + network, c) fourteen + night, d) situation+ comedy, e) emotion + icon.

15.3.3 Borrowing

Borrowing is the process in which a word from one language is directly borrowed into another language. This happens when two languages come in contact with each other. The words are mostly nouns, along with verbs and adjectives. Borrowing is a common source of new words in languages. There are two types of borrowing. The first type is **loan words**. In English, the following words are borrowed from foreign languages:

- Algebra – Arabic
- Guru – Indian
- Chowmein – Chinese
- Murder – French
- Paprika – Hungarian
- Pizza – Italian

Borrowed words are also known as **loan words**. English is a source for loan words for many languages.

Task 5: Find the sources of the following borrowed words:

- a) Hamburger
- b) Theatre
- c) Piano
- d) Umbrella
- e) Sofa

Task 6: Find the borrowed words from the following languages:

- a) Japanese
- b) Turkish
- c) Brazilian
- d) Spanish
- e) French

The second type of borrowing is **loan translation**. Loan translation is the translation of morpheme-by-morpheme of the borrowed words from the loaning language to the borrowed language. Loan translations sound awkward at first but are gradually accepted in the language with use. Word for word translations without any grammatical alterations are known as calques (from the French word for ‘copy’). For example;

German ‘Übermensch’ → English ‘superman’

German ‘standpunkt’ → English ‘standpoint’

Spanish ‘momento de la verda’ → English ‘moment of truth’

Spanish 'Casa Blanca' → English 'White House'

Task 7: Find the English Loan translations of the following:

- a) German 'Biergarten' → English _____
- b) German 'Lehnwort' → English _____
- c) French 'dejeuner' → English _____

Answers Task 5: German, Greece, Italian, Italian, Arabic

Answers Task 6: tycoon, yogurt, chocolate, guitar, diplomat

Answers Task 7: a) beer garden, b) loan word, c) breakfast

15.3.4 Coinage

Coinage is the invention or creation of a new term from scratch. These terms are created to connect to people with the same society. After their formation they tend to become everyday words in the language. Before 1899, there was no such term as 'aspirin', which was coined as a trade mark for Acetyl + Salicylic Acid in Germany. In 2020, the word, COVID-19 (acute respiratory illness of humans) was coined through clipping and blending of **Corona Virus disease in 2019**.

Task 8 Find the coinages for the following:

- a) New and inexperienced player
- b) Players in the same clan
- c) Italian city of Genoa
- d) Earl of Sandwich
- e) To use internet to find information

Task 9: Find ten examples of coinages in English and their formation words.

Your answer:

Answer Task 8: newbie/ noob, clannies, jeans, sandwich, google

15.3.5 Clipping

Clipping is a morphological process whereby new words are formed by shortening other words without changing the meaning. In the phonological shortening process, either the initial part or the final part or both parts are eliminated. For example, **fridge** from refrigerator or pub from public house. The shortened form is the dominant form in the language. For example, the word '**piano**' from 'pianoforte'. Thus, clipping is a word reduction process, where syllables or whole word is eliminated. The reduced form and the complete form of the same word are used in different registers. Let us work on a few tasks on clipping.

Task 10: Find the clipped words from the following:

- a) Telephone
- b) Laboratory
- c) Influenza
- d) Examination
- e) Advertisement

Your answer:

Task 11: Write the complete form of the following words:

- a) Gym
- b) Prof
- c) Narc
- d) Hydro
- e) Bus
- f) Gas
- g) Van

15.3.6 Back formation

In back formation, a new word with a new meaning is derived from an existing word. Back formation is based on analogy and results in a new word category. For example, from 'television' (n), we have derived the word 'televise' (v).

Task 12: Derive new words from the following nouns and mention their word categories:

- a) editor
- b) donation
- c) enthusiasm
- d) formation
- e) revision

Task 13: Write the original words from which the following words are derived:

- a) create
- b) transmit
- c) act
- d) opt
- e) process

Answers Task 12: edit (v), donate (v), enthuse (v), form (v), revise (v)

Answers Task 13: creation, transmission, actor, option, procession

15.3.7 Conversion

Conversion is a morphological process which involves neither elision nor addition of any morpheme. This derivational process involves a change in the process, of assigning a new category to the existing word without changing its form in any way. For example, a noun can be used as a verb or vice-versa. This process is also known as zero-derivation.

Talk – His talk was well taken.

Cheat – The person is a cheat.

Guess – You can make a guess

For all the three sentences, the verbs ‘talk’, ‘cheat’ and ‘guess’ are functioning as nouns in the sentences.

