Bhavan's Sheth R A College of Arts and Commerce, Khanpur, Ahmedabad

English Core - Semester V – English Language and Spoken English (305 EA) (2020- 21)

University Paper Style (total 4 questions, 70 marks, 2.30 hours)

Topics	Units and Questions	Marks
Section – I (i) The origin of language (ii) The Indo-European family of languages (iii) Major influences on English - William Shakespeare - The Authorized Version - John Milton	Unit – I **The English Language** Page nos. 3-8 Que. 1 General question (1/2) (answer in 850-900 words) Or General question or two short notes	(17)
phoneme, allophone, IPA, phonology, morphology, syntax, etymology, discourse, dialect, grammar, lexicology, linguistics, lingua franca, first language, second language, foreign language, Language Acquisition, syllable, primary accent and secondary accent	Unit – 2 **Terminology for Language Study** Page nos. 8-16 Que. 2 Answer in brief (8/10)	(16)
Section – II (i) Introduction (ii) The Speech Mechanism (iii) The Description of Speech Sounds	Unit – 3 **Phonetics and Spoken English** (This topic is not discussed in these notes.) Que. 3 Short notes (3/4)	(17)
Phonetic transcription **NOTE**: <u>Model answers for units 3 and 4 are note included in this pamphlet</u>.	Unit – 4 **Phonetic transcription of words and vice versa** Que. 4 (a) Phonetic transcription (10/12) (b) MCQs (**Units I, II and III**)	(10) (10)

Model Question Paper
Semester V – Intro. to English Language and Spoken English (305 EA)

1. (a) Write a note on the Indo-European family of languages. (17)
Or
Write a note on different theories of the origin of language.

2. Write brief notes on any eight of the following: (16)

   (a) dialect (b) etymology (c) linguistics (d) morphology (e) grammar (f) IPA
   (g) lexicology (h) phonology (i) syntax (j) lingua franca

3. Write short notes on any three of the following: (17)

   (a) The Manner of articulation (b) The Organs of speech
   (c) The Classification of vowel sounds (d) The Speech Mechanism

4. (a) Give phonetic transcription of the following words (any **ten**): (10)

   thank, there, horse, cushion, field, piece, vain, look, particular, measure, about, trouble

(b) Choose the correct option: (10)

i. There are _____ vowel sounds in the British Received Pronunciation of English.

(a) 18 (b) 20 (c) 24 (d) 26

ii. The opening between the vocal cords is called _____.

(a) glottis (b) trachea (c) velum (d) larynx

iii. _____ provides the energy for the production of speech sounds.

(a) Mouth (b) heart (c) airstream (d) lips

iv. Which of the following is not an Indo-European language? _____.

(a) Russian (b) German (c) French (d) Turkish

v. About _____ English words have been first recorded in Shakespeare's plays.

(b) 1500 (b) 2000 (c) 2500 (d) 3000

vi. The Authorized Version of the Bible appeared in _____.

(a) 1610 (b) 1616 (c) 1604 (d) 1611

vii. For the majesty of style and the grandeur of the subject, _____ ranks with Homer and Virgil.

(b) Shakespeare (b) Milton (c) Dickens (d) Lamb

viii. Discourse is a piece of spoken or written language larger than a _____.

(a) sentence (b) paragraph (c) quatrain (d) stanza

ix. The smallest unit of sound is called _____.

(c) allophone (b) phoneme (c) morpheme (d) syllable

x. English is used as a _____ Language in India.

(a) Second (b) First (c) Foreign (d) Dead

Unit – I   (A) *The Origin of Language*

<u>Write a note on different theories about the origin of language as discussed by F T Wood</u>.

Introduction

The speculation about the origin of human speech is as old as history. But we do not know when and how it began. In 1861, the German philologist, Max Muller (1823-1900) published a list of theories concerning the origin of language. There is no scientific evidence to support these theories and nobody takes them seriously. Even their names are fanciful – the bow-wow theory, the ding-dong theory etc. Most of these speculative theories of language origin hold that speech began as an imitation of natural sounds and animal cries by the primitive man. The natural historian, Charles Darwin (1809-1882) commented:

> I cannot doubt that language owes its origin to the imitation and modification, aided by signs and gestures, of various natural sounds, the voices of other animals, and man's own instinctive cries.

Language is the principal means of human communication. The use of language is the most fundamental distinction between human and animal species. Human language is an open system which can generate any number of new sentences and new meanings. On the other hand, animal communication is more or less automatic, repetitive and biologically inbuilt. Human language probably evolved over a period of five to seven million years. Frederick T. Wood has discussed the following four theories of language origin:

<u>The bow-wow theory</u>:

The bow-wow theory proposes that the human speech began with the imitation of natural sounds - animal calls, bird songs, rushing water, whistling wind - by the early humans. This theory holds that the earliest speech sounds were onomatopoeic (imitating sounds). That is, the primitive man heard the sounds around him and used them to refer to particular things and animals. For example, the primitive man associated 'bow-wow', the dog's barking sound, with the animal itself. It is argued that the child also adopts a similar mode of expression. The bow-wow theory is also known as "sound mimicry theory."

