KUNTHAVAI NAACCHIYAAR GOVT.ARTS COLLEG FOR WOMEN(A), THANJAVUR- 7

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

I MA ENGLISH

LINGUISTICS: THEORY AND PRACTICE

FACULTY MEMBER

DR.J.MARIA MONALIZA BURGESS

UNIT - I

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

LANGUAGE:

What is language?

Linguistic is the scientific study of language. At first sight this definition-which is one that will be found in most textbooks and general treatments of the subjects- is straight forward enough. But what exactly is meant by 'language' and 'scientific'? and can linguistics, as it currently practiced, be rightly described as a science?

Some definitions of language:

According to Sapir(1921:8) "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas , emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols". David Crystal(1989)- "Language is human vocal noise (written) used systematically and conventionally by a community for purpose of community. R.H.Robins(1990)- "Language is a form of human communication by means of a system of symbols principally transmitted by vocal sounds.

Objects language:

An object language is a language which is a "object" of study in various fields including logic, linguistics, mathematics, theoretically, computer science. The language being used to talk about an abject language is called a metalanguage. An object language may be a formal or natural language.

Spoken modes and written modes:

The main division to be recognized here is that between speaking and writing. The spoken mode has of course, many sub divisions such as conversation, lecturing, commanding, 'Phetic' communication and so on. The written modes has many more journalism scientific writing, legal languages and so on. This refers to the register variation determind by the medium used. We could talk about the different variates of language in

telegraphic messages, telephones conversation, radio, T.V., newspaper and etc. Eg: The moment we hear some on saying "Hello, who is that"? this shows to is using a telephone.

STRUCTURAL APPROACH

Introduction:

The structural approach is better described as a syllabus of graded structures and controlled vocabulary, taught through the oral approach. Structural approach says language is a structure of language is systematic and patterned. The structure of language has two parallel substrucutures expression and content and a net of association between the two.

The meaning of structural approach: French says that we talk about the structure of language. We are talking about the kinds of material that go to make up a language and the way of materials are put together, arranged and used to build up sentences such as statements, questions, commands and explanations from the living language and are the means of expressing what we feel, want to do, talk about and so forth. A structure is a sentence pattern, which is nothing but a sound approved recognized and understood both by the second language of the listener.

Word order, structural words and inflections: The word English language has three important devices for the construction of meaningful sentences. They are the word order, structural words and inflections. Structural approach lays emphasis on word order. Which is the word most important thing in every English sentences. The word pattern, says French, means a model for sentences which will be of the same shape and construction although made up different words. The word order in English is fixed. Therefore the models for the different kinds of English sentences are fixed also with the change in this word order, the meaning of the sentences is also changed.

Eg: 1. The tiger killed the man.

The man killed the tiger.

Another thing which is very important in strucutral device is the essential presence of function words or structural words. The structural words are words which do not have any definite meaning in themselves but are very helpful in forming sentences of different kinds. These are the words with the help of which we make sentences. For example, the auxiliary verbs "be, do, may" etc, do not have any definite meaning in themselves but are very helpful in forming sentences of different kinds. These are the words with the help of which we make sentences. For example, the auxiliary verbs "be, do, may" etc, do not have any intrinstic meaning. The meaning is also expressed by a class words that have no meaning but only grammatic of structural function.

Examples:

1. The boy killed the snake.
2. The boy will kill the snake.
3. The boy has killed the snake
4. The boy has to kill the snake
5. The boy might kill the snake.

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

Inflextions: the third aspect is that the English language has got a number of inflextions. Inflextions are the changes of differences in a sentences. This variation of the forms of words takes place in order to express case, number, gender, tense, and so on.

Example:

    At his house
    To his house
    In his house
    From his house

<div align="center">

SITUATIONAL APPROACH

</div>

Situational approach is nothing but the improves form of structural approach. In order to present structures in an under standable manner, situations are used. The situational presentation of content words, structural and grammer items proves to be very effective in language teaching. It especially helps the learner to learn English without the use of mother-tongue.

Situational Approach:

Situational Approach is nothing but the improved form of structural approach. In order to present structures in an under standable manner, situations are used. The situational presentation of content words, structures and grammar items proves to be very effective in language teaching. It especially helps the learner to learn English without the use of mother-tongue.

Main components:

The two main components of this method are the following:

1. Presentation: conveying the meaning of the selected and graded structures and words.
2. Practice: providing opportunities and items for drill or practice in using the language items.

Presentation communicating the meaning of words and structures to the learners. It is the stage at

Which a learner is helped to acquire a knowledge of the meaning and the use of new content words and structures. The learners attention should also be directed towards pronunciation, stress and intonation order of words, grammatical form, etc.

How to present items:

One or more of the following things would be done in order to explain the meaning of the word 'clock'.

(i)   Point to a clock, if there is any one within sight.
(ii)   Draw a clock and show it.

<div align="right">

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

</div>

(iii)   Say, "a clock shows us the time".

(iv)   Give the mother, tongue equivalent of the word clock.

Use of verbal situations:

An individual word in a language frequently acquires a meaning because of the relationship between it and other words. It is essential that learners should be aware of certain kind of such relationships.

By drawing tentative conclusions from a variety of situations the learners learns a number of words through the following verbal situations. New words may be defined by words already known.

Examples:

Philanthropy is love and service for others. Philately is collection of postage stamps. Philology is studying about languages in details. These definitions should be teaching definitions. The comparsions or synonyms.

COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

Introduction:

Communication is an interesting word when two or more individuals have a successful communication. They share an understanding or feeling. Exposure, practice and maturity are the determinants of the communications. Pupils need mastery over communicative skills in order to deal competently with the words ever increasing body of knowledge. Language being the foremost means of communication. It should be taught mainly for communicative purposes. In the early eighties the communicative approach was adopted. In this approach "fluency is the goal, not accuracy". The teaching is just a co-ordinator is a learner centered approach.

Meaning of communicative approach:

Communicative approach pays attention to functional as well as strucutural aspects of language and combines these into a more fully communicative view. Communicative approach emphasizes that the goal of foreign language teaching is to develop "communicative ability" among the learners. This approach considers language not only in terms of its structures (grammar and vocabulary) but also in terms of the communicative functions that it performs.

Purpose of communicative activities:

Communicative ability can be achieved through communicative activities in the class.

1. Provide structures "whole-task practice".
2. Improve motivation.
3. Allow natural learning.
4. Create a context which supports learning.

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

SEMIOTIC APPROACH

What is semiotics?

Semiotics is the study of signs. It is concerned with the ways we represent our world to ourselves and to others. It is a human endeavour. Humans can communicate verbally or non-verbally. They use signs, symbols, sound or paralinguistics means to communicate a message. Semiotics is concerned with the production and interpretation of meaning. Its main principle is that meaning is made by the deployment of acts and objects which function as signs in relation to other signs. The complex meaning relations that can exist between one sign and another constitutes the system of signs. Those relations such as meronyms, co-meronyms, antonyms and super ordination/ subordination are deployed in space and time in the process of text productions.

The semiotic approach is in relation to semiotics which studies the sign language to provide the interchange of messages while communicating. Semiotics emphasizes the functions of signs which we use in order to communicate verbally, non- verbally and visually. Semiotics process prepare the future speakers for entrance into meaning and signification. Semiotic deals with the signs are observed in three kinds. The first one is symbol. The symbols in which the signifier does not resemble the signified are made in an arbitrary manners. The second one is an icon in which the signifier resembles the signified. The third one is index in which the signifier is not arbitrary but is directly connected in some way to the signified. Teachers of English with the knowledge of semiotics can easily use signs in their classroom activities. Especially in the communicative approach, teachers can make use of the signs to give examples while using verbal, non-verbal and visual communications in English language classes.

The semiotics approach is very effective in English language teaching to motivate learners of English to learn the target language with verbal, non-verbal and visual communication. Students are given opportunities to use the second language in real life situations so they can develop speaking, listerning, reading, and writing skills. Moreover they can understand the target language and communicate effectively as they arer presented a contrastive analysis between the first language and the second language, especially in cultural values. Students are provides with differences in cultural aspects between the first and second language, they are presented not only verbal, but also non-verbal channels in order to avoid any breakdown in communication in the target language, itself. Shortly, students can easily learn the grammatical structures of the target language and the effects of cultural values in the society where English language is spoken on the interpretation of the second language by the help of the semiotic approach.

COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTIONS

Referential functions:

The referential functions is the first and most obvious function of language. We use language to speak about something. The words used refer to a certain contect, a certain reality, which one must provide information about.

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

Emotive functions:

The so-called emotive or expressive function is aimed at communicating the presence and position of the sender in relation to his or her message: interjections, model adverbs, hints of judgement, use of irony, and so on.

Conative functions:

The conative functions is the 'you' function. It is directed towards the receiver. It is principally performed with the imperative or the vocative, i.e. the interpellation of whoever is being addressed.

Phetic functions:

The phatic functions is the most amusing. This is the function that envisages communication as an end in itself. When you say 'hello' on the telephone, you are saying nothing more than 'I'm listening'. i.e. 'I am in a situation of communication'.

Metalinguistics functions:

The metalinguistics functions is aimed at verifying that the sender and the receiver understand one another, i.e. that they are using the same code.

Poetic functions:

Finally, the last functions is the poetic function. This considers language in its aesthetic dimension. Plays on the sounds of words, alliteration, assonance, repetition, echo or rhythm effects all belong to this functions.

Questions:

1. Define language?
2. Define metalinguistics?
3. What is difference between the spoken modes and written modes?
4. Define object language?
5. Describe the different types of structural approach?

UNIT- II

PHONETICS, PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY

What is phonology?

Phonology is the study of the patterns of sounds in a language and across languages. Put more formally, phonology is the study of the categorical organisation of speech sounds in languages. How speech sounds are organised in the mind and used to convey meaning. In this section of the website, we will describe the most common phonological processed and introduce the concepts of underlying representations for sounds versus what is actually produced, the surface form.

Phonology can be related to many linguistics disciplines, including psycholinguistics, and conative science, socio-linguistics and language acquisition principles of phonology can also be applied to treatments of speech pathologies and the innovations in technology. In terms of the speech recognition, systems can be designed to translate spoken data into text. In this way, computers process the language like our brain do. The same processed that occur in the mind of a human when producing and receiving languages occur decoding languages is the popular intelligence system.

Phonology vs Phonetics:

Phonology is concerned with the abstract, whereas phonetics is concerned with the physical properties of sounds. In phonetics were we can see infinite realisations, for example every time you say 'P' it will slightly different than the other times you have said it. However in phonology all productions are the same sound within the language's phoneme inventory, therefore even though every'P' is produced slightly different

every time, the actual sound is the same. This highlights a key difference between phonetic and phonology as even though no two 'P' s are the same, they represent the same sounds in the language.

Phonemes vs Allophones:

Phonemes are the meaningfully different sound units in a language(the smallest units of sound). For example, 'pat' and 'bat' differ in their first phoneme: the "p" and "b" vowels are also phoneme, so "pat" and "per" differ by a phoneme, so "pat and "pet" by a phoneme, too (but phonemes do not always much up with spelling). When two words differ by a single phoneme they are known as a minimal pair. Allophones are different ways to the pronounces a phoneme based on its environment in a word. For example, the two allophones of /l) in 'little' are actually produced slightly differently, and the second deeper. These different 'l' s always occur in different environments in words, which is known a "complementary distribution".

ARTICULATORY SYSTEM

Articulatory systems:

The organs which are used in the articulatory system are called organs of speech. These organs are the Nostrils, the lips, the teeth , the tongue, and the palate. The nostrils, the lips, the teeth and tongue are easily recognisable. But the palate and its different parts are not easily recognisable.

Palate:

The palate is the roof of the mouth. The roof of the mouth is divided onto four parts. They are the teeth ridge, the hard palate, the soft palate, the uvula.

Immediately after the front teeth in the upper row, there is a hard surface on the roof of the mouth. This is called teeth ridge. It is also called alveolar ridge or the alveolum.

After the teeth ridge the roof of the mouth changes its shape but continues to be hard and bony. This part of the roof of the mouth is called the hard palate.

After the hard palate the roof of the mouth becomes soft and fleshy. This part of the roof of the mouth is called soft palate. It is also called the velum.

After the soft palate, there is a soft, fleshly part hanging loose. This is called uvula.

Airstream Mechanisms:

The phonatory system consists of the Larynx and the vocal cards. The Larynx is situated in the upper part of the Trachea. The two small structures present inside the larynx is called vocal cards. They look like lips. The vocal cards are attached at one end and the other end is left loose. So they can be brought too close to each other and can be moved far away from each other. When vocal cards are moved away form each other, there appear a space between them. That space is called Glottis. The air we breathe in and breathe out pass through the glottis. When the vocal cards are bought close together and air is forced between them, they

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

vibrate. The sound thus they produce is known as voiced sound. Examples of voiced sounds are b, v, a: when we produce certain speech sounds the vocal cards are drawn far away from each other and the air that passes through the wide-open glottis without affecting the vocal cards. The sounds that produce such are called Voiceless sounds or breath. Examples of breathed sounds are p,f,h. The following are Voiceless sounds in English.

1. [p] as in spoon [spu:n]
2. [t] as in stool [stu:l]
3. [k] as in school [sku:l]

The difference between breathed (voiceless sounds) and Voiced sounds are,

1. If breathed and voiced sounds are pronounced while the ears are closed, a loud buzzing sound is heard in the latter case but not in the former.
2. If the throat is touched by the fingers, a distinct vibration is felt when voiced sounds are pronounced, but not otherwise.
3. It is possible to sing tunes on voiced sounds but not on breathed ones.

VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

Vowels:

In the production of vowels the tongue is held at such a distance from the roof of the mouth that there is no frictional noise. When the tongue takes up a vowel position, a resonance chamber is formed. It modifies the quality of the tone produced by the voice. It gives rise to a distinct quality which we call a vowel. The number of possible vowels is large, but the number actually used in any particular language is small.

Classification of Vowels:

The classification of vowels depend upon the positions of the tongue and lips. It is convenient to classify vowels according to the position of the main part of the tongue. In the production of most vowels the tongue is convex to the palate. Therefore vowels may be conveniently arranged according to the position of the highest point of the tongue.

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess
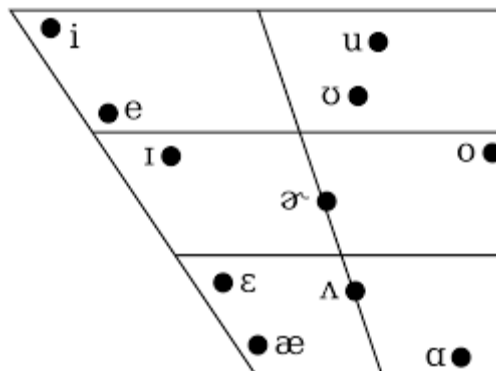
a) In the classification of vowel sounds the raising of the part of the tongue is the first essential element.

   There are front vowels. In the production of front vowels, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate.

   There are back vowels. In the production of back vowels, the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate.

   There are central vowels. In the production of central vowels, the tongue is raised between front and back.

b) The second essential element is the height to which the part of the tongue is raised.

   There are open vowels. In the production of open vowels, the tongue is as low as possible.

   There are close vowels. In the production of close vowels, the tongue is held as high as possible consistently with not producing a frictional noise.

c) The third essential element is the position of the lips. The lips may be held in a natural or neutral position. They may be spread out soas to leave a long narrow opening between them or they may be drawn together so that the opening between them is more or less round.

Consonants:

All other articulated sounds except vowels are called consonants.

a) All breathed sounds.
b) All voiced sounds formed by means of an obstruction in the mouth.
c) All those in which there is a narrowing of the air passage giving rise to frictional noise.
d) Certain which are gliding.

Classification of Consonants:

Consonants are classified in two ways. They are,

a) According to the organs which articulate them.
a) According to the manner in which the organs articulate them.

a) **According to the organs which articulate them:**

When consonants are classified according to the organs which articulate them, they are further classified into seven classes. They are,

1. Labial or Lip sounds
2. Dental
3. Alveolar
4. Palate-alveolar
5. Palatal
6. Velar
7. Glottal

b) **According to the manner in which the organs articulate them.**

When consonants are classified according to the organs which articulate them, they are further classified into eight classes.

1. Plosive
2. Affricate
3. Nasal
4. Lateral
5. Rolled
6. Flapped
7. Fricative
8. Semi vowel

Diphthongs:

When a sound is made by gliding from one vowel position to another it is called a diphthong. Phonetically diphthongs are represented by sequences of two letters. The first letter shows the starting point and the second indicates the direction of movement. ei and au are the examples of diphthongs. When we prolong the vowel(ai) we hear two distinct vowels. First it sounds like (a), a front open unrounded vowel and then it sounds like (i) front unrounded vowel between close and half close.

Diphthongs diagram

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess
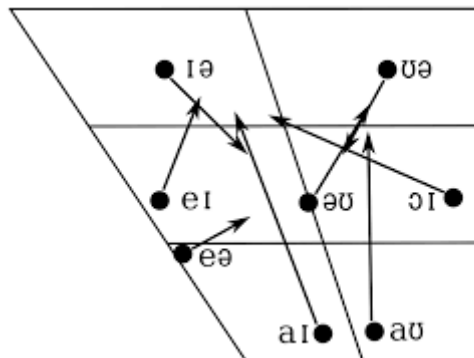
To be considered a diphthong, a vowel glide must belong to one syllable. When the word doing is articulated, after [d] the tongue takes the position necessary for the articulation of [u:]. Then it suddenly glides or moves to the position necessary for the articulation of [i]. this movement or glide is not considered a diphthong. This is because the first vowel[u:] belongs to the First Syllable of the word and the second vowel [i] belongs to the Second Syllable.

MORPHOLOGY

Morphology:

Morphology literally means 'the study of forms'. It has also been used to described that type of investigation which analyzes all those basic elements which are used in a language. The basic elements in the form of a linguistic message are more technically known as Morphemes.

Morphemes:

The definition of a morpheme is "a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function" one minimal unit of meaning is open, another minimal unit of meaning is re- (meaning again), and minimal unit of grammatical function is –ed (indicating past tense).

There are two types of Morphemes. They are free morpheme and bound morpheme.

Free morpheme:

Free morphemes is the morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words.

Eg: open and tour

Bound morphemes:

Bound morphemes is those which cannot normally stand alone, but which are typically attached to another form.

Eg: re-, -ist, -ed, -s

All affixes in English are bound morphemes. The free morphemes can be generally considered as the set of separate English word forms. When they are used with bound morphemes, the basic word-form involved is technically known as the stem.

For example: Undressed

Un	dress	-ed
Prefix	stem	suffix
(bound)	(free)	(bound)

Two types of free morphemes:

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

1. Lexical morphemes
2. Functional morphemes

Lexical morphemes:

The lexical morphemes is that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs which we think of as the words which carry the "context" of messages we convey. These from morphemes are called lexical morphemes. Eg: boy, man, house, tiger.

Functional morphemes:

The functional morphemes is that consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and pronouns. Because we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language, they are described as a 'closed' class of words.

Eg: and, but, when,because, above, in.

Bound morphemes:

1. Derivational morphemes
2. Inflectional morphemes

Derivational morphemes:

Derivational morphemes are used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. Thus, the addition of the derivational morpheme –ness changes the adjective good to the noun goodness.

A list of derivational morphemes will include suffixes such as the –ish in foolish, the –ly in badly, and the –ment in payment. It will also include prefixes such as re-, pre-, ex-, dis-, co-, un- and many more.

Inflectional morphemes:

Inflectional morphemes are not used to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word inflectional morphemes are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form. English has only eight inflectional morphemes.

Eg: noun+ -s,-s

verb+ -s, -ing, -ed,-en

adjective+ -st, -er

Derivational vs inflectional:

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

the difference between derivational and inflectional morphemes is worth emphasizing. An inflectional morpheme never changes the grammatical category of a word.

Eg: old and older are adjectives. The –er inflections simply creates a different version of the adjective.

Morphological description:

The inflectional morphemes –s is added to cat and we get the plurals cats. A related question concerns the inflections which makes went the past tense of go. If –al is the derivational suffix, as it is in forms like institutional in the following example.

Eg: legal.

The modern form legal is a borrowing from the latin from legal (of the law). Consequently there is no derivational relationship between the two forms in english. It has been pointed out that an extremely large number of English forms own their morphological patterning to languages like latin and greek. Consequently a fully description of English morphology will have to take account of both historical influences and the effect of borrowed elements.

Morphs and allomorphs:

If we consider 'phones' as the actual phonetics realization of 'phonemes' then we can purpose morphs as the actual forms used to realize morphemes. Thus, the form cat is a single morph realizing a lexical morpheme. The form cats consists of two morphs, realizing a lexical morpheme and inflectional morpheme.

Questions:

1. Define phonetics?
2. What is meant by morphology?
3. Define vowels and consonants?
4. Define free morpheme and bound morpheme?
5. Define cardinal vowels?

Dr. J Maria Monaliza Burgess

SYNTAX

Syntax is the study of rules which generate an infinite number of grammatical sentences. It helps to illustrate the patterns of English more effectively and clearly.

Syntax is a central component of human language. Language has been characterized as a systematic correlation between certain types gestures and meaning as represented below.

For spoken language ,the gestures are oral, and for signed language ,they are manual. Syntax refers to word order and depends on lexical categories (parts of speech)

<p style="text-align:center">GESTURES ←→ MEANING</p>

Linguistics takes a different approach to these categories and separate words into morphological and syntactic groups.

Linguistics analyses words according to their affixes and the words that follow or precede them.

This can be very well understood by the following definitions of parts of speech.

Open Class Words

Nouns------+ plural endings	Det.Adj---(this is called a noun phrase)
Birds	" the black cat"
Verbs------+ tense endings	Auxiliary---(this is called a Verb Phrase)
"Sings"	is singing/"have eaten"
Adjectives---+er/est	Det---------.Noun
"Small"	"the young child"
Adverbs Adj+ly	Adj or Verb or Adverb
"quickly"	"quickly answered"

Closed Class Words

Determiners	a,an,the,this,that,these,those,pronouns,	--Adj,N
	Quantities	'this heavy book'
Auxiliary Verbs	forms of be,have,may,can,shall	NP-----VP
Prepositions	at,in,on,under,over,of	---NP(this is called a Prepositional Phrase) 'in the drawer'
Conjunction	and,but ,for	--N or V or Adj
		"desks or Chairs"

V. Kavitha

Sub categorization defines the restrictions on which syntactic categories (parts of speech)can or cannot occur within a lexical item. Verbs are the most common categories that are sub categorized .Verbs can either be transitive or intransitive.Transitive verbs take a direct object, while intransitive verbs taken an indirect object (usually they need a preposition before the noun)

Transitive verb: to eat.   I ate a pear(direct object)

Transitive: to sit.   I was sitting on the chair (indirect object)

Individual nouns can also be sub categorized. For example the noun idea can be followed by a Prepositional phrase

Immediate constituent (IC) analysis

In order to study the structure of a sentence the structural linguists thought of dividing a sentence into its immediate constituents or(ICs) The principle involved was that of splitting a sentence into two, further splitting these two parts into another two, and continuing the segmentation till the smallest unit, the morpheme was arrived at.

A Young girl with an umbrella chased the boy.

This sentence can be divided into two groups as follows.

A Young girl with an umbrella   chased the boy
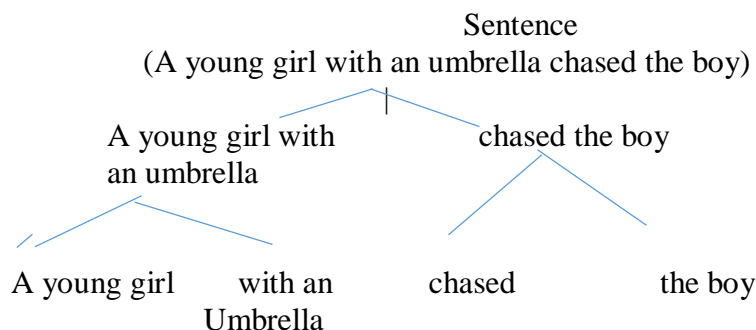   1   2

The two parts of the sentence as shown above or called constituents of the sentence.

Now 1 and 2 can be further divided into natural groups as follows.

A young girl   with an umbrella   chased   the boy
  1-A   1B   2A   2B

1A and 1B are the constituents of 1 while 2A and 2B are the constituents of 2.

The above information can be shown in the form of a tree diagram as follows:

                  Sentence
(A young girl with an umbrella chased the boy)

A young girl with   chased the boy
an umbrella

A young girl   with an   chased   the boy
         Umbrella

Now 1-A,1-B,2-Aand 2-B can be further sub divided into smaller constituents as follows:

A young girl   with an umbrella

A   young girl   with   an umbrella

Young   girl   an   umbrella

Chased   the boy

Chase   past

                the   boy

V. Kavitha
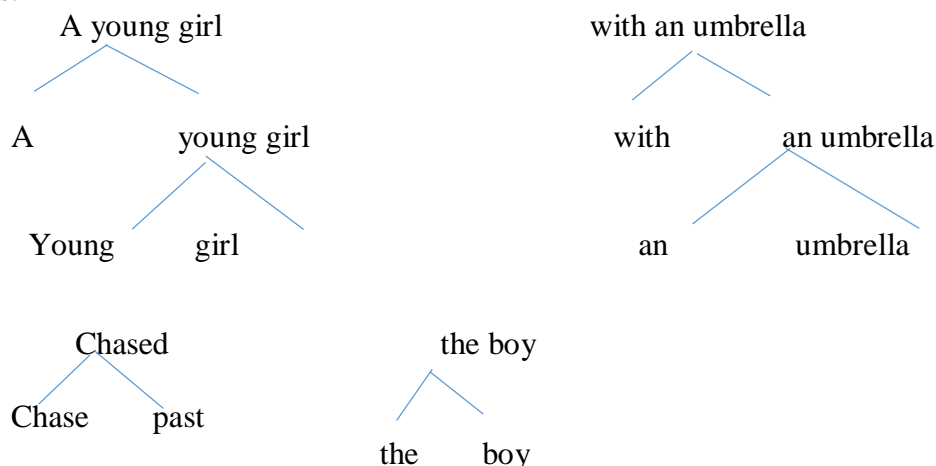
This type of analysis of a sentence is called Immediate Constituent Analysis. Every constituent is a part of a higher natural word group and every constituent is further divided into lower constituents. This process goes on till one arrives at the smallest constituent ,morpheme that can no longer be further divided..

These constituents can also be labelled as belonging to different grammatical constituents like Noun phrase, Verb phrase, Adverbial and Prepositional phrase which can be further divided into categories such as Noun ,Adjective, Verb and Tense Morpheme. Different methods are used for showing the immediate constituents.

S

NP   Pred.phr

NP   Prep.Phr   VG   NP

Det   Prep   NP   Tense   V   det   N

Adj   N   Past   Art

Art Adj   det   chase   the   boy

A   young   girl   with   Art   N

An   umbrella
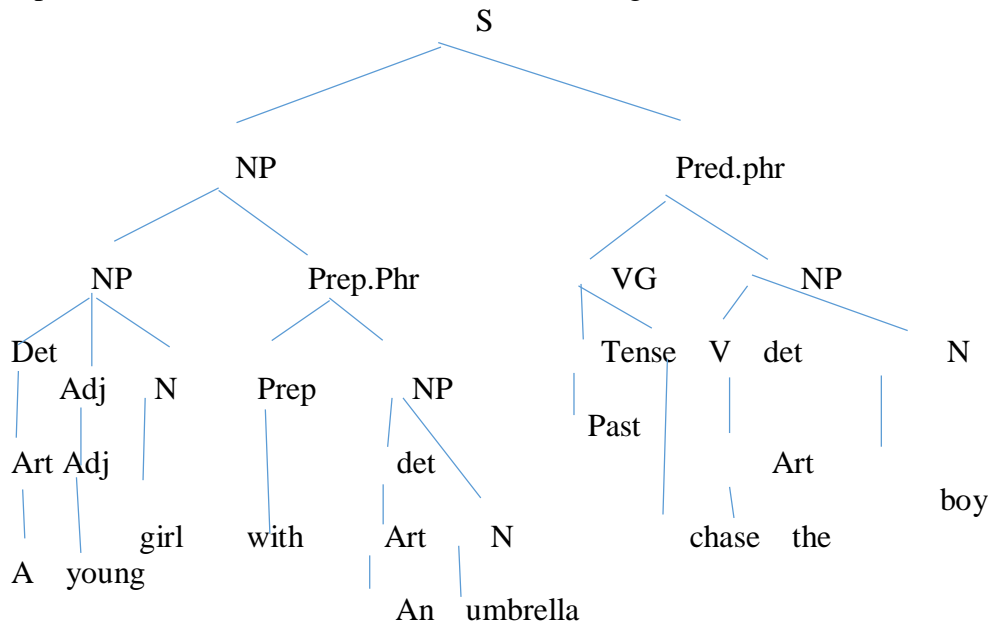
Now the question arises as to how one should make the cuts. The answer lies in the notion of 'expansion 'A sequence of morphemes that patterns like another sequence is said to be an expansion of it. One sequence can, in such cases, be replaced by another similar sequence patterns will appear in the same kind of environment. Here is an example of similar sequences in expansion that can fit into same slot..

1 Daffodils.

2 Yellow daffodils.

3 The yellow daffodils.

4 The yellow daffodils with a lovely look.

The elements 1,3,4 are expansions in the above set, i.e " daffodils" is the head word where as the other words in 2,3,and 4 are modifiers. Incidentally   the set of examples given above can be grouped under the term Noun Phrase(NP)

A noun phrase may be a single word, a single noun or pronoun or group of words that belong with the noun and cluster around it. A noun phrase has in it a noun(a Headword) and certain modifiers. Generally, a noun in a noun phrase (optionally) has the following modifiers appearing before it in the given order:

1 *Restrictor*: Words like: especially, only, merely, just, almost, particularly, even

2 *Pre- determiners*: Words like: half, double, both one- third, twice, all of

3 *Determiners*: These words includ

e a) *Articles*: a/and, the

b*) Demonstratives*: this, that, these ,those

c) *Possessives*: my ,his-own,Ram's

V. Kavitha

4 *Ordinals:* words like: first, third, last, next

5 *Quantifiers*: words like: many, several, few ,less

6 *Adjective phrase*: good, long ,tall or intensifier and adjective .e.g very good or adjective and e.g   good nice looking

7 *Classifier:* City College

              Leather purse

              Summer dress

  The Verbal Group(VG) The Verbal group generally immediately follows the NP in a typical English sentence.

e.g Ram   plays

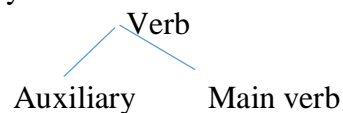   NP.   VG

    Ram   is playing

    NP   VG

    Ram   has been playing

    NP   VG

    Ram   can play

    NP   VG

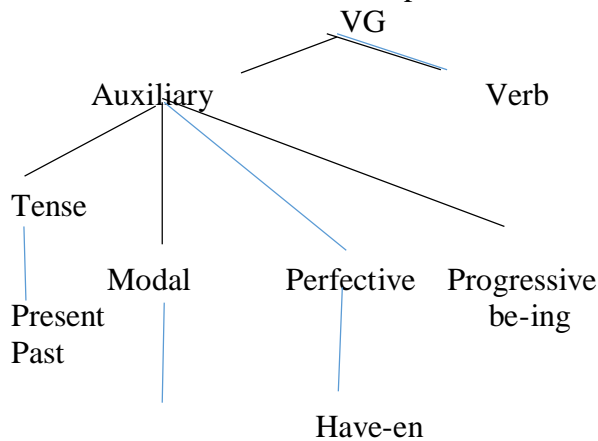The main verb in all these sentences is play.The Verbal group consists of the main verb and auxiliary.

                                Verb

                  Auxiliary   Main verb

Auxiliary is made up of the tense and any one or more of the following items:

.   . Modal(auxiliaries like   can, may ,will,shall,must)

     Perfective (marked by have +en,where en is a marker of the past participle morpheme)

     Progressive (marked by be + ing)

The whole information can be presented in the form of a tree diagram.

                             VG

             Auxiliary   Verb

Tense

      Modal   Perfective Progressive

Present   be-ing

Past

             Have-en

    Can

    Will

    Shall

    May

    Must

V. Kavitha

18

The modern linguists admit of only two tenses in English :Present and Past. English can express present time, past time and future time, but it does not mean that it has three tenses too.

He is playing a match now.
  (Present tense, Present time)
He is playing a match next Sunday.
  (Present tense, future time)
If I went to Bombay, I would bring a camera for you.
  (Past tense, Future time)

Tense here is a grammatical category seen in the form or shape of the verb. Normally, in English, tense is noted as
--e(s). (Present)
--e(d). (Past)
In the expression,   will play or will eat-- will is the present tense, the past form of which is **would.**

Adverbials

  Any group of words that performs the function of an adverb is called an adverbial. It may consist of a single word or phrase or a clause. It generally specifies time, place, manner, reason etc. and modifies a verb ,an adjective or a fellow adverb,
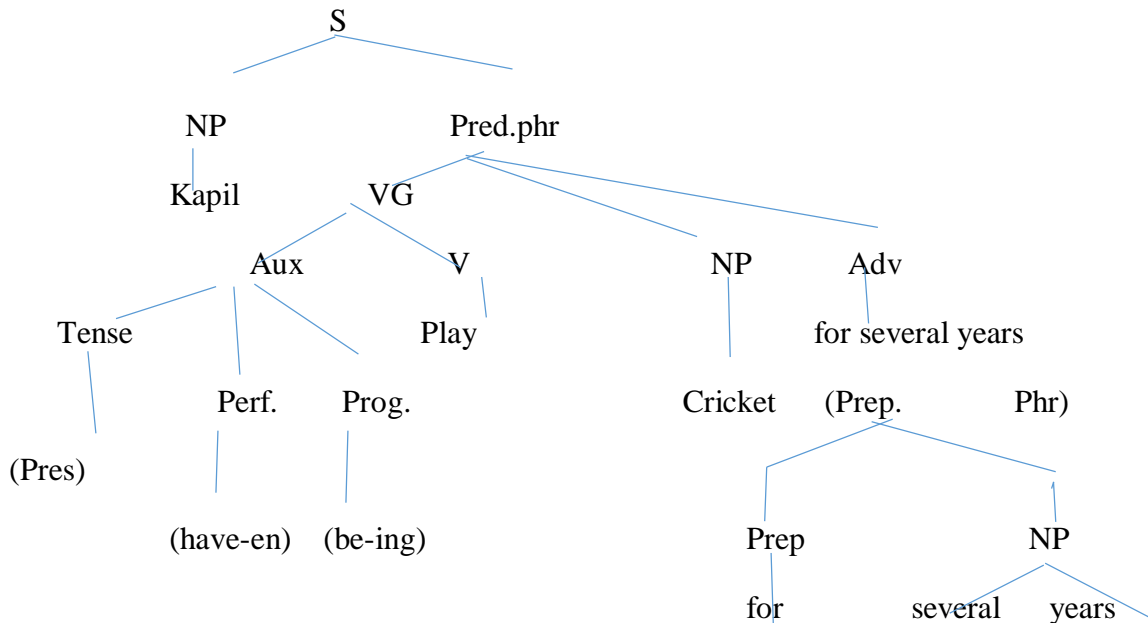   She slept soundly.
    He spoke fluently.
    We have approached him a number of times.

IC Analysis of Sentences

   A sentence is made up of a NP (subject) and a predicate phrase. This Predicate phrase apart from a compulsory verbal group, may optionally have one or more noun phrases prepositional phrases and verb and adjective phrase(s) Preposition phrase(s) Adverbials and adjective phrases.
For example

V. Kavitha

(1) Rahul Dravid has been playing cricket for many years.

```
                              S
                  ┌───────────┴───────────┐
                 NP                      Pred.phr
                  │              ┌─────────┼──────────────┐
                Kapil           VG                        │
                         ┌───────┴────┐            ┌───────┴───────┐
                        Aux           V           NP             Adv
                  ┌──────┴────┐       │            │       for several years
                Tense        │      Play        Cricket  ┌────┴────┐
                  │          │                         (Prep.      Phr)
               (Pres)       │                        ┌────┴──────────┐
                          Perf.    Prog.            Prep            NP
                            │        │               │        ┌─────┴─────┐
                        (have-en) (be-ing)          for    several      years
```

Limitations of IC Analysis

Immediate constituent analysis has its limitations. It is not possible to analyse such structures as they do not form proper grammatical groups.For example

She is taller than her sister

In this sentence the sequence -er than is not covered by IC analysis. Such a sequence can be explained in terms of the following constituents only:

She is tall

She has a sister

The sister is short.

Similarly there are several cases of sentences that are ambiguous e.g

Time flies. It can have two meanings

. Time is flying.

Time the flies.(*Time* as verb)

In that case only, proper labelling can solve the problem .There are some sentences that are structurally similar but semantically they are different.

John is easy to flatter.

John is eager to flatter.

These sentences cannot be explained by IC Analysis unless they are broken up into simple pairs of sentences.In the case of the two sentences above it is expected to have the following groups:

(It) is easy.Someone flatters John.

John is eager.He wants to flatter.

sometimes overlapping ICs also cause a problem. For example here is a sentence:

He has no interest in or or taste for music,

The sentence means to convey:

He has no interest in music.

He has no taste for music

The word number applies to both interest and taste. It is not possible to show that in IC analysis.

V. Kavitha

Also IC analysis fails to show such elements as remain unstated in a sentence e.g in the sentence

                    Hit the ball

Who is being addressed? The element" you" is missing here. So it is not possible to show this in IC analysis. IC analysis even fails to show relationship between sentence types such as active and passive, affirmative and negative statements, and questions.The following sentences are semantically similar but structurally different.

   i) Who does not love his motherland?
   (Everybody loves his mother land)
   ii)Kapil hit a six
   A six was hit by Kapil.
   Iii) Everybody in hall wept.
   There was none in the hall but wept.
   A six was hit by Kapil.

iii) Everybody in hall wept.
There was none in the hall but wept.

Phrase Structure Rules(PS RULES)

The structure of phrases ,can be summed up in the following notation that gives the structure of the concerned phrase in a straight line.Here is a summary of the PS-Rules.

  S ⟶ NP+Pred .phr
NP ⟶ Restrictor-Pre-determiner-determiner-Ordinal-
         Quantifier-Adjective Phrase-Classifier-noun

  Pred .phr ⟶ VG-   NP
                      Prep.phr
                      Adj.phr
                      Adverbial

  VG ⟶ Aux. +V
  Aux. ⟶ Tense+(Modal)+(Perfective)+(Progressive)
  Prep.phr ⟶ Prep+NP
  NP ⟶ NP+Prep.phr

Transformational Generative Grammar

   Noam Chomsky an American linguist in his book **Syntactic Structures** (1957) and later in **Aspects of the Theory of Syntax** (1965), tried to answer several questions left unanswered by the Structuralists. Structuralism analyses the data of a given Corpus by inductive methods .But Chomsky takes a deductive approach in building a theoretical account of grammar. His grammar attempts to explain how the competence of a native speaker of a language can enable that speaker to produce an infinite number of sentences from a finite set.   Not only are the sentences generated grammatical but they are also meaningful. While Structuralism took into account the form(Phoneme and Morpheme are units of form rather than meaning),TG grammar considers the relation between form and meaning as crucial in the generation of sentences that are both grammatical and meaningful. Chomsky gives the example of the sentence ' Colourless green ideas sleep furiously' to show that a sentence can be grammatically correct and yet not make sense, therefore the grammar does not generate sentences like these structural grammar also fails to account for ambiguities in sentences, since these occur at the level of meaning.

V. Kavitha

Deep and Surface Structure

Two different sentences as shown in these examples.

    Charlie broke the window.

    The window was broken by Charlie.

In traditional grammar the first is called an active sentence ,focusing on what happened to it. The distinction between them is a difference in their surface structure, that is, the different syntactic forms they have as individual English sentences. However, this superficial difference in form discusses the fact that the two sentences are very closely related even identical, at some less superficial level.

This other underlying level where the basic components(noun phrase + verb + noun phrase)shared by the two sentences can be represented, is called their **deep structure** The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented. That same deep structure can be the source of many other surface structures such as It was Charlie who broke the window and Was the window broken by Charlie? In short, the grammar must be capable of showing how a single underlying abstract representation can become different surface structures?

As the name implies, TG grammar is both transformational and generative. It goes a step further from the structural grammar. It not only analyses the sentences, divides them into parts and shows the function of various parts but also completely rearranges them and shows the interrelatedness between sentences.It may be pointed out, is simple, assertive, declarative and active in form. Here are some examples:

Kernel Sentences

    John is playing football.

    I wrote a letter.

    You spoke the truth.

Non -Kernel Sentences

    Is John playing football?(Interrogative)

    John is not playing football. (Negative)

    A letter was written by me. (Passive)

    Who wrote the letter? (Question form)

    You spoke the truth when you were forced .(Complex sentence)

    You spoke the truth but told a news story .(Compound sentence)

All the non-kernel structures or complicated structures can be thought of as having been derived from their kernal forms with the help of some *transformations*. A sentence like: *Where did you go yesterday*? can be derived from the kernel sentence: *You went somewhere yesterday* by applying certain transformations.

Transformational analysis not only shows the interrelatedness between sentences but also explains the ambiguities between sentences that appear identical but are *transforms* from different Kernels. Here is, for example,a sentence:

    Flying planes can be dangerous.

The sentence is ambiguous for we cannot tell what is dangerous, the plane that fly or the act of flying planes.

However it can resolve the ambiguity by showing that some sentence can be analysed as being transforms from two different sets of kernel sentences. The present sentence can be derived from the following two difference sets:

a) Some people fly planes .This can be dangerous.

b) Planes fly. They can be dangerous.

Similarly, here is another set of sentences:

V. Kavitha

22

a) I expected Kapil to hit a six.

b) I asked Kapil to hit a six.

  The two sentences have the same surface structure but their deep structures are different .These deep structures are:

  (a) i) I expected (something)

     ii Kapil hits a six.

b) i I asked Kapil (something)

   Ii He hits a six

Another pair of sentences that can be quoted in this context is:

Raja is eager to please.

Raja is easy to please.

  The kernel sentences for (a) are:

  i)Raja is eager (for something)

  iiHe pleases(someone)

The kernel sentences for (b) however are:

  i) It is easy.

  ii)Someone   pleases Raja.

  Here a set of two sentences have same surface structure but different deep structures. It is through TG grammar alone that one can apply different transformations to the kernel sentences to arrive at the desired surface structures.
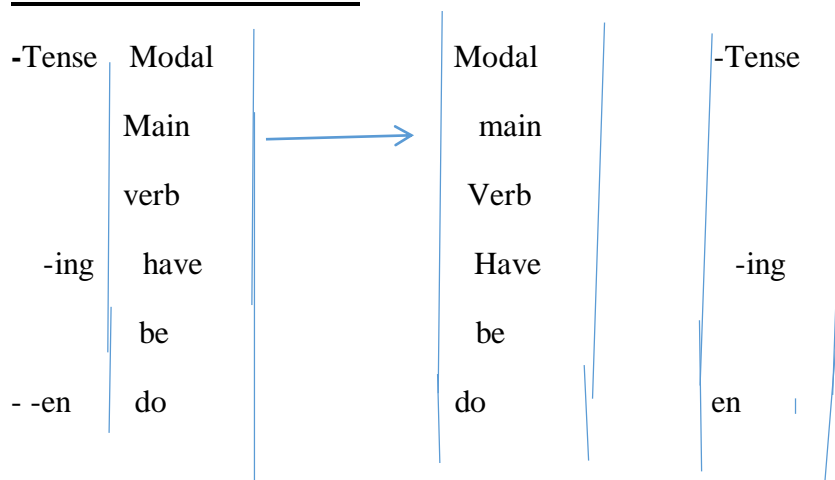
    It must by now be apparent that a kernel sentence has to be first analysed with the help of Phrase structure rules as discussed under Immediate Constituent Analysis and then made to pass through transformation rules to arrive at a surface structure. A kernel sentence is the deep structure to which a string of transformations is applied to generate the surface structure .TG grammar is revolutionary in the sense that it presents a system that gives us an idea of the possible process in which a child learns a language or produces an infinite variety of sentences many of which he or she has not heard earlier. Thus TG grammar illustrates how we get from one state ,or stage in language to another.It does of great many of the possible sentences in the language. A native speaker of a language understands both, the deep structure as well as the surface structure of a sentence.

Transformational Rules

Rule I: Interrogative rule

NP-Tense	be	Interrogative	be
	Have	→	have
	Modal		modal
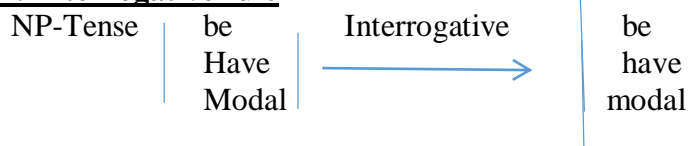
Rule II :Affix Switch rule

-Tense	Modal		Modal	-Tense
	Main	→	main	
	verb		Verb	
-ing	have		Have	-ing
	be		be	
- -en	do		do	en

V. Kavitha

Here are some examples involving the application of these rules for deriving the surface structure of sentences from their kernels.

1 Surface structures: Is he sleeping?

  The Kernel sentence or the deep structure in the case of the sentence is: He is sleeping.

Analysis: He-pres-be-ing- sleep

Interro:Pres-be-he -ing- sleep

Affix:. be-pres-he -sleep-ing

      (is)   (sleeping)

2   Has Ram been playing a match? (Surface Structure)

   Ram has been playing a match. (kernel)

   Analysis:Ram-pres-have-en-be-ing-, play- a match.

   Interr: Pres-have-Ram-en-be-ing-play-a match.

   Affix: have-pres-Ram-be en- playing a match.

         (has)   (been)   (playing)

Rule III

Do- support- rule.

     In some sentences, a do- support has to be supplied. Here is an example

  Surface structure: Did John see her.

  Kernel sentence: John saw her.

  Analysis: John-past-see-her.

  Here is a situation where as a result of the interrogative rule ,only the tense is placed outside the NP as there is no be or have or modal attached to the tense.Now the tense is a Bound Morpheme . It cannot stand alone.It must be attached to some verbal element(not to any NP like John) therefore, a dummy verb namely do, is supplied here to be attached to the tense.   This rule is called do- support rule .It says support the tense with do when tense is followed by a non -verbal item. So the third step in the above series of transformations is:

Do- support :past-do- John- see -him.

Now, one can apply the affix- switch rule

Affix :do- past- John -see- him.

Example   :Derive the structure: Did Sita accept your proposal?

Kernel: Sita accepted your proposal.

Analysis: sita- past- accept- your- proposal.

Interr: Past- Sita- accept -your-proposal.

Do support:plast -do- Sita- accept- your- proposal.

Affix: do- past- Sita -accept- your-proposal.

Wh- type question

  In order to drive Wh type questions transformation rules have to be applied. These rules are:

 iWh -Substitution.

 iiWh-Fronting.

   The following examples will make it clear as to how, and in what order, these rules are applied.

Surface Structure: Why did you punish him?

Kernel: You punished   him for some reason.

V. Kavitha

Analysis: You- past -punish- him- for some reason
Wh- substitution: You- past- punish- him-why.
Interr: past- you- punish- him- why
Wh- front: Why- past- you -punish-him
Do- support: Why -past- do- you-punish-him.
Affix:Why-do-past-you-punish-him
            (did)
  It may be noted that the order in which the T- rules are applied is:
 I W-Wh -substitution
 ii I -Interrogative rule
  iiiW-wh- fronting
  Iv D- Do-support
  v A-Affix- switch rule
  A kernel sentence may need some or all of these transformations to arrive at the surface structure. The order of transformation rules.However remains the same in all cases.
  Negation rule is another of the important rules of transformation- This rule is applied as follows:

Tense-	Modal	Neg	Tense	Modal	
	Be	$\rightarrow$		be	-not
	Have			have	
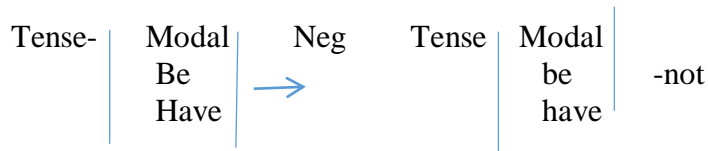
Note: If there is no modal or be or have, after the tense, not is placed directly after the tense ,i.e
   Tense   Neg   Tense- not

$\longrightarrow$
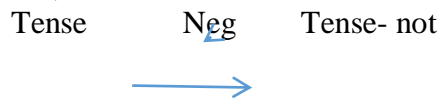
Examples
Surface structure I will not go.
Deep structure and Kernel sentence: I will go
Analysis: I-pres- will- go
Neg: I -pres- will- not- go
Affix:I will-pres-not-go
        (will)
<u>Negative Contraction rule</u>

  Not   neg.cont   n't
(Note:When not is contracted to n't,it is attached closely to the verbal item preceding it,i.e to modal ,be or tense,n't moves wherever these items move)
Example
Did not he play the match?
Kernel:He played the match.
Analysis:He -past-play-the match
Neg:He-past-not-play-the match.
Neg.Cont:He past-n't play-the match.
Interr:pastn't-he-play the match
Do -support:past-do-n't-he -play the match
Affix:do-past-n't-he-play-the match

          (didn't)

Passivation

  Passivization rule

                  Pass

NP1-Aux-V-NP2 ----->NP2-Aux-be-en-v-by-Np1

(Note:If the subject of the active sentence is one or someone;it can be deleted after passivisation by applying the Agent deletion rule)

Example

Surface Structure:She was seen by him.

Kernel:He saw her.

Analysis: He- past- see- her.

Pass: She- past- be- en -see-by him.

Affix: She- be- past-see-en-by-him.

           (was)   (seen)

  Transformational rules, as has been seen, help us to understand the operations that go on in the mind of the child as he frames complicated language structures in his mind. TG rules are generative in the sense that with the help of the   rules one can produce any number of possible sentences in the language.

Short questions

1. What is Deep Structure?
2. What are transformational rules?
3. Write a short note on IC Analysis.
4. Why do we use a tree diagram?
5. Give an IC analysis of the following
    a) He has already resigned.
    b) I plan to go there after the rains.

UNIT IV

SEMANTICS

  Semantics is the study of meaning in language.A language is used to express meanings which can be understood by others. But meanings exist in our minds and we can express what is in our minds through the spoken and written forms of language. The sound patterns of language are studied at the level of phonology and the organization of words and sentences is studied at the level of morphology and syntax. These are in turn organized in such a way that we can convey meaningful messages or receive and understand message.

Conceptual and associative meaning

  When the linguists investigate the meaning of words in a language they are interested in characterizing the conceptual meaning and less concerned with associative meaning of the words. Conceptual meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word.Some of the basic components of word like **needle** in English might include ' thin, sharp, steel instrument'. These components would be part of the conceptual meaning of **needle**. However, different people might have different associations or connotations attached

V. Kavitha

to a word like **needle**. They might associate it with ' pain' or ' illness' or ' blood' or ' drugs' or ' thread' or ' knitting' or ' hard to find' these associations may differ from one person to the next. These types of associations are not treated as part of the word's conceptual meaning. In a similar way, some people may associate the expression   *low-   calorie   *, when used to describe a product with ' healthy 'but this is not part of the basic conceptual meaning of the expression (i.e 'producing a small amount of heat or energy'). Poets,novelists, advertisers and lovers may be very interested in using words in such a way that certain associative meanings are evoked and literary critics often write about this aspect of language use.

Semantic features

  Semantic features is the study of basic conceptual meaning might be helpful in the study of language would be as a means of accounting for the 'oddness' as in the following sentences:

  The hamburger ate the boy .
  The table listens to the radio.
  The horse is reading the newspaper.
  The oddness of these sentences does not derive from their syntactic structure .According to the basic syntactic rules for forming English sentences they should have well- formed structures.

| NP | V | NP |
| The hamburger | ate | the boy |
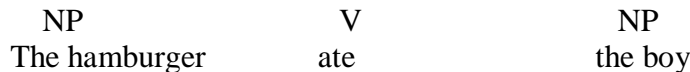
  This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. Since the sentence **The boy ate the hamburge**r is perfectly acceptable.

Semantic roles

  Instead of thinking of words as ' containers 'of meaning one can look at the roles they fulfill with in the situation described by a sentence. If   the situation is a simple event, as in The boy kicked the ball, then the verb describes an action(kick). The noun phrases in the sentence describe the roles of entities, such as people and things, involved in the action.

Some terms and distinctions in Semantics

Lexical and grammatical meaning

  Lexical or word meaning is meaning of individual lexical items. These are of two types: the open class lexical items such as nouns, verbs ,adjectives and adverbs, and the close class items such as prepositions, conjunctions and determiners.The open class items have independent meanings, which are defined in the dictionary. The closed class items have meaning only in relation to other words in a sentence; this is called *grammatical* meaning, which can be understood from a consideration of the structure of the sentence and its relation with other sentences. For example, in the

V. Kavitha

sentence ' The tiger killed the elephant ',there are three open class items: tiger, kill, elephant. Out of these, two are nouns and one is a verb. There is one closed class item- ' the'- which occurs before each noun. It has no independent reference of its own and can have meaning only when placed before the nouns.

This distinction may help in understanding ambiguity. Thus, if there is ambiguity in a sentence, this can be a lexical ambiguity or a grammatical ambiguity. For example, in the sentence :

I saw him near the bank.

There is lexical ambiguity, since the item ' bank' can mean(a) the financial institution or (b)   the bank of a river. However, in the case of:

'The parents of the bride and groom were waiting' there is grammatical ambiguity as the sentence structure can be interpreted in two ways:(a)the two separate noun phrases being 'the parents of the bride', and ' the groom';or(b) the single noun phrase ' the parents' within which there is the prepositional phrase' of the bride and groom' containing two nouns. The first of coordination gives us the meaning that the people who were waiting were the parents of the bride and the groom himself. The second type of coordination gives as the meaning that the people who were waiting were the parents of the bride and the parents of the groom.

The meaning of a sentence is the product of both lexical and grammatical meanings. This becomes clear if we compare a pair of sentences such as the following:

> The dog bit the postman.
> The postman bit the dog.

These two sentences differ in meaning. But the difference in meaning is not due to the difference in the meaning of the lexical items ' postman', and ' dog' but in the grammatical relationship between the two. In one case ' dog' is the subject and ' postman' is the object, in the other case the grammatical roles are reversed. There is also the relationship of these nouns with the verb 'bit'.In the first sentence, the action is performed by the dog ,which conforms to our knowledge about dogs, but in the second sentence, the action is performed by the postman which does not match with our knowledge about what postmen do,so there is a sense of incongruity about the second sentence.

Sense and Reference

It has been explained earlier that signs refer to concepts as well as to other signs. A sign is a symbol that indicates a concept. This concept is the reference, which refers in turn to some object in the real world,called the referent. The relationship between linguistic items(e.g words, sentences) on the non- linguistic world of experience is a relationship of reference. It can be understood by the following diagram given by Ogden and Richards(1923):

<p style="text-align:center">Concept</p>

<p style="text-align:center">Word(Symbol)_____Object(Referent)</p>
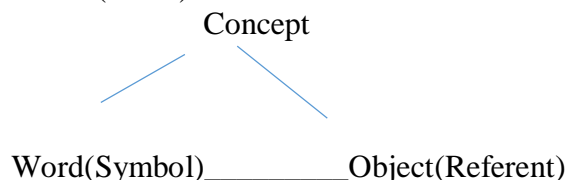
The objects in the real world are *referents,* the concept which a person has them in the mind is the *reference* and the symbol one uses to refer to them is the *word* for linguistic item.

V. Kavitha

The meaning of linguistic item can be explained by using other words. The relation of a word with another word is a sense -relation. Therefore, sense is a complex system of relationships that holds between the linguistic items themselves. sense is concerned with the intra- linguistic relations,i.e. relations within the system of the language itself such as similarly between words ,opposition, inclusion and pre-supposition .

Sense relations include homonymy,polysemy, synonymy and antonymy. Homonyms are different items(lexical items or structure words)with the same phonetic form. They differ only in meaning,e.g the item 'ear' meaning 'organ of hearing' is a homonym of the item 'ear' meaning a 'stem of wheat'.Homonymy may be classified as:

(a) homo graphy: a phenomenon of two or more words having the same spellings but different pronunciation or meaning,e.g lead/led=metal;lead/li:d=verb

(b) Homophony:a phenomenon of two or more words having the same pronunciation but different meanings or spellings,e.g sea/see,knew/new,some/sum/sun/son.

It is difficult to distinguish between homonymy and polysemy as in **polysemy,** the 'same' lexical item has different meanings,e.g ' bank', ' face': Two lexical items can be considered as synonyms if they have the same denotative, connotative and social meaning and can replace each other in all contexts of occurrence. Only then they can be absolutely synonymous. For example ' radio' and ' wireless' co-existed for a while as synonyms being used as alternatives by speakers of British English. But now, ' wireless' is not used frequently. what is considered as synonyms in a language are usually near- equivalent items ,or descriptive items. For example, 'lavatory', ' toilet', ' WC', ' washroom' are descriptive or near- equivalent synonyms in English.Other examples for polysemy are *foot*(of person,of bed,of mountain)or run (person does,water does,colors do). If the word has multiple meanings (i.e it's polysemous),then there will be a single entry,with a numbered list of the different meanings of that word.If two words are treated as homonyms, they will typically have two separate entries.In most dictionaries ,bank,mail,mole ,and sole are clearly treated as homonyms whereas face,foot,get,head and run are treated as examples of polysemy.

Antonyms are lexical items which are different both in form as well as meaning. An antonym of a lexical item conveys the opposite sense,e.g. single-married, good-bad.It is usually divided into two main types, 'gradable'(opposites along a scale) and 'non-gradable'(direct opposites).**Gradable** antonyms,such as the pair big/small,can be used in comparative constructions like *I'm bigger than you* and *A pony is smaller than a horse*. Also the negative of one member of a gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example ,the sentence *My car isn't old*,doesn't necessarily mean *My car is new* With non-gradable antonyms(also called 'complimentary pairs'),comparative constructions are not used.One doen't typically describe someone as deader or more dead than another.Also,the negative of one member of a non -gradable pair does indeed mean *My grandparents are dead* Other non-gradable antonyms such as *male/female,married/single and true/false*

Although one can use the ' negative test' to identify **non-gradable antonyms** in a language ,one usually avoid describing one member of an antonymous pair as the negative of the other. For example ,while undress can be treated as the opposite of dress,it doesn't mean not dress'.It actually means 'do the reverse of dress'.Antonyms

V. Kavitha

of this type are called **reversive**s .Other common examples are *enter/exit,pack/unpack,lengthen/shorten,raise/lower,tie/untie*

. But some times ,it gives rise to questions of what is an opposite or contrasted meaning. For example, the opposite of 'woman' could be ' man'or ' girl' since the denotation of both is different from that of ' woman'. Thus one can modify the definition of antonymy.It can be said that some items are less compatible than other items .There can be nearness of contrast or remoteness of contrast. Thus ' man' or ' girl' is contrasted to ' woman' but less contrasted than ' woman' and 'tree'. In this sense, ' woman' and ' man' are related just as ' girl' and ' boy' are related ,in spite of being contrasted. Other meaning- relations of a similar nature are: mare/ stallion ,cow/ bull, ram/ ewe etc., all based on gender distinctions. Another set of meaning relations can be of age and family relationship: father/son, uncle/ nephew, aunt/ niece.In this too there are differences in the structures of different languages .In English,there are usually different words to mark contrast in gender except in a few cases(e.g. elephant ,giraffe). The evolution of a complex system of sense relations is dependent on the way in which the objects of the world and environment are perceived and conceptualized by the people who make that language. For example Eskimos have many words related in meaning to ' snow' because snow in different forms is a part of their environment.

Another kind of sense relationship is hyponymy .Hyponymy is the relation that holds between a more general and more specific lexical item. For example ' flower' is a more general item, and ' rose', ' lily',etc. are more specific.The more specific item is considered a hyponym of the more general item-- ' rose' is a hyponym of 'flower'. The specific item includes the meaning of the general .When ' rose' is pronounced the meaning of 'flower' is included in its meaning.Rose is also hyponymous to ' plant' and ' living thing' as these are the most general categories.

When one considers hyponymous connections, can look essentially look at the meaning of words in some type of hierarchical relationship.One can represent the relationships between a set of word such as *animal,ant,asp,banyan,carrot,cockroach,creature,dog,flower,horse,insect,living thing pine ,plant,poodle,rose,snake,tree and vegetabl*e as a hierarchical diagram.

V. Kavitha
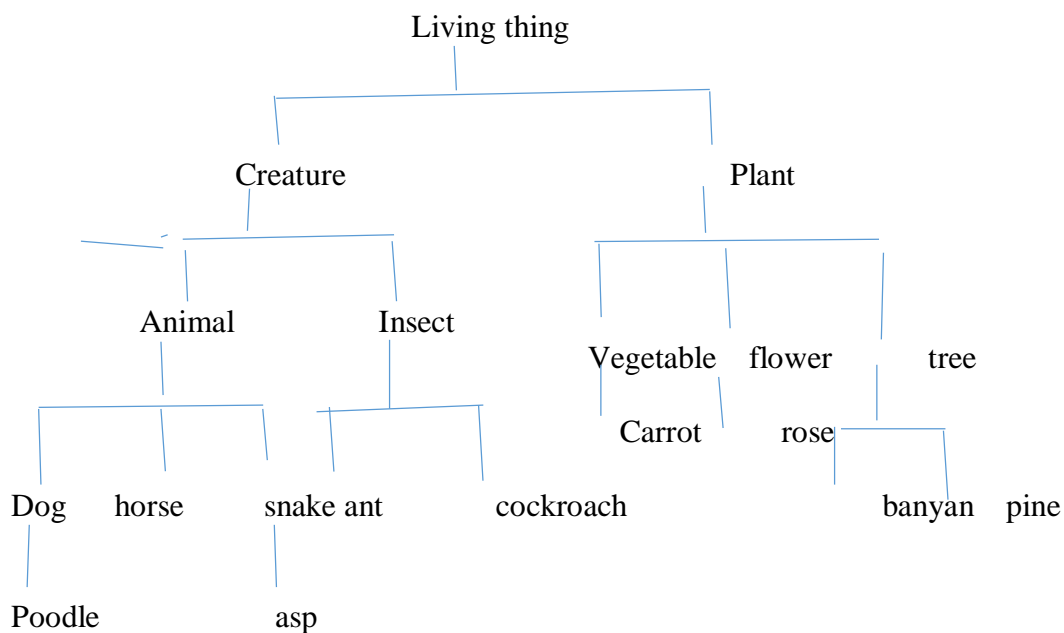
Looking at the diagram,one can say that "*horse* is a hyponym of *animal*" or "*cockroach*" is a hyponym of *insect* '.In these two examples ,animal and insect are called the **superordinate** (=higher level) terms.One can also say that two or more words that share the same superordinate term are co-hyponyms and the superordinate term is *animal.*

The relation of hyponymy capture the concept of 'is a kind of',as when the meaning is given of a word by saying,"an asp is a kind of a *snake*".Words such as *punch,shoot* and *stab*,describing 'actions',can all be treated as co-hyponyms of the superordinate term *injure.*

Prototypes

While the words *canary,cormorant,dove,duck,flamingo,parrot,pelican and robin* are all equally co-hyponyms of the superordinate *bird*,they are not all considered to be equally good examples of the category 'bird' .According to some researchers ,the most characteristic instance of the category 'bird' is robin.The idea of the 'characteristic instance'of a category is known as the prototype.The concept of prototype helps explain the meaning of certain words,like *bird*,not in terms of component features (e.g 'has feathers', 'has wings'),but in terms of resemblance to the clearest example.Thus even native speaker sof English might wonder if *ostrich or penguin* should be hyponym sof bird(technically they are),but have no trouble deciding about *sparrow or pigeon*.These last two are much closer to the prototype.

The combination of words to produce a single unit of meaning is also a part of sense- relations in a language. Compounds are made, which often do not mean the same as the separate words which they consist of. Thus while ' blackbird' can be understood to mean ' a bird which is black', ' strawberry' cannot be understood to mean a berry made of straw'. Similarly, ' fighter' can be considered to be a noun made up of the morphemes ' fight'+er, but 'hammer' cannot be considered as made up of ' ham'+ 'er'. Phrasal verbs and idioms are also a case of such sense relations. The verbs ' face up to', ' see through', ' look upon',etc. have a composite meaning.Collocations such as ' heavy smoker' and ' good singer' are not mere combinations of heavy+ smoker meaning ' the smoker is heavy' or ' good+ singer'. They mean ' one who smokes heavily' or ' one who sings well'.The collocated unit has a meaning which is a composite of both that is why one cannot say 'good smoker' and ' heavy singer'. All these sense- relations are peculiar to a language and every language develops its own system of sense- relations.

Sentence- meaning and Utterance- meaning

A distinction may be drawn between sentence-meaning and utterance- meaning. This is because a speaker may use a sentence to mean something other than what is normally stated in the sentence itself. Sentence meaning is a combination of lexical and grammatical meaning .In addition to this, intonation may also affect sentence meaning. For example, ' I don't like *coffee*' means that the speaker does not like coffee, but may like some other drink; ' I don't like coffee' means that the speaker doesn't like coffee but someone else does. Speakers can use intonation to change the emphasis and thus the meaning of the sentence.

Further, a sentence may be used by a speaker to perform some act, such as the act of questioning, warning, promising, threatening,etc.Thus a sentence such as ' Its cold in here' could be used as an order or request to someone to shut the window, even

though it is a declarative sentence. Similarly, an interrogative sentence such as ' Could you shut the door?' can be used to perform the act of requesting or commanding rather than that of questioning (The speaker is not asking whether the hearer is able to shut the door ,but is requesting the hearer to actually do the action).Usually such use of sentences is so conventional that one do not stop to think of the literal sentence meaning. If one responds to the speakers act of requesting,etc., which is the utterance meaning. This is the meaning that a sentence has when a speaker utters it to perform some act, in particular appropriate circumstances.

Entailment and Presupposition

One sentence may entail other sentence-that is include the meaning of other sentence in its meaning, just as hyponymy includes the meaning of other word. For example, the sentence 'The earth goes round the sun' and entails (includes) the meaning, The earth moves'.

A sentence may presuppose other sentences,e.g the sentence 'Shiva's son is named Ganesh' presupposes a sentence ' Shiva has a son'. Presupposition is the previously known meaning which is implied in the sentence. While entailment is a logical meaning inherent in the sentence ,presupposition may depend on the knowledge of the facts shared by the speaker and the hearer.

Short Questions

1. How is the term 'prototype ' used in Semantics?
2. What is the basic lexical relation each pair of words listed here?
   a) damp/moist b)furniture/table c) move/run d) deep/shallow e)marrried/single
     f) peace/piece
3. Which of the following opposites are gradable,non-gradable, or reversives?
   a) absent/present b) appear/disappear c) fail/pass d)fair/unfair e)fill it/empty it
   f) high/low
4. Using semantic features,how would you explain the oddness of these sentences?
   a) The television drank my water.b) His dog writes poetry.
5. Define polysemy with examples.

V. Kavitha

THE IMPORTANCE OF LINGUISTICS: Every language is a system. In earlier times, the study of language was considered to be the study of the grammar of some prestigious or classical language such as Latin, Sanskrit, or Greek.Linguistics can be understood as a science, in both general and specific terms. Generally, we use the term 'science' for any knowledge that is based on clear, systematic and rational understanding. Thus we often speak of the 'science of politics' or statecraft, or 'the science of cooking'. This study proceeds by examination of publicly verifiable data obtained through observation of phenomena, and experimentation; in other words, it is empirical and objective.

Linguistics studies language. Language is a phenomenon which is both objective and variable. Like natural phenomena in the physical world, like organisms in the living world, it has a concrete shape and occurrence. In the same way as a physicist or chemist takes materials and measures their weights, densities etc. to determine their nature, the linguist studies the components of language. e.g. observing the occurrence of speech-sounds, or the way in which words begin or end. Language, like other phenomena, is objective because it is observable with the senses, i.e., it can be heard-with the ear, it can be seen when the vocal organs are in movement, or when reading words on a page.

  Linguistics shares some of the characteristics of empirical science, it is also a social science because it studies language which is a form of social behaviour and exists in interaction between human beings in society. Language is also linked to human mental processes.Thus, linguistics is both an empirical science and a social science. In fact. it is a human discipline since it is concerned with human language; so it is part of the study of humanities as well. This includes the study of literature, and appreciation of the beauty and music of poetry.

In understanding language, humankind can understand itself. Moreover, since every branch of knowledge uses language, linguistics is central to all areas of knowledge. The traditional distinctions of science, art and humanities are not relevant for linguistics. As Lyons puts it, linguistics has natural links with a wide range of academic disciplines. To say that linguistics is a science is not to deny that, by virtue of its subject matter, it is closely related to such eminently human disciplines as philosophy and literary criticism.

Linguistics, today is a subject of study, independent of other disciplines. Before the twentieth century, the study of language was not regarded as a separate area of study in its own right. It was considered to be a part of studying the history of language or the philosophy of language, and this was known not as linguistics,but as philosophy. So, 'Linguistics' is a modern name which defines a specific discipline, in which we study language not in relation to some other area such as history or philosophy, but language as itself, as a self-enclosed and autonomous system, worthy of study in its own right. It was necessary at the beginning of the growth of modern linguistics to define this autonomy of the subject; otherwise, it would not have been possible to study the language system with the depth and exhaustiveness which it requires. However, now

S K VENNILA

we acknowledge that while linguistics is a distinct area of study, it is also linked to other disciplines and there are overlapping areas of concern.

The main concern of modern linguistics is to describe language, to study its nature, and to establish a theory of language. That is, it aims at studying the components of the language system and to ultimately arrive at an explanatory statement on how the system works. In modern linguistics, the activity of describing the language system is most important, and so modern linguistics is generally known as descriptive. But linguistics has other concerns as well, which fall within its scope, and these include historical and comparative study of language. These differ from the descriptive approach in their emphasis; otherwise, these approaches also involve description of language.

BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS :

The core of linguistic studies is the study of language structure at different levels as discussed above. In the growth of modern linguistics as an autonomous field of knowledge, it has been necessary to emphasize this aspect of linguistics since no other field of study describes language structure systematically and completely. However, there are many areas of human activity and knowledge in which language plays a part and linguistics is useful in these areas. The study of language in relation to the many areas of knowledge, where it is relevant, has led to the growth of many branches of linguistics. Thus, the scope of linguistics has grown to include these branches

Like other sciences, linguistics has a 'pure' or 'theoretical' aspect which is concerned with the building of theories about language and with description and analysis of particular levels of language such as phonology and syntax without regard to any particular applications that these may have. It also has an 'applied' aspect which is concerned with the application of that knowledge in areas such as the learning and teaching of languages, or correction and improvement of speech disorders, or in helping us to appreciate the use of language in literature. Thus, 'applied linguistics' covers many of the branches of linguistics that explore the practical application of the theories, concepts and analyses provided by linguists. All the applications are first and foremost based on a thorough description of languages. As Corder writes:

"Whether it is speech therapy, psychiatry, literary criticism, translation,... what all these fields of application have in common is the necessity for descriptions of the various languages involved."

Various branches of linguistics have grown because language is intimately related both to the inner world of man's mind and to the outer world of society and social relationships. Each of these aspects has led to the study of psycho-linguistics and sociolinguistics, respectively.

Psycholinguistics: Since language is a mental phenomenon, mental processes are articulated in language behaviour. Psycholinguistics studies these mental processes, processes of thought, and concept formation and their articulation in language, which reveal a great deal about the structures of both human psychology and of language. 'Cognitive' psychology is the area which explores how meanings are understood by the human brain, how syntax and memory are linked,

how messages are 'decoded' and stored. Psycholinguistics also studies the influence of psychological factors such as intelligence, motivation, anxiety etc. on the kind of language that is understood and produced.

For instance, in the case of errors made by a speaker, there may be psychological reasons which influence comprehension or production that are responsible for the occurrence of an error. Our perception of speech sounds or graphic symbols (in writing) is influenced by the state of our mind. One kind of mental disability, for example, results in the mistakes made by children in reading when they mistake one letter for another (Dyslexia).

Psycholinguistics can offer some insights and corrective measures for this condition. Psycholinguistics is concerned with the learning of language at various stages: the early acquisition of a first language by children and later stages in acquisition of first and other languages. Psycholinguists attempt to answer questions such as whether the human brain has an inborn language ability structured in such a way that certain grammatical and semantic patterns are embedded in it, which can explain how all human beings are capable of learning a language. This exploration may lead us to determining whether all the languages in the world have some 'universal' grammar that lies in the mind of every human being and is transformed in particular situations to produce different languages.

Psycholinguistic studies in language acquisition are very useful in the area of language teaching because they help teachers to understand error production and individual differences among learners and thus devise appropriate syllabi and materials for them. One specialized area within psycholinguistics is neurolinguistics that studies the physiological basis of language and language disorders such as aphasia, loss of memory, etc.

Another relation of language with mind is that of logic. It was held by some ancient philosophers that the human mind is rational and capable of thinking logically and, therefore, language too is logically ordered and rational. Others held that, just as irrationality is present in the mind, irregularity or anomaly is present in human language. Since then there has been a debate about the nature of language and the relation between language and logic.

One of the problems discussed by philosophers of language is whether language can be an adequate medium for philosophical inquiry. Since all our thoughts are known to us through language, we must examine the kind of language we use when we approach philosophical issues and analysis.

Sociolinguistics: The branch of linguistics that deals with the exploration of the relation between language and society is known as sociolinguistics, and the sociology of language. Sociolinguistics is based on the fact that language is not a single homogeneous entity, but has different forms in different situations. The changes in language occur because of changes in social conditions, for example, social class, gender. regional and cultural groups. A particular social group may speak a different variety of a language from the rest of the community. This group becomes a speech community.

Variation in language may occur because the speakers belong to a different geographical region. Taking the example of English, we find that it is not a single language but exists in the form of several varieties. One kind of English is called R.P. (or Received Pronunciation). This kind of English is used in the south west of England and particularly associated with the universities of Oxford and Cambridge and the BBC. It is an educated and formal kind of English. But there are other varieties of English, such as the English that is spoken in the north of England, in Yorkshire and Lancashire; in Scotland (Scottish English); Wales (Welsh English), etc. A less educated variety of English is that spoken by working class people in London often called Cockney English. Then there are the varieties of English spoken by people of different countries around the world, e.g. American English, Indian English and Australian English.

Sociolinguistics is the study of language variation and change—how varieties of language are formed when the speakers belong to a geographical region, social class, social situation and occupation, etc. Varieties of a language that are formed in various geographical regions involve a change in the pronunciation as well as vocabulary. Such changes result in the formation of a distinctly different variety of the language or a dialect. Sometimes these changes may be present within the same geographical region due to the social differences between different economic sections. e.g. working class and aristocracy. These changes result in class-dialects.

In sociolinguistic studies, we consider the linguistic features of these dialects. e.g. syntax variations such as 'I've gotten it' or 'I ain't seen nothing' and lexical variations such as 'lift' (British English) for 'elevator' (American English). The study of the demarcation of dialect boundaries across a region and of specific features of each dialect is called dialectology. One dialect may be demarcated from another by listing a number of features which occur in a particular region.

The point at which a certain feature (of pronunciation or vocabulary) ceases to be prevalent and gives way to another feature is a dialect boundary or 'isogloss'. Dialects may acquire some importance and prestige and evolve into distinct languages. This usually happens when they are codified, e.g. in written and literary forms, and when their grammar and lexicon are standardized.Usually, this happens when the dialect is given political and social importance. That is why it is said "A language is a dialect with an army, and navy". Sociolinguists chart the evolution of such changes

Variation in language may also be due to the specific area of human activity in which language is used. Again taking the example of English, this language is used in different fields—of law, religion, science, sports etc. In each of these areas there is a specific vocabulary and manner of use of English, which defines the legal language, the scientific language etc. This variety of language according to its use, is called register. Sociolinguists examine the particular characteristics of different registers, i.e. legal register, scientific register, etc., to see how these differ. This kind of study is useful because it enables us to understand how language-use is tied to a social context. The notion of register is important in showing that language use in communication is not arbitrary or uncontrolled, but is governed by rules of situational and contextual appropriateness.

S K VENNILA

The sociology of language includes the study of attitudes to language held by social groups, for instance, they may consider some languages or dialects as more (or less) important. It includes the planning of language education, e.g. which languages should be the medium of instruction, which language should be taught as second language; and language policy, i.e. which languages are legally and constitutionally recognised and what status they are given. The sociology of language is thus linked with other aspects of our social world, the political, economic, educational, etc.

Anthropological Linguistics: The evolution of language in human society and its role in the formation of culture is another aspect of language, society and culture. This is studied in anthropological linguistics. The structure of language has a social and cultural basis in the same way as other customs, conventions and codes such as those related to dress and food. Each culture organises its world in its own way, giving names to objects, identifying areas of significance or value and suppressing other areas.

Language becomes a way of embodying the world view and beliefs of a culture, and the things that culture holds sacred; for example, a culture in which family relationships occupy the most significant position will have many kinship terms in their language, with each relationship specified by a particular term. If you compare the kinship terms in English such as grandfather, grandmother, uncle, aunt, etc. with kinship terms in Hindi, you will find that there are many more such terms in Hindi specifying particular relationships such as a paternal/maternal grandfather (cia : da/na : na) and many such terms that specify the relationships elaborately.

Similarly, terms specifying colours, emotions, natural phenomena, and so on are differently organised in every culture, and reveal a great deal about that culture. The study of these specific cultural elements is called the ethnography of a culture. A specific way of communication in a culture is thus studied as the ethnography of communication. Anthropological studies have explored the relation between language and culture. Language is invented to communicate and express a culture. It also happens that this language then begins to determine the way we think and see the world.

Since this language is the means by which we understand and think about the world, we cannot go beyond it and understand the world in any other way. This is the view expressed by the linguist B.L. Whorf whose hypothesis is that we dissect nature along the lines laid by our native language. There is still a debate about this, but it is true that to some extent we are bound to see the world according to the terms specified by our own language. These aspects of language and culture are still being discussed by anthropological linguists. philosophers of language and ethnographers.

Literary Stylistics : The study of variation in language and the use of language in communication has also led to new ways of studying literary texts and the nature of literary communication. If you consider again the notion of register discussed above, you may realise that register is in fact a kind of 'language' that is considered appropriate for a particular subject matter. e.g. the style of a religious sermon, the style of sports commentary. Similarly we may use

this notion to describe the style of a literary work. That is. we may describe its features at the levels of phonology. syntax, lexis, etc. to distinguish it from other texts and to appreciate how it achieves some unique effects through the use of language. This kind of study is called literary stylistics.

Literary writers use the system of language in their own way, i.e. they create a style. This is done by deliberate choice (e.g. out of a whole range of words available, they choose one which would be particularly effective), sometimes by deviation from or violation of the rules of grammar (e.g. 'he danced his did' in Cummings' poem). Poets and even prose writers may invert the normal order of items in a sentence (e.g. 'Home is the sailor...') or create a pattern by repetition of some items (e.g. the sound /f/ in 'the furrow followed free'). By these and other devices, they are able to manipulate language so that it conveys some theme or meaning with great force and effectiveness.

In literary stylistics. we read the text closely with attention to the features of language used in it, identifying and listing the particular features under the heading of 'lexis', 'grammar', 'phonology' or 'sound patterns'. When we have obtained a detailed account of all these features, we co-relate them or bring them together in an interpretation of the text. That is, we try to link 'what is being said' with 'how it is being said,' since it is through the latter that writers can fully express the many complex ideas and feelings that they want to convey. Stylistic analysis also helps in a better understanding of how metaphor, irony, paradox. ambiguity etc. operate in a literary text as these are all effects achieved through language and through the building up of a coherent linguistic structure.

Computational linguistics:It is an interdisciplinary field concerned with the computational modelling of natural language, as well as the study of appropriate computational approaches to linguistic questions. In general, computational linguistics draws upon linguistics, computer science, artificialIntelligence, math, logic, philosophy, cognitive science, cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics, anthropology and neuroscience, among others.

Traditionally, computational linguistics emerged as an area of artificial intelligence performed by computer scientists who had specialized in the application of computers to the processing of a natural language. With the formation of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL)[and the establishment of independent conference series, the field consolidated during the 1970s and 1980s. The term "computational linguistics" is nowadays (2020) taken to be a near-synonym of natural language processing (NLP) and (human) language technology. These terms put a stronger emphasis on aspects of practical applications rather than theoretical inquiry and since the 2000s, they have largely replaced the term "computational linguistics" in the NLP community.

Computational linguistics has both theoretical and applied components. Theoretical computational linguistics focuses on issues in theoretical linguistics and cognitive science. Applied computational linguistics focuses on the practical outcome of modeling human language use. Theoretical computational linguistics includes the development of formal theories of grammar and semantics, often grounded in formal logics and symbolic (knowledge-based)

S K VENNILA

approaches.The Association for Computational Linguistics defines computational linguistics as the scientific study of <u>language</u> from a computational perspective. Computational linguists are interested in providing <u>computational models</u> of various kinds of linguistic phenomena.

Computational linguistics is often grouped within the field of artificial intelligence but was present before the development of artificial intelligence. Computational linguistics originated with efforts in the United States in the 1950s to use computers to automatically translate texts from foreign languages, particularly Russian scientific journals, into English. Since computers can make <u>arithmetic</u> (systematic) calculations much faster and more accurately than humans, it was thought to be only a short matter of time before they could also begin to process language.

Computational and quantitative methods are also used historically in the attempted reconstruction of earlier forms of modern languages and sub-grouping modern languages into language families. Earlier methods, such as <u>lexicostatistics</u> and <u>glottochronology</u>, have been proven to be premature and inaccurate. However, recent interdisciplinary studies that borrow concepts from biological studies, especially <u>gene mapping</u>, have proved to produce more sophisticated analytical tools and more reliable results.[8]

When <u>machine translation</u> (also known as mechanical translation) failed to yield accurate translations right away, automated processing of human languages was recognized as far more complex than had originally been assumed. Computational linguistics was born as the name of the new field of study devoted to developing <u>algorithms</u> and software for intelligently processing language data. The term "computational linguistics" itself was first coined by <u>David Hays</u>, a founding member of both the <u>Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL)</u> and the <u>International Committee on Computational Linguistics</u> (ICCL).

To translate one language into another, it was observed that one had to understand the <u>grammar</u> of both languages, including both <u>morphology</u> (the grammar of word forms) and <u>syntax</u> (the grammar of sentence structure). To understand syntax, one had to also understand the <u>semantics</u> and the <u>lexicon</u> (or 'vocabulary'), and even something of the <u>pragmatics</u> of language use. Thus, what started as an effort to translate between languages evolved into an entire discipline devoted to understanding how to represent and process natural languages using computers.

Linguistics and Philosophy:It is the philosophy of science as applied to linguistics. This differentiates it sharply from the philosophy of language, traditionally concerned with matters of meaning and reference.

As with the philosophy of other special sciences, there are general topics relating to matters like methodology and explanation (e.g., the status of statistical explanations in psychology and sociology, or the physics-chemistry relation in philosophy of chemistry), and more specific philosophical issues that come up in the special science at issue (simultaneity for philosophy of physics; individuation of species and ecosystems for the philosophy of biology). General topics of the first type in the philosophy of linguistics include:

- What the subject matter is,
- What the theoretical goals are,
- What form theories should take, and
- What counts as data.

S K VENNILA

Specific topics include issues in language learnability, language change, the competence-performance distinction, and the expressive power of linguistic theories.

There are also topics that fall on the borderline between philosophy of language and philosophy of linguistics, of "linguistic relativity" ,language vs. idiolect, speech acts , distinction between locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, the language of thought, implicature, and the semantics of mental states, semantic compositionality, mental representation, pragmatics, and defaults in semantics and pragmatics.

In these cases it is often the kind of answer given and not the inherent nature of the topic itself that determines the classification. Topics that we consider to be more in the philosophy of language than the philosophy of linguistics include intensional contexts, direct reference, and empty names (see the entries on propositional attitude reports, intensional logic, rigid designators, reference, and descriptions).

1. Three Approaches to Linguistic Theorizing: Externalism, Emergentism, and Essentialism

1. The Externalists

2. The Emergentists

3. The Essentialists

	Externalists	Emergentists	Essentialists
Primary phenomena	Actual utterances as produced by language users	Facts of social cognition, interaction, and communication	Intuitions of grammaticality and literal meaning
Primary subject matter	Language use; structural properties of expressions and languages	Linguistic communication, cognition, variation, and change	Abstract universal principles that explain the properties of specific languages
Aim	To describe attested expression structure and interrelations, and predicting properties of unattested	To explain structural properties of languages in terms of general cognitive mechanisms and	To articulate universal principles and provide explanations for deep and cross-linguistically constant linguistic properties

	expressions	communicative functions	
Linguistic structure	A system of patterns, inferrable from generally accessible, objective features of language use	A system of constructions that range from fixed idiomatic phrases to highly abstract productive types	A system of abstract conditions that may not be evident from the experience of typical language users
Values	Accurate modeling of linguistic form that accords with empirical data and permits prediction concerning unconsidered cases	Cognitive, cultural, historical, and evolutionary explanations of phenomena found in linguistic communication systems	Highly abstract, covering-law explanations for properties of language as inferred from linguistic intuitions
Children's language	A nascent form of language, very different from adult linguistic competence	A series of stages in an ontogenetic process of developing adult communicative competence	Very similar to adult linguistic competence though obscured by cognitive, articulatory, and lexical limits
What is acquired	A grasp of the distributional properties of the constituents of expressions of a language	A mainly conventional and culturally transmitted system for linguistic communication	An internalized generative device that characterizes an infinite set of expressions