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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

SUBJECT NAME: ASPECTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE-II

SEMESTER: IV

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UNIT – 1

Introduction

1.1. What is Linguistics? – Linguistics as a science

Linguistics is the **scientific** study of **language**.^[1] It encompasses the analysis of every aspect of language, as well as the methods for studying and modelling them.

The traditional areas of linguistic analysis include **phonetics**, **phonology**, **morphology**, **syntax**, **semantics**, and **pragmatics**.^[2] Each of these areas roughly corresponds to phenomena found in human linguistic systems: sounds (and gesture, in the case of signed languages), minimal units (words, morphemes), phrases and sentences, and meaning and use.

Linguistics studies these phenomena in diverse ways and from various perspectives. Theoretical linguistics (including traditional descriptive linguistics) is concerned with building models of these systems, their parts (ontologies), and their combinatorics. **Psycholinguistics** builds theories of the processing and production of all these phenomena. These phenomena may be studied synchronically or **diachronically** (through history), in monolinguals or polyglots, in children or adults, as they are acquired or statically, as abstract objects or as embodied cognitive structures, using texts (corpora) or through experimental elicitation, by gathering data mechanically, through fieldwork, or through introspective judgment tasks. Computational linguistics implements theoretical constructs to parse or produce natural language or homologues. **Neurolinguistics** investigates linguistic phenomena by experiments on actual brain responses involving linguistic stimuli.

Linguistics is related to philosophy of language, stylistics and rhetoric, semiotics, lexicography, and translation.

Linguistics is a growing and interesting area of study, having a direct bearing on fields as diverse as education, anthropology, sociology, language teaching, cognitive psychology and philosophy. What is linguistics?

Fundamentally, it is concerned with the nature of language and communication.

Some of the definitions of linguistics are as under:

1. “Linguistics observes language in action as a means for determining how language has developed, how it functions today, and how it is currently evolving.” (G. Duffy)
2. “Linguistics is concerned with the nature of human language, how it is learned and what part it plays in the life of the individual and the community.” (S. Pit Corder)
3. “Linguistics tries to answer two basic questions:
 - a. What is language?
 - b. How does language work.” (Jean Aitchison)
4. “The scientific study of human language is called linguistics”. (Victoria A. Fromkin)

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. By this we mean language in general, not a particular language. If we were concerned with studying an individual language, we would say ‘I’m studying French... or English,’ or whichever language we happen to be studying. But linguistics does not study an individual language, it studies ‘language’ in general. That is, linguistics, according to Robins (1985):

is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of the human behaviour and of the human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential to human life as we know it, and one of the most far-reaching of human capabilities in relation to the whole span of mankind’s achievements.

Does this not sound a little abstract? It is, because there is no way of studying ‘language’ without referring to and taking examples from particular languages. However, even while doing so, the emphasis of linguistics is different. Linguistics does not emphasise practical knowledge or mastery of a particular language. Linguists may know only one language, or may know several, or may even study a language they do not know at all. What they are trying to study are the ways in which language is organised to fulfil human needs, as a system of

communication. There is a difference between a person who knows many languages (called a **polyglot**), and a **linguist**, who studies general principles of language organisation and language behaviour, often with reference to some actual language or languages. Any language can be taken up to illustrate the principles of language organisation, because all languages reveal something of the nature of language in general. (Of course, it may be of help to a linguist to know more languages so that differences and contrasts as well as similarities between the languages can also be studied in a better way.) We can say that linguistics is learning about language rather than learning a language. This distinction is often explained as the difference between learning how a car works and learning how to drive a car. When we learn how to drive a car, we learn a set of habits and do some practice—this is similar to learning how to speak a language. When we learn how the car works, we open up its mechanism, study it and investigate the relationship of its parts to one another. This is similar to what we do in a scientific study of language, or linguistics: we investigate the mechanism of language, its parts and how all these parts fit together to perform particular functions, and why they are arranged or organised in a certain manner. Just as while driving a car, we are using its various components, while speaking a language we are using the sounds, words, etc. of that language; behind these uses is the mechanism which enables us to do so. We study language because it is important for us to understand this mechanism.