Task 14: Discuss the following sentences with conversion:

- a. She bottles her up.
- b. Stop shouting like a crazy person.
- c. Can you empty the trash for me?
- d. It is a must for you to take rest.
- e. He was admitted to the university after a three year wait.

Task 15: Frame sentences with the following conversions:

Taste (n) ⇔ Taste (v)

Export (n) ⇔ Export (v)

Paint (n) ⇔ Paint (v)

Service (n) ⇔ Service (v)

Repair (n) ⇔ Repair (v)

Your Answer:

Answers Task 14: bottle (Noun → Verb), crazy (Adjective → Noun), empty (Adjective → Verb), must (Verb → Noun), wait (Verb → Noun).

15.3.8 Multiple Processes

Creation of a word involves multiple processes. Let us take the word ‘snowball’ in the sentence:

The problems with the agents have snowballed.

In this sentence, first, there is compound formation. Snow + ball = snowball. This

word is a noun, which functions as a verb in the sentence. Thus the two process are compounding and conversion. Let us take another example: 'internet'. 'Internet' is a clipping from two words. 'Inter' from 'international', and 'net' from network. These two clipped words then blend together to form 'internet'. More than one process can be traced in the formation of the word.

Task 16: Trace the word 'total' in its different categories for the following sentences:

- A. That was a total disaster.
- B. What is the total?
- C. The loss totaled 500/- this term.

Your answer:

Task 17: Trace the word formation processes for the following words:

- a) Carphone
- b) Washing machine
- c) Bookkeeper
- d) Living room
- e) Deep fridge

Your answer:

15.3.9 Acronym

The word 'acronym' has two morphemes: *acro/acr* (Greek 'akros', meaning 'height' or 'summit') and *nym/onym* (Greek 'onumon', meaning 'name'). Acronym is an abbreviation that is treated like a word and is made with the initials of several words. There are three kinds of acronyms, as can be seen in the following examples:

AIDS – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, where the initials of the words are treated together as a single word.

National Football league – **NFL** where the initials are pronounced as separate segments but still treated as a word. This is called initialism or alphabetism.

Radar- Radio Detecting And Ranging, or **Lasar** – Light Amplification by Simulated Emission, where the segments are not written in capitals and are treated as regular words.

Task 18: Give the Acronyms for the following:

- a) National Aeronautical and Space Administration –
- b) United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund –
- c) English as a Second Language –

d) Short Messaging Service –

Task 19: Give the full form of the following Acronyms:

- a) NEP 2020
- b) CBSE
- c) CBCS
- d) SWOT
- e) RIE

15.3.10 Reduplication

Repetition of all or part of the base with or without internal change is reduplication. Repetition can be before or after the base. In English, repetition is not found in inflected words. There are examples of derived words with repetition as in ‘papa’, ‘chocho’, and in ‘wigwag’, ‘razzle-dazzle’, where there is repetition with internal change.

Task 20: Find instances of repetition in the following words:

- a) Hanky-panky
- b) Tiptop
- c) Ticktock
- d) Singsong
- e) Boogie-woogie

Your answer:

15.4 Summary

Morphological analysis studies the structure of words and combination of morphemes in the creation of new words. In this unit, we have learnt on various word formation processes in general, and explored on a variety of illustrations from English. Words are created on the basis of other words and morphemes and become part of a language. New words are created with or without change of form and function. To check your understanding, there are following review questions:

15.5 Review Questions

1. Find the lexical categories for compounding in the following words: house wife, boy friend, arm-chair, Ice cold, dark blue, Pick pocket, popcorn, campfire, snowball.
2. Find the blended words:

biography + picture, advertisement + entertainment, camera + recorder, internet + citizen, spoon + fork, transfer + resistor, web + seminar.

3. Find the coined term: Louis Pasteur, What's Application, to escalate.
4. Find the clipped word: bicycle, demonstration, memorandum, photography, helicopter, dormitory.
5. State which of the following statements are true:
 - a) Conversion is a reduction process.
 - b) Clipping does not alter word categories.
 - c) Back formation is based on analogy.
 - d) Repletion is found in inflected words.
 - e) Calques are loan words.
6. Name the morphological process for the following:
 - a. A derivational process
 - b. A reduction process
 - c. Alters word categories
 - d. New words are formed
 - e. Part of the word is deleted
 - f. Two or more words are joined together
7. Discuss conversion for the italicized words:
 - a. It is obvious that my team will enter the *finals*.
 - b. He scored *a hit* in his first shot.
 - c. It is a good *buy*.
 - d. He took a close *look* at the machine.
8. Discuss multiple processes for the following words:
 - a. Hand-washing
 - b. Self-isolation
 - c. Cyber-bullying
 - d. Driving-lisence
9. Write the Full forms of the following Acronyms:

MOOCS
SMART
OER
SCUBA
10. Find ten words from English which are loan words and ten words which are

loan translations that are used in your First Language and state their contextual applications.

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Unit 16 □ Morphophonological Analysis-2

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16.1 Introduction

Morphophonemics is the study of relationship between morphology and phonology. Phonology and morphology are two main components of a language system. In this unit, we will revise on the a few concepts leant in Unit 10 and learn to investigate on the phonological variations within morphemes, marking different grammatical functions. Morphophonemic variations occur at morpheme boundaries consisting of sounds of distinct phonemes. For example, the vowel changes in keep and kept, bind and bound, and consonant changes in knife and knives, loaf and loves. A word's pronunciation is sensitive to morphological factors. For example, in English, the word electric /elektrik/ has a final velar sound, when added with an /-ity/ suffix, electricity /elektrisiti/, the velar changes into voiceless alveolar fricative.

16.2 Objectives

After going through the unit you will learn on:

- The phonemic differences of the allomorphs of the same morpheme,
- The distribution of allomorphs in one morpheme,
- Interactions between morphological and phonological processes.

16.3 Morphophonemic Processes

Morphophonemic processes or morphophonemic changes study the phonological realization of the allomorphs of the morphemes of a language. It is also defined as phonemic representation of the morpheme indifferent environments, as well as, the morphological factors which affect the appearance of phonemes. It deals with phoneme alterations of morphemes across morpheme boundary. The nine morphophonemic processes are:

16.3.1 Loss of phonemes

The phoneme /n/ of the negative prefix /in/ is lost before the morphemes beginning with sonorant sounds. /m/, /l/, /r/, and /ŋ/. For example, immobile, illimitable, irregular, innumerable. Let us take three more examples, where there is loss of plosion, loss of post alveolar approximant /r/ and loss of front mid-high vowel /e/.

Grandpa [ˈgrænpɑ:]

Forecast [fɔ:kɑ:st]

Despite [dɪˈspɑɪt]

For ‘grandpa’ the voiced alveolar plosive /d/ is lost in pronunciation. This reduction has made the disyllabic word monosyllabic. In ‘forecast’ the post alveolar approximant /r/ is lost and its existence is marked by length (:) of the preceding sound segment. In ‘despite’ word final vowel /e/ is dropped. Similar to example 1, this elision also reduces the number of syllables. If the word final vowel is pronounced, it would have made the disyllabic word trisyllabic. Let us work on consonants with different places of articulation.

Task 1: Discuss the loss of phonemes from the following:

- a) attempt
- b) football
- c) architect

d) Wouldn't meet my aunt

Your answer:

When two plosives with different places of articulation are in contact within a word, the articulation of the first plosive continues till the articulation of the second plosive is heard. The release of the first plosive is weak, and the plosion is heard after the second consonant.

For (d) we have nasal plosion. At the junction of the plosive /d/ and nasal /n/, the articulation of the nasal starts when the articulation of /d/ is not yet complete. The release of the plosion flows through the nasal cavity, producing a nasal plosion.

Task 2: Can you trace the loss of phonemes?

- a) Democrat → democracy
- b) Aristocrat → aristocracy
- c) Meter → metric
- d) Handsome [hænsəm]
- e) Grass [grɑ:s]
- f) Pneumatic

Your answer:

Task 3: Transcribe and trace the loss of phoneme from the following word pairs.

- a) High, sign
- b) Date, name
- c) Climb, comb
- d) Acquire, muscle

Your answer:

16.3.2 Addition of phonemes

Addition of phonemes is a morphophonemic change, where a phoneme, which did not exist before is added to the morpheme. For example, addition of /b/ as in Snob + ish = snobb**ish** or addition of /s/ as in Salesgirl and sword**s**man. Let us work on the following task.

Task 3: Find the added phoneme in the following words

- a) Reduplicative [rɪdju:plkətɪv]
- b) Indecision [ˌɪndɪzɪʒn]

c) Type-typography

Your answer:

16.3.3 Simple consonant change

A simple consonant change is an alternative allomorph which shows a change in one or more phonemes. For example, from the word ‘permit’ we derive ‘permission’. The word final /t/ changes to /s/ in the derived word. Similarly, in Possessive /pə'zɛsɪv/, word medial /s/ becomes voiced and is pronounced as /z/, and the /s/ of the suffix is unchanged.

Task 4: Find the change in consonants for the following words:

- a) Extinct → extinguish
- b) Harmonic → harmonious
- c) Commit-committed
- d) Nod-nodded

Your answer:

16.3.4 Assimilation

We have learnt about assimilation in phonology in Unit 8. Assimilation in morphonemics is a phonemic change which occurs when the articulations of two contiguous morphemes are combined and they become more like each other. For example, the phonemes /t/, /d/ and /n/ become bilabials before bilabial consonants, as in ‘He is a fat **boy**’ or ‘She has got an **apartment**. The phoneme /t/ does not sound like an alveolar plosive. It gets influence by the sound features of its following sound or preceding sound and sound more like a bilabial.

Task 5: What are the features if the following phonemes?

- a) I love this **sh**inny one here.
- b) I have **be**en going out these days.
- c) We found a **che**ese **sh**op on the way.

Your answer:

16.3.5 Dissimilation

We have learnt on dissimilation as a phonological process in Unit 8. Here we will discuss dissimilation as a morphomemic process. Dissimilation occurs when the combining identical sounds in contiguous allomorphs become dissimilar. For example,

in+ noble = ignoble. The negative prefix 'in-' turns into 'ig-' before the base word 'noble'. Similarly, the morpheme '-ed' is realized as /t/ for laughed [lɑft] or [læft], but is realized as /d/ for showed [ʃəʊd].

Task 6: Point out dissimilation in the following words.

- a) Past tense allomorph: Talked, jumped, read, met, put
- b) Plural allomorph: wolves, boxes, sheep
- c) Third person singular suffix: writes, goes, watches

Your answer:

16.3.6 Synthesis

Synthesis is a consonant change, where two consonants are combined to form a new consonant which is different from both its constituents. This fusion of consonants is a common feature in English. This new sound segment belongs to juncture of two the allomorphs it represents. For example in moist + ure = moisture /mɔɪtʃə/, the sounds /t/ and /u/ combined to form /tʃ/.

Task 7: What are 'synthesis' changes in the following words?

- a) Actual [aktʃəl]
- b) Vision [viʒn]
- c) Glycogen [galkəʃ dʒen]
- d) Humming-bird [hʌmɪŋbɜ:d]

16.3.7 Change of syllabic vowel or diphthong

Change of syllabic vowel or diphthong is substitution of another vowel or diphthong than the one which appears in the normal allomorph. For example, past tense allomorph as in Take-took or Shake-shook.

Task 8: Find the change of syllabic vowel or diphthong from the following words:

- a) Clear-clarity
- b) Globe-globular
- c) Reflation [ri:fleɪʃn]
- d) Semiology [ˌsemiɪˈɒlədʒɪ]
- e) Imitation [ˌɪmɪteɪʃn]

Your answer:

16.3.8 Gradation

Gradation is the process in which strong and weak forms of certain words are used according to certain circumstances or contexts. Let us study the strong and weak forms of words in their contexts:

Strong form

Weak form

Ask **her** not him. - Her [hɜ:]

Did you ask **her**? - her [hə:]

I said I didn't want **to**. - to [tu:]

Do you want **to** go? - to [tə]

I know where he is **from**. - from [frʊm]

Did you hear **from** him? - from [frəm]

Gradation is a feature of the vowel phonemes in the words. The strong forms have long vowel /u:/ and back vowel /ɒ/. The weak forms have short vowel /ɪ / and central vowel /ə/. In the first example, the elision of the consonant /r/ is marked by length.

Most function words have strong and weak forms. Function words are auxiliaries (do, has, can), conjunctions (and, but, as), prepositions (to, from, of), determiners (the, a, some) and pronouns (him, her, them). English has about 40 such words. The weak forms are unstressed forms.

Task 9: What are the gradations in the following words?

A. I **can** do it, but I won't.

Can you pass me the milk?

B. I said eggs **and** chips not eggs or chips.

I'd like eggs **and** chips.

C. I **have** told you!

I've quit smoking.

Your answer:

A.

B.

C.

16.3.9 Suppletion

Suppletion is an inflectional technique where we change the morpheme, in place of adding a suffix. Suppletion occurs when the inflected form of the word have

different roots. For example, go-went, bad-worse, is-was, good-better. Suppletion deals with grammatical functions of words and is exception to the regular rules on inflectional words. Nouns and verbs can change due to suppletion. For example, the paradigm go: goes: went: gone: going, went is a suppletive form the verb go.

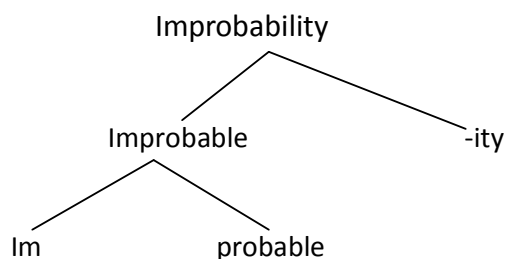
Task 10: Discuss suppletion of the verb 'be' from the following paradigms

I am	We are
You are	you are
He/ she / it is	They are

Your answer:

16.4 Morphological Rule

A morphological rule is a formal way of presenting how morphemes (free morphemes and bound morpheme) are used. For example, the word improbability, can be analysed as:



Im- is a derivational prefix, which alters the semantic content. The prefix adds to the adjective stem to render another adjective. This is presented as a rule as follows.

Im- + Adjective → Adjective

im- +possible (Adj) → impossible(Adj)

Now the morphological rule for the suffix (-ity)

Adj + -ity → Noun

Improbable (Adj) + -ity → improbability

There can be a rule for every affix. Let us work on few examples.

Task 11: Give the morphological rule for the following words:

- Preconception
- Sensitivity
- Tactfully
- Unexplained

e) Vaporize

Your answer:

16.5 Morphophonemic Rule

Morphophonemic rule assigns phonetic form determined by morphology and phonology. It has the form of a phonological rule but is restricted to a particular morphological environment. The word morphophonemic consists of two terms, morphology and phoneme. Unlike phonological rule, Morphophonemic rules are sensitive to their environment. We have learnt on phonological rules in Phonological Analysis, Paper 4 Module 4, Unit 14. Whenever morphological information is required to specify the environment for an allophonic rule, the rule is morphophonemic. A morphophonemic rule is the formal way of presenting how morphemes are used marking grammatical functions, for example,

- [-s] allomorphs
 - [-s] after voiceless sounds
 - [-z] after voiced sounds
 - [-iz] after sibilants
 - [-vz] after voiceless fricative

- [-ed] allomorph
 - [-t] after voiceless sounds
 - [-d] after voiced sounds
 - [-ed] after alveolar stops

Both these rules were on allomorphs; the plural allomorphs and the past tense allomorphs. We have learnt them in dissimilation. Let us work on few more morphophonemic rules.

Task 12: Write morphophonemic rules.

- A. Un+ please + ant + ness= unpleasantness
- B. Please + ure = pleasure
- C. Please + ant = pleasant
- D. Dis + please = displeasure
- E. Please + ing = pleasing
- F. Dis + please +ed = displeased

Your answer:

[-e] the word final vowel is deleted

-[-Ø] before -ure

-[-Ø] before -ant

-[-e] when a prefix is added

-[-Ø] before -ing

-[Ø] before -ed

16.6 Summary

In this final unit of the module, we have revised on morphology and learnt to write morphological rules. In morphophonemic analysis there are multiple rules that explain the alternations of the root and alternations of the affixes. These rules interact with each other and are ordered. Some rules apply first followed by other rules, as found in words formed with prefix and suffix. When morphemes are clustered or grouped together to form words, then changes in the phonological structure of these words occur. These are morphophonemic changes. In analysing these changes, we compared different allomorph of the same morpheme and called one of them the normal form, based on which the other forms vary. The normal form has the widest distribution.

16.7 Review Questions

1. Discuss the loss of phonemes.
 - a) Please + ant + ly = Pleasantly
 - b) Windfall, grandparent, friendship
 - c) Airline, Airbus, Aircraft
2. Discuss the vowel changes from the following:
 - a) Panorama →panoramic [pænə'ræmik]
 - b) Revive [rɪ'vaɪv]
 - c) Pity+ ful = pitiful
 - d) Instrument – instrumental
 - e) Symbol-symbolic
 - f) Able-ability

3. Discuss gradation from the following.
 - a) Have **some** more vs I've had **some**
 - b) We **must** meet vs **Must** I do this?
 - c) She's so nice vs How nice she **is**!
4. Discuss the morphophonemic process.
 - a) Sing-sang
 - b) Teach-taught
 - c) Was-were
5. Write the morphological rules for the morphemes.
 - a) Re-examination
 - b) Overcharged
 - c) Groundless
6. Write the morphophonemic rules.

[un-] + romantic = unromantic
[un-] + limited = unlimited
[non-] + resident = non-resident
[non-] + lethal = nonlethal
7. Write five examples of gradation.
8. Distinguish between dissimilation and loss of phoneme.
9. Compare suppletion in English and suppletion in your first language.
10. What is the basic difference between a morphological rule and a morphophonemic rule? Illustrate.

16.8 Reading List

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