There are quite a few words in English which seem to have association with sounds of things, birds or animals: cuckoo (the sound of the bird's song), gurgle (a bubbling sound), bang (a sudden loud noise), meow (the crying sound of cat), snake (the hissing sound of snake), wind (the whistling sound) etc. The bow-wow theory has its limitations. There are relatively very few onomatopoeic words in any language. On the other hand, there are innumerable words that have no association with natural sounds, for example - family, wait, honesty, visible etc. The bow-wow theory cannot explain how such words originated.

<u>The ding-dong theory</u>:

The ding-dong theory is associated with the eminent German scholar and philologist Max Muller. Both the bow-wow and the ding-dong theories speculate that human speech began with the primitive man's tendency to imitate the natural things around him. The only difference between the two is that the bow-wow theory states that the early man imitated sounds whereas the ding-dong theory talks of the imitation of the movements. Like the bow-wow theory, the ding-dong theory tells nothing substantial about the origin of language.

The ding-dong theory holds that the sense of rhythm (a pattern of sounds or movements) is innate in man and that the universe is also essentially rhythmic. The primitive man responded to the murmur of the stream or the swaying of the trees in the wind. The earliest speech sounds were produced partly in imitation of and partly in harmony with these movements. Bücher believes that the primitive man hummed or chanted to keep time while walking or working and the earliest human speech originated from these hums or chants.

The pooh-pooh theory:

The pooh-pooh theory holds that the earliest human speech began as the primitive man's automatic verbal or vocal responses to emotions or feelings like pain, surprise, fear, pleasure, wonder etc. It argues that the exclamations or interjections (words expressing sudden emotions) produced instinctively or unconsciously eventually led to the formation of words. The pooh-pooh theory assumes that our rational language is a refinement upon the involuntary (done unintentionally) sounds or cries made by the primitive man.

The pooh-pooh theory derives its name from the exclamation "pooh", which expresses contempt or impatience. "Pooh-pooh" is used as a verb. The main evidence for the pooh-pooh theory is the existence of some sounds (aah! oops!, wow!, huh! phew! etc) that are used as interjections. However, the limitation of the theory is that no language contains so many interjections to prove the origin of language from a few involuntary noises and cries evoked in response to feelings of pain, pleasure etc. We get to know nothing substantial about the origin of language from the pooh-pooh theory.

The gesture theory:

Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920), the German psychologist, advanced what we call the "gesture theory" of language origin. Later, it found support from Sir Richard Paget. Wundt believes that the earliest human communication began with signs and gestures of the hand. When two people do not share the same language, they communicate with gestures. In course of time, the primitive man advanced from sign language to spoken language as the gestures of the hand were accompanied by corresponding movements of the tongue, the lips and the jaw. Even now we use gestures to emphasize the message that our words convey.

Sir Percy Nun gives examples to explain the connection between words and gestures. He says that when we speak "I" or "me", the lips are drawn towards the speaker in the same way that he might point to himself with a finger. Likewise, when we speak "you" or "thou", the gestures point towards the person we address. The gesture theory of the origin of language sounds plausible but it cannot explain the vast jump the human language made from the gestural to vocal communication.

It is evident that the nineteenth century theories of language origin are intelligent speculations. The twentieth century research about language origin has been based on scientific methods and archaeological finds. Till date we do not know for sure how language began. The only appropriate answer to the question would be a shrug and a sigh. F. T. Wood comments:

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What precisely was the origin of this faculty (human speech) is still a matter of dispute, and many learned treatises have been written on the subject without any great measure of agreement being reached.

(B) *The Indo-European family of languages*

<u>Write a detailed note on the Indo-European family of languages</u>.

Introduction

A language family is a group of languages that are believed to have descended from a common source or parent language. There are about six thousand languages in the world and about 400 of them belong to the Indo-European family of languages. Almost half of the world population speaks one or the other Indo-European language. Thomas Young coined the term "Indo-European" in 1818 for some European and Asian languages which appeared to have a genetic relationship. In 1786, Sir William Jones (1746-1794) made a revolutionary observation that Sanskrit, Greek and Latin must have had a common source. He said:

> The Sanskrit language … is of a wonderful structure … more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin … yet bears to both of them a strong affinity … to have sprung for a common source …

The evidence for the Indo-European languages

The nineteenth century philologists found sufficient evidence to support Jones's hypothesis that Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, German and Celtic evolved from a common source. Researchers have even reconstructed the hypothetical ancestor of the Indo-European languages which they call "the Proto Indo-European". It is hypothesized that several thousand years BC, the starting point of the Proto Indo-European was in Southern Europe near the Asian border. Indo-European languages were earlier known as "Aryan" languages. The Vedic Sanskrit speakers used the term "Arya" (noble) for themselves. Because of the predominance of the German philologists, the term "Indo-Germanic" was also used in place of "Indo-European."

Eight major groups of the Indo-European family

From its starting point the Proto Indo-European spread both East and West. Many changes took place in the parent language at different stages with the changing needs of its speakers. The contact of the Proto Indo-European with many "non-Indo-European" languages also brought about further changes. As speakers moved farther and farther from the starting point, different forms of the Proto Indo-European language grew in successive stages. The modern languages of Europe, Iran and the northern India are descendants of the Proto Indo-European. Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Marathi etc belong to the Indo-European family of languages.

The eight main groups of the Indo-European languages are divided into two main branches: Eastern and Western. The Western branch comprises four groups of languages: <u>Greek</u>, <u>Latin</u> (and its derivatives), <u>Celtic</u>, and <u>Germanic</u>. The Eastern branch comprises other four groups of languages – <u>Balto-Slavic</u>, <u>Indo-Iranian</u>, <u>Armenian</u>, and <u>Albanian</u>.

Two outstanding characteristics of Indo-European languages

Indo-European languages have developed notable differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar etc but it is possible to identify certain common characteristics among them. There are two outstanding characteristics that indicate "Indo-European-ness" of a language: its structure and its vocabulary.

The ancient Greeks invented the tradition of categorizing words into the "parts of speech." All Indo-European languages can be analyzed into "parts of speech". Even a highly inflected language like Russian and the least inflected one like modern English are Indo-European in the sense that their forms consist of parts of speech.

Indo-European languages have a common basis of vocabulary or a shared nucleus of fundamental word roots. Most names of family relationships, elementary domestic materials, and familiar animals seem to have been shared by Indo-European languages in their early history. These common roots have often changed with the passage of centuries but can be recognized by experts in the field.

English as an Indo-European language

In all stages of its development, English belongs to the Indo-European family of languages. It uses the parts of speech with reduced inflexions like the Dutch. Moreover, English shares a fundamental nucleus of vocabulary of the common things with other European languages. English belongs to the Germanic group of the Western branch of the Indo-European languages. C. L. Wrenn comments:

> "Indo-European" is the name given to the set of linguistic forms from which nearly all European languages as well as those of Persia and a very large part of India can be shown to have descended.

(C) *Major Influences on English*

(a.) *The Influence of Shakespeare on the English Language*

Some English writers like Shakespeare and Milton have made remarkable contributions to the development of the English language. William Shakespeare (1564-1616) is regarded as the greatest dramatist and the finest poet the world has ever known. He has written about 37 plays, 154 sonnets and two narrative poems. His influence on English is second only to that of various translations of the Bible. Henry Bradley comments:

> Unrivalled in many other ways, Shakespeare has no equal with regard to the extent and profundity of his influence on the English language.

The Elizabethan theatre was a popular form of public entertainment. It thus prompted the development of English. Shakespeare made English more colourful and expressive. He changed nouns into verbs and verbs into adjectives. He coined new words and phrases or used the existing ones in novel ways for dramatic impact. About 2000 English words have been first recorded in Shakespeare's works. Some of his coinages are – aerial, bump, countless, dwindle, eventful, fitful, hurry, lonely, monumental etc.

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Shakespeare's plays have been translated and performed all over the world for four centuries. His words and phrases have now become a part of everyday English. Even people who have not read Shakespeare quote his phrases quite unconscious of their source. We can give a long list of Shakespearean phrases and idiomatic expressions: beggars description, bubble reputation, forgone conclusion, full of sound and fury, love's labour's lost, the mind's eye, a pound of flesh, seen better days, strange bedfellows, a tower of strength, to wear one's heart upon one's sleeves, yeoman's service etc.

Today it is difficult to understand Shakespeare because the English language has changed so much in the course of four centuries. English was relatively unstructured in the mid-sixteenth century. Grammar rules were not fixed in Shakespeare's time. So, we often find examples of false concord, double negative, double superlative (for example - the most unkindest of all...) in his works.

After the loss of inflexion, Shakespeare was the first great writer who had an extraordinary influence on the Modern English. English has the richest and the most extensive vocabulary of any language. Shakespeare's greatest contribution to the growth of the language is an immense number of new words and phrases. He has thus influenced the way we now speak English. John Piercy comments:

> Shakespeare was a prolific wordsmith. The Oxford Dictionary of English cites over two thousand words found in Shakespeare's poetry and plays which were not written down elsewhere prior to the late sixteenth century.

(b.) The Influence of the King James Bible (the Authorized Version) on English

The English Bible translations were largely the outcome of the Reformation movement. William Tyndale (1526) and Miles Coverdale (1535) translated the Bible into English while they were in exile in Germany. The King James Bible or the Authorized Version appeared in 1611. It was an astonishing achievement of scholarship. It was the culmination of all previous English translations of the Bible. For the next four centuries, the King James Bible was read in the Church of England every Sunday. Thus, the Authorized Version had the greatest influence on the development of the English language. John Piercy comments:

> The King James Bible is often described as the most important book in the English language and the one single source that has had the deepest influence on the way English evolved over the last four hundred years.

The Puritans demanded a state authorized version of the Bible for the sake of uniformity in Church service. The Geneva Bible was then used widely in the Church of England. In 1604, King James I convened a conference and appointed a team of 54 scholars to undertake the Bible translation. Except one, all the members of the team were clerics (priests). And all of these translators belonged to the universities of Oxford, Cambridge and Westminster. The team of the scholars was divided into six committees, with each committee having eight members. It was a difficult task as the translators used multiple Bible versions available in different languages. The Authorized Version used the Bishop's Bible (1568) as a model for the translation. It took seven years of painstaking team work to produce the King James Bible.

Many phrases in today's spoken and written English derive from the Authorized Version, for example – a broken reed, the fatted calf, the skin of the teeth, to wash one's hands, the writing on the wall etc. The Authorized Version copied a vast deal of phrases from Tyndale's translation. For the sake of dignity, the Authorized Version used words that were archaic even at that time. Words like – apparel, damsel, fragrant, raiment, travail etc – have thus been preserved in English. The Authorized Version used simple vocabulary because it was intended to be read in the church. Its words and phrases have become a part of everyday language. The Pilgrim Fathers took the Authorized Version to the United States of America. It was used in the Church of England throughout the British Empire during the Victorian Era (1837-1901). Thus, the Authorized Version became a widely read and most frequently quoted book in English. C. L. Wrenn comments:

> … the Authorized Version has remained a dominant influence on the literary language, through it at times even on the language of ordinary talk.

(c.) The Influence of John Milton on the development of English

John Milton (1608-1674) is one of the most influential English poets, perhaps second only to Shakespeare. He was a scholar, philosopher and statesman. From his boyhood, Milton dedicated himself to the ideal of being a great poet. He had a wide interest in languages and knew Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Italian and Dutch. At a time when Latin was still the language of science and philosophy, Milton proclaimed his faith in the potential of English for the highest poetic expression. He is best known for his epic the *Paradise Lost* (1658-1663). In the majesty of style and the grandeur of the subject, Milton ranks with Homer, Virgil and Dante. He was a master of plain diction as well as poetic style. Milton was greatly influenced by the Bible translations and Shakespeare. C. L. Wrenn comments:

> Like the Bible translations and Shakespeare, Milton's more outstanding permanent influence on the English language is to be seen in his phrases…

By Milton's time, the Elizabethan irregularity in English grammar had been greatly reduced. His major contribution to the English language is the invention of a number of new words, phrases and expressions. Milton has contributed about 630 new words to English including – anarch, complacency, debauchery, didactic, ecstatic, embittered, enjoyable, fragrance, horrent, impressive, irresponsible, liturgical, sensuous, stunning, terrify, unenviable, unhealthy etc. Milton used some compound words for the first time, for example – far-sighted, full-grown, hot-headed, idol-worship, self-delusion etc.

Some phrases that Milton used for the first time are now part of the English language. These include – a heaven on earth, all hell broke loose, every cloud has a silver lining, a pillar of strength, prove a bitter morsel, to save appearances, secret conclave etc. In Milton's *Paradise Lost*, the capital city of hell is called 'Pandemonium' (chaos). The word is formed with the combination of two Greek origin words "pan" (all) and "daimon" (demon).

Milton had a genuine faculty for word making but he exercised it sparingly. In spite of his literary brilliance, the extent of Milton's influence on common English speech is much less than of Shakespeare. Milton served as a minister under Oliver Cromwell. He was a public-spirited politician. He wrote tracts and pamphlets. Gavin Alexander comments:

Milton was an extraordinary linguist and his freedom with language can be related to his advocacy of personal, political and religious freedom.

Unit – II Terminology for language study

Write a brief note on the following terms:

(1) **Phoneme**: A phoneme (from Greek - "phone" = "sound") is the smallest unit of sound in a language. It distinguishes one word from another. For example:

- pin and bin (/p/ and / b/); coat and goat (/k/ and / g/).

  Phonemes are abstract (mental) representations of speech sounds. They are written in slant brackets (/ /). Phonemes can be consonants as well as vowels. If you substitute one phoneme for another, the meaning of the word will change. Phonemes are tested with the help of "minimal pairs" or "minimal sets." Consider the following examples:

  Consonants: bat/ cat/ hat/ mat/ pat/ sat/ that (/b/, /k/, /h/, /m/, /p/, /s/ and / ð/)
  Vowels: hat/ heat/ heart/ hit/ hot (/æ/, /i:/, /ɑ:/, / ɪ/, and /ɒ/)

  The English language has 26 letters and 44 sounds. Different letters can represent the same sound or phoneme. Consider the following examples:

- enough and inept – the letters "e" and "i" represent the same phoneme /ɪ/.
- enough and stuff - the letters "gh" and "ff" represent the same phoneme /f/.

(2) **Allophone**: An allophone (from Greek - "allo" = "other") is an audibly distinct variant of a phoneme. The phoneme is an abstract (mental) representation of a sound whereas the allophone is its phonetic manifestation in our actual speech. For example, we can perceive three different allophones of the phoneme /t/ in the following three words:

- top (/t/ is aspirated)
- stop (/t/ is unaspirated)
- batter (/t/ is flap)

  The substitution of one allophone with another does not change the meaning of the word. Allophones are phonemically considered to be the same sound but they vary in pronunciations (in terms of aspiration, voicing and point of articulation). For example, the phonemes /t/ and /æ/are pronounced perceptibly differently in the following pairs of words:

- tar (aspirated), star (unaspirated)
- mad (/æ/ is relatively long), mat (/æ/ is relatively short)

  The allophones are determined by their position in the word (initial, medial, final etc) or by the adjoining sounds. Allophones are written in square brackets ([ ]) to distinguish them from phonemes which are written in slant brackets (/ /).

(3) **The IPA**: IPA can mean - the <u>International Phonetic Association</u> and the <u>International Phonetic Alphabet</u>. The International Phonetic Association (established in 1886 in Paris) is the oldest organization for phoneticians in the world. Its aim is to promote the scientific study of phonetics and encourage its practical application in life.

The International Phonetic Alphabet is a system of phonetic notations. It provides unique symbols for all recognizable speech sounds in languages across the world. The IPA was first published in 1888 and has been revised a number of times since then. The International Phonetic Alphabet is used by linguists, lexicographers, language teachers, translators, speech therapists, singers and actors.

The English dictionaries published by Oxford University Press use IPA to represent pronunciation of words. The sounds of spoken English do not always correspond with the written letters. In this regard, the International Phonetic Alphabet can be very useful in teaching and learning English.

(4) **Phonology**: Phonology is a branch of linguistics. It is the study of the sound system of any particular language. Phonemes (individual sounds) have no meaning on their own. They make meaning only when they combine together as per phonological rules. Thus, phonology deals with the sound patterns that are possible in a concerned language.

There is a fundamental difference between phonetics and phonology. Phonetics deals with the individual sounds of any language and how the sounds are produced and classified. Phonology, on the other hand, deals with the way sounds interact with one another in a given language.

Sound patterns are more or less predictable in every language. For example, English phonology does not allow the combination of consonant sounds such as "zbf". Phonology studies sound patterns at two different levels: segmental and supra-segmental. Segmental phonology deals with individual sounds (vowels and consonants). Supra-segmental phonology deals with elements of stress, pitch, tone and intonation.

(5) **Morphology**: The 'morphology' literally means "the study of forms" ("morph" = "form"). But, as a branch of linguistics, morphology is the study of the formation of words in a language. Language is a symbolic system of communication. Words convey meanings. Words can be divided into morphemes – the smallest units of meaning in language. For example, the word "morphology" has two morphemes – "<u>morph</u>" and "<u>-ology</u>."

The morphemes which can be used independently are called "free morphemes" and the ones that cannot be used independently are called "bound morphemes". Morphemes also perform grammatical functions like tense formation, plural formation etc. Consider the following examples:

> **Tense formation**: "<u>play</u>" (the base form of the verb) – "<u>play(ed)</u>" (the past form)
> **Plural formation**: "<u>book</u>" (the singular form) – "<u>book(s)</u>" (the plural form)

Words have minimum one morpheme, for example – "I", "it", "cat", "English" etc. Most words have two or more morphemes. Morphology is thus the study of how morphemes join together to form words. Morphology has a close connection with other branches of linguistics like phonology and syntax.

(6) **Syntax**: Syntax is a study of the sentence structure or the arrangement of words in a sentence. A sentence is a sequence of words with a complete meaning of its own. Syntax describes how words join together to make larger units of meaning – phrases, clauses and sentences. It also studies how words relate to one another in the sentence. Consider the following sentence:

<u>My dog is playing in the garden</u>.

My + dog – join together to make the subject	is + playing - join together to make the verb	"in the garden" is adverb phrase indicating the location

All languages have their own syntax. Native speakers have an intuitive understanding of the syntax of their language. They can make sentences they have never heard before. Many linguists make a comparative study of the syntactical rules of different languages.

Morphology is a study of the internal structure of the words. Syntax, with its focus on the sentence structure, is a level above morphology. Semantics, with its focus on the meaning, is closely allied to syntax. A sentence has to have a meaning. Syntax is useless without semantics. Noam Chomsky, an eminent linguist, has given the following example of a well-formed but a meaningless sentence:

<u>Colorless green ideas sleep furiously</u>.

(7) **Etymology**: Etymology, a discipline of linguistics, is the study of the origin and history of words. The term derives from the Greek origin 'étymon' ("original or true form"). Modern etymological studies are based on the methods and findings of historical and comparative linguistics. While studying the word origin and history, the etymologist examines the changes in the forms as well as meanings of the given words.

All of the natural languages continue to grow and change. New words evolve in a language in many different ways – coinage (boycott, jeans), borrowing (pizza, tycoon), compounding (download, fingerprint), blending (brunch, motel) etc. Words may get meanings quite different from their original sense. For example, the English word "gay" now refers to "homosexual man" but it originally meant "light-hearted, happy person."

Etymology traces words back to their earliest recorded use in the language. It is interesting to study the etymology of English words. French and Latin are major sources of English vocabulary. In the last two hundred years English has borrowed words from languages in every corner of the world. Many dictionaries provide etymological details of word origins. www.etymonline.com is an online etymology dictionary.

(8) **Discourse**: Language is a means of communication. In day-to-day communication, we express ideas in a sequence of logically connected sentences. Syntax deals with the

rules of the formation of the sentence. Single sentences, however well-formed, serve little or no communicative purpose. Discourse is a piece of spoken or written language larger than a sentence. Thus, it falls beyond the scope of syntax and grammar.

Discourse is produced as an act of communication in a particular context. It can be in form of talk, lecture, story, essay, poem, interview, conversation, novel, discussion etc. Discourse is sometimes referred to as "text". The sentences in the discourse are logically and meaningfully connected to each other. Certain words, phrases or ideas establish cohesion in the discourse. Discourse Analysis is the study of the cohesion in discourse.

The context or the purpose of communication is important while making the discourse. The writer or the speaker has a specific target audience in mind. Discourse also indicates assumptions and values embedded in it. Discourse is often dominated by a particular theme or subject, e.g. legal discourse, political discourse, feminine discourse, social discourse, medical discourse etc.

(9) **Dialect**: A dialect is a distinct variety or form of a language. A language may have a number of dialects. The dialects are geographical, social and ethnic varieties of the same language. The dialects differ from one another in vocabulary, accents and grammar. But they are closely related to each other and therefore mutually intelligible. For example, Braj Bhasha, Khari Boli, Haryanvi, Rajasthani etc are dialects of Hindi and any competent speaker of Hindi can understand them.

Dialects are mostly spoken varieties. They have no official status and are not taught in schools. Even the speakers of the dialect use the standard language in writing. Literature rarely uses dialects. French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian began as dialects of the Latin language. But, with the passage of centuries, these dialects grew mutually unintelligible and developed into distinct languages.

In his epic *The Divine Comedy*, Dante (1265-1321) used the Tuscan dialect which played a major role in establishing the Italian language. Geoffrey Chaucer (c. 1343-1400) used the contemporary London dialect which provided a foundation for the Standard English. The standard language is also a dialect, though with higher prestige and wider acceptance. Power and politics may make one dialect dominant over others. This would help it attain the status of 'the standard language'. Max Weinreich comments:

> A language is a dialect with an army and a navy.

(10) **Grammar**: Grammar is the study of how a language works. It is the underlying system of rules and conventions for a language. Every language has its own grammar. Grammar operates at every level of the language – morphology, phonology, syntax, semantics etc. It tells us which language forms are acceptable or which are not. The knowledge of grammar need not be explicit. Native speakers have an intuitive knowledge of grammar rules. Children make fairly grammatical structures before they are taught the rules.

Everyday language usage is different from grammar. People do not always speak the language in a grammatically correct manner though they may know the rules. But a good grounding in grammar helps the speakers to use language correctly and creatively. The Indian linguist Panini wrote a Sanskrit grammar in c. 400 BC. In Europe, the Greeks and the Romans were the first to write grammars. Languages were spoken long before formal grammars were written. The Greeks considered Homer's epics as the ideal manifestations of their language and made his works the basis of a Greek grammar.

The Romans applied the Greek grammatical analysis to Latin and found the ideal embodiment of their language in the works of Cicero and Virgil. In the medieval age, the English grammarians followed the Latin grammar as the model to write their own grammar. There are two major approaches to the study of grammar – descriptive (to describe how people use language) and prescriptive (to prescribe the rules for correct usage). Languages keep changing and so do grammars.

(11) **Lexicology**: Lexicology, a branch of linguistics, is a study of words in a particular language. The term derives from the Greek origin "lexis" which means "word" in English. Lexicology deals with the nature, functions and the relationships between words in a given language. Lexicon is a technical term for the vocabulary of a language. The word 'lexicon' means a dictionary as well as a speaker's knowledge of the vocabulary of his or her language.

Words have different facets – orthographic (written form), phonological (sound), morphological (grammatical), semantic (meaning), syntactic (phrases and sentences) etc. Lexicologists study the changes in the forms and meanings in words and the contrasts and similarities between words. Lexicography – the compilation of dictionary - is closely allied to lexicology. The findings of the lexicologists are useful to the lexicographers in dictionary writing.

Words often have multiple meanings. For example, the Oxford Dictionary gives twelve meanings of the English word "mark" (as a noun and a verb). Two words may have the same spelling or pronunciation but different meanings. For example, the English words 'right' and 'write' have an identical pronunciation but mean different things. Words change meanings in course of time. For example, the word "toilet" originally denoted 'a cloth cover for a dressing table.' Its meaning has changed over the centuries. There are many branches of lexicology – descriptive, historical, comparative, applied etc.

(12) **Linguistics**: Linguistics is the scientific study of human language. Till the 19th century, it was known as "philology" (the comparative study of languages). The main concern of modern linguistics is to study the structure, meaning and use of language. Language has a hierarchical structure and operates at many different levels – sound, morpheme, words, sentence, syntax, meaning, discourse etc. Linguistics covers all areas of language study – phonology, phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics, grammar etc.

Scholars trace the origins of linguistics to India and Greece. The Sanskrit grammarian, Panini, was probably the first linguist in the world. Noam Chomsky (born 1928) is one of the most influential linguists of all time. Linguistic studies are based on empirical

observation and objective analysis of reliable language data. Linguistics follows scientific methods to test hypotheses and formulate theories. Unlike physics, chemistry etc, linguistics blends humanities and sciences to study language.

Linguistics has close links with a wide range of other academic disciplines. Interdisciplinary branches of linguistics have developed in combination with these disciplines – psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, forensic linguistics, anthropological linguistics, applied linguistics, educational linguistics etc. Linguistic research has also proved useful in the development of computer programmes and software.

(13) **Lingua franca**: Lingua franca literally means "the language of the Franks." The Franks were a Germanic tribe that conquered Gaul (France) in the 6th century. The term "lingua franca" is used for a language that is used as a means of communication between people who speak different languages.

The terms "link language" and "auxiliary language" are also used synonymously with "lingua franca." In the Middle Ages, Latin was used as a lingua franca in western Europe. In a country where people speak different languages, one of these languages (whether native or foreign) can serve as a lingua franca.

Arabic, French and Swahili function as lingua franca in many countries in the world. We have many different languages in India. Most people in southern India are against the dominance of Hindi. In such a situation, English serves as a lingua franca in India.

(14) **First language**: First Language comes to us like an inheritance. It is the language that a person learns or acquires from birth as part of one's upbringing and development. It is usually the language used at home. First Language is also referred to as L1 or mother tongue or the native language.

It is generally said that First Language is 'acquired' and Second Language is 'learned'. First Language generally interferes with the learning of the subsequent languages. First Language interference can be felt at every level of second language learning – vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar etc. Second or Foreign Language learning may not be as rapid and natural as First Language.

In monolingual societies, the concept of First Language is relatively unproblematic. For example, the Japanese is invariably First Language in Japan. The concept of First Language is not that simple in India. Sometimes Indian children grow up learning two or more languages simultaneously. They speak one language at home but use another language outside home. For example, the actor R Madhavan was born to Tamil parents in Jamshedpur (Jharkhand) where the local language is Hindi. In such a situation, First Language is the one with which the child feels most comfortable.

(15) **Second language**: As the name suggests, Second Language (SL) is learned after First Language or L1. If First Language comes to us like an inheritance, we learn a Second Language by choice. Second Language is not native to the country where it is widely used as a means of communication. For example, English is used as Second Language in countries like India, Nigeria, Singapore etc.

Second Language is used as a means of communication in education, administration, media, industry etc. The Supreme Court of India does not allow the use of any language other than English. There is a difference between Second Language and Foreign Language. Foreign Language is not widely used for communication by the people in a particular country.

English is used as Second Language in India. Though it is not a language of Indian origin, it has been given the status of 'an associate official language'. Indians who possess a good knowledge of English have better job opportunities and prospects of economic and social advancement. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is the study of how second languages are learned.

(16) **Foreign language**: Foreign Language is any language of non-native origin. Second Language can also be of non-native origin (for example, English in India). But there is a difference between a Foreign Language and a Second Language. Foreign language is not widely used for communication in a particular country.

While English serves as a Second Language in India, French or Spanish is considered a Foreign Language. This means that an Indian learner of French or Spanish will rarely have an opportunity to use the target language in day-to-day life. Individual learners learn a Foreign Language as a matter of personal choice or professional requirement.

In a globalized world, it is useful to learn a Foreign Language for business purposes. Many schools in India teach Foreign Languages like French and German for the purpose of broader intellectual development and cultural exposure. Thanks to the easy access to audio-visual resources on the internet, it is now easier to learn a foreign language.

(17) **Language Acquisition**: Some SLA researchers use the terms "learning" and "acquisition" interchangeably. But Stephen Krashen makes a distinction between the two. He argues that language learning is a conscious and deliberate process. It involves formal classroom teaching and explicit study of grammar rules. Acquisition, on the other hand, takes place in a natural environment without much conscious efforts.

The purpose of language acquisition is communication and not the explicit knowledge of grammar rules. Children acquire First Language as part of their development but adults have to learn Second Language deliberately. However, Krashen says that Second Language can also be acquired in the same manner as First Language.

Language Acquisition requires a regular exposure to the target language in informal, non-academic environment. It is the process of "picking up" or "internalizing" a language subconsciously. In the 1960s, Noam Chomsky proposed the concept of Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which refers to an instinctive capacity of an infant to acquire and produce a language.

(18) **Syllable**: Phonemes include all distinct sounds – vowels and consonants – in a particular language. A syllable is a cluster of sounds (vowels and consonants) containing at least one vowel or diphthong. Generally, there can be no syllable without a vowel or a vowel-like sound. A consonant or a consonant cluster may or may not be used with a vowel in a

syllable. For example, the English word "I" contains only a vowel (diphthong) and no consonant. Count the vowel sounds and you will get the number of syllables in a word.

The consonant or consonant cluster that precedes the vowel in the syllable is called 'onset'. Note the onset in these examples: *me*, *play*, *tea*, *to*, *we* etc. The consonant or consonant cluster that follows the vowel in the syllable is called 'coda'. Note the coda in these examples: a*ll*, a*sk*, ea*t*, i*nk*, o*r*, ou*t*, u*p* etc. The vowel sound is called 'nucleus' of the syllable. Note the nucleus(es) in these examples: a*do*re, b*usy*, c*a*t, ch*e*ck, h*u*ngr*y*, l*angua*ge, t*y*pe, u*ni*t*y* etc.

In rare cases, a syllabic consonant also functions as a nucleus of the syllable. For example, in the following words, the final 'n', 'l' and 'm' consonant sounds function as syllables - butto*n*, hidde*n*, lad*le*, tab*le*, pris*m*, wide*n*. Syllables are called 'open' and 'closed' when they respectively end in a vowel or a consonant. Stressed and unstressed syllables are respectively called 'strong' and 'weak'. Syllables can influence the rhythm, prosody and poetic metres in a language.

(19) **Primary Accent**:

Accent or stress refers to prominence given to a syllable in speech. When we divide isolated words into syllables, we do not pronounce all the syllables in a particular word with equal emphasis or intensity. The emphasis in pronunciation of a syllable results in a relative loudness or length. On the basis of the loudness or the lack of it the syllables are referred to as 'stressed' and 'unstressed'. The stressed syllables tend to be longer than the unstressed ones.

In polysyllabic words, some syllables have a degree of stress between full stress and no stress. For example, the words - 'photo*gra*phic' and 'uni*ver*sity', have respectively four and five syllables. In both the words, the main stress falls on the third syllables. The first syllables, in these words, receive some stress but it is not as much as the third ones. The main stress is called the primary accent and the subsidiary stress is called the secondary accent.

In the official IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) system, the primary and the secondary accents are represented in transcription respectively with superscripted [ˈ] and subscripted [ˌ] marks. (The square brackets are used here to highlight the marks.) These marks appear before the syllables that are to be stressed or accented in the word. Consider the primary and the secondary accents in the following examples: auˌthoriˈtarianism, ˌfar-ˈflung, kaˌleidoˈscopic, ˌquantifiˈcation and ˈwheelˌbarrow. The unstressed syllables are not marked at all.

(20) **Secondary Accent**: The answer is the same as given above for *the primary accent*.

Stay home, stay safe!