Linguistics As A Science

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’. However, we also use the term ‘science’ for the systematic study of phenomena enabling us to state some principles or theories regarding the phenomena; this study proceeds by examination of publicly verifiable data obtained through observation of phenomena, and experimentation; in other words, it is **empirical and objective**. Science must also provide explanation after adequate observation of data, which should be **consistent**, i.e. there should be no contradictions between different parts of the explanation or statement; and **economical**, i.e. a precise and non-redundant manner of statement is to be preferred.

1.2 Nature and scope of Linguistics

The Scope of Linguistics

Linguistics involves a vast, complex and systematic study, with different core areas such as phonology, phonetics, morphology, syntax and semantics. It is also intertwined with various other disciplines and contains fields like sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics etc. Linguistics, unlike past ages, is being recognized as an independent discipline of study, thus paving the way to a lot of developments and **research**. Linguistics is a descriptive study and not a prescriptive one and describes language in all aspects. It is a subject that keeps changing, as languages change.

It is a very dynamic domain of study. Although some aspects of the subject are based on historical notes and few sets of rules, it continues to evolve out of old boundaries into new, with developments that occur in different languages. Linguistics is applied to different fields of study, and this makes it a very important discipline. The application of linguistics extends from **anthropology** to speech therapy in modern medicine. Extensive researches and studies are conducted on the linguistic perspectives of every language, aimed at tracing the characteristics of the language as well as in employing the scope of linguistics into understanding the specific characteristics of literature, including prose and poems in different languages.

Scope of Linguistics

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 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 the 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.

Levels of Linguistic Analysis

In studying language which is the subject-matter of linguistics, we mark or sub-divide the area in order to study it in an analytical and systematic way. Language has a hierarchical structure. This means that it is made up of units which are themselves made up of smaller units which are made of still smaller units till we have the smallest indivisible unit, i.e. a single distinguishable sound, called a phoneme. Or we can put it the other way round, and say that single sounds or phonemes combine together to make larger units of sounds, these combine into a larger meaningful unit called a morpheme; morphemes combine to form larger units of words, and words combine to form a large unit or sentence and several sentences combine or interconnect to make a unified piece of speech or writing, which we call a text or discourse. At each stage (or level), there are certain rules that operate which permit the occurrence and combination of smaller units. So we can say that rule of phonology determine the occurrence and combination of particular phoneme, rules of word-formation cover the behaviour of particular morphemes; rules of sentence-formation determine the combination and positioning of words in a sentence. Each level is a system in its own right. It is important to remember that, because of the existence of rules at each level, we can analyse each level **independently** of the other. This means that if we study one level, e.g. phonology or the sound-system, we need not necessarily study another level, say that of sentence-formation. We can study phonology on its own, and syntax on its own. Although these levels are linked in that one is lower in the hierarchy and another is higher in the hierarchy, and the higher level includes the lower, still each level is independent because it has its own rules of operation that can be described, analysed and understood.

We can represent these levels in the following manner, with each level of analysis corresponding to each level of the structure of the language:

<i>Levels of Analysis</i>	<i>Levels of Structure</i>
Phonetics and Phonology	SOUND
	Letters (Graphology)
Morphology	WORD FORMATION
Syntax	SENTENCE-FORMATION
Semantics	MEANINGS
Discourse	CONNECTED SENTENCES

A careful look at the above diagram will show that the levels of language structure are not completely separate from one another. In fact, there are important and vital linkages between the levels. In earlier studies, it was supposed that phonology, the level of sound structure, had no link whatsoever with semantics or the level of meaning structure. Now we know that links between these levels are far more complex than we had earlier accepted. With regard to discourse, we can see that it is made up of all the levels of language working together,

while semantics incorporates analysis of meaning at the level of both words (word-meaning) and of sentence-meaning.

However, we can study these links only after we describe and analyse structure at each level separately. Thus Phonetics studies language at the level of sounds: How sounds are articulated by the human speech mechanism and received by the auditory mechanism, how sounds can be distinguished and characterised by the manner in which they are produced. **Phonology** studies the combination of sounds into organised units of speech, the formation of syllables and larger units. It describes the sound system of a particular language and the combination and distribution of sounds which occur in that language. Classification is made on the basis of the concept of the phoneme, i.e. a distinctive, contrasted sound unit, e.g. /m/, / /, /p/. These distinct sounds enter into combination with others. The rules of combination are different for different languages.

Though phonology is considered to be the surface or superficial level of language (as it is concrete and not abstract like meaning), there are some aspects of it such as tone which contribute to the meaning of an utterance.

Morphology studies the patterns of formation of words by the combination of sounds into minimal distinctive units of meaning called morphemes. A morpheme cannot be broken up because if it is, it will no longer make sense, e.g. a morpheme 'bat' is made up of three sounds: /b/ /æ/ and /t/. This combination makes up the single morpheme 'bat' and if broken up, it will no longer carry the meaning of 'bat'. Words can be made up of single morphemes such as 'bat' or combinations of morphemes, e.g. 'bats' is made up of two morphemes: 'bat' + 's'. Morphology deals with the rules of combination of morphemes to form words, as suffixes or prefixes are attached to single morphemes to form words. It studies the changes that take place in the structure of words, e.g. the morpheme 'take' changes to 'took' and 'taken'—these changes signify a change in tense.

The level of morphology is linked to phonology on the one hand and to semantics on the other. It is clear in the above example of 'take' that the change to 'took' involves a change in one of the sounds in this morpheme. It also involves a change in meaning: 'take' means the action 'take' + time present and 'took' means the action 'take' + time past. So morphological changes often involve changes at the levels of both sound and meaning.

Syntax is the level at which we study how words combine to form phrases, phrases combine to form clauses and clauses join to make sentences. The study of syntax also involves the description of the rules of positioning of elements in the sentence such as the nouns/noun syntax phrases, verbs/verb phrases, adverbial phrases, etc. A sentence must be composed of these elements arranged in a particular order. Syntax also attempts to describe how these elements function in the sentence, i.e. what is their role in the sentence. For example, the word 'boy' is a noun. However, in each of the following sentences, it functions in different roles:

(a) The boy likes cricket

(b) The old man loved the boy.

In sentence (a), it functions as the subject of the sentence

In sentence (b), it functions as the object.

A sentence should be both grammatical and meaningful. For example, a sentence like 'Colourless green ideas sleep furiously' is grammatically correct but it is not meaningful. Thus, rules of syntax should be comprehensive enough to explain how sentences are constructed which are both grammatical and meaningful.

Semantics deals with the level of meaning in language. It attempts to analyse the structure of meaning in a language, e.g. how words similar or different are related; it attempts to show these inter-relationships through forming 'categories'. Semantics tries to give an account of both word and sentence meaning, and attempts to analyse and define that which is considered to be abstract. It may be easy to define the meanings of words such as 'tree' but not so easy to define the meanings of words such as 'love' or similar abstract things. This is why semantics is one of the less clearly definable areas of language study.

An extension of the study of meaning or semantics is **pragmatics**. Pragmatics deals with the contextual aspects of meaning in particular situations. As distinct from the study of sentences, pragmatics considers **utterances**, i.e. those sentences which are actually uttered by speakers of a language.

Discourse is the study of chunks of language which are bigger than a single sentence. At this level, we analyse inter-sentential links that form a connected or **cohesive** text. Cohesion is the relation established in a sentence between it and the sentences preceding and following it, by the use of connectives such as 'and', 'though',

‘also’, ‘but’ etc. and by the manner in which reference is made to other parts of the text by devices such as repetition or by use of pronouns, definite articles, etc. By studying the elements of cohesion we can understand how a piece of connected language can have greater meaning that is more than the sum of the individual sentences it contains.

1.3 Synchronic and Diachronic approaches

Synchronic approaches

Synchronic linguistics is the study of a language at one particular period (usually the present). It is also known as *descriptive linguistics* or *general linguistics*.

Key Takeaways: Synchronistic Linguistics

- Synchronistic linguistics is the study of a language at a particular time.
- In contrast, diachronic linguistics studies the development of a language over time.
- Synchronistic linguistics is often descriptive, analyzing how the parts of a language or grammar work together.
- For example:
- "A synchronic study of language is a comparison of languages or dialects—various spoken differences of the same language—used within some defined spatial region and during the same period of time," wrote Colleen Elaine Donnelly in "Linguistics for Writers." "Determining the regions of the United States in which people currently say 'pop' rather than 'soda' and 'idea' rather than 'idear' are examples of the types of inquiries pertinent to a synchronic study."
- Synchronistic views look at a language as if it's static and not changing. Languages continually evolve, though it's slow enough that people don't notice it much while it's happening.
- The term was coined by Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. That for which he is now most known was just a portion of his contributions to academia; his specialty was the analysis of Indo-European languages, and his work generally studied languages over time, or *diachronic* (historical) linguistics.

Diachronic approaches

Diachronic linguistics is the study of a language through different periods in history.

Diachronic linguistics is one of the two main temporal dimensions of language study identified by Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure in his *Course in General Linguistics* (1916). The other is **synchronic linguistics**.

The terms *diachrony* and *synchrony* refer, respectively, to an evolutionary phase of language and to a language state. "In reality," says Théophile Obenga, "diachronic and synchronic linguistics interlock" ("Genetic Linguistic Connections of Ancient Egypt and the Rest of Africa," 1996).

Observations

"**Diachronic** literally means *across-time*, and it describes any work which maps the shifts and fractures and mutations of languages over the centuries. In gross outline, it is similar to evolutionary biology, which maps the shifts and transformations of rocks. *Synchronic* literally means *with-time*, though etymology is misleading here, since Saussure's term describes an temporal linguistics, linguistics which proceeds without time, which abstracts away from the effects of the ages and studies language at a given, frozen moment."

"**Diachronic linguistics** is the historical study of language, whereas synchronic linguistics is the geographic study of language. Diachronic linguistics refers to the study of how a language evolves over a period of time. Tracing the development of English from the Old English period to the twentieth century is a diachronic study. A synchronic study of language is a comparison of languages or dialects—various spoken differences of the same language—used within some defined spatial region and during the same period of time. Determining the regions of the United States in which people currently say 'pop' rather than 'soda' and 'idea' rather than 'idear' are examples of the types of inquiries pertinent to a synchronic study."

- "Most of Saussure's successors accepted the 'synchronic-**diachronic**' distinction, which still survives robustly in twenty-first-century linguistics. In practice, what this means is that it is accounted a violation of principle or linguistic method to include in the same synchronic analysis evidence related to diachronically different states. So, for example, citing Shakespearean forms would be regarded as inadmissible in support of, say, an analysis of the grammar of Dickens. Saussure is particularly severe in his strictures upon linguists who conflate synchronic and diachronic facts."

1.4 Branches of study

The field of Linguistics is vast and covers a range of different subfields. Here are the main branches of Linguistics:

- **Psycholinguistics:** The psychological aspects of Language & Linguistics
- **Sociolinguistics:** The study of the impact of society on Language & Linguistics
- **Applied Linguistics:** The study of real-life applications of Linguistics
- **Computational Linguistics:** The study of spoken and written language in computations & programming
- **Comparative Linguistics:** The study of similar and dissimilar aspects of common-origin languages
- **Historical Linguistics:** The study of evolution and origins of Languages
- **Stylistics:** The study and interpretation of style and tones in Languages

Applied Linguistics

Applied Linguistics is a branch of linguistics that is involved in the identification, investigation and providing solutions for real-life issues relating to language. It is an interdisciplinary field, drawing knowledge from different academic fields like psychology, **sociology**, **anthropology** etc.

Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the branch of linguistics that deals with the effect of society or social factors on language. It is involved in the study of the effects and interactions between language and different social factors like ethnicity, social class, gender, cultural norms etc.

Branches of Social Science

Computational Linguistics

Computational Linguistics is an interdisciplinary branch of linguistics which is concerned with the study and perception of spoken and written language from a computational perspective. It combines concepts from computer science, programming and coding with linguistics to determine how language functions in the context of computing and operating systems.

Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics deals with the psychological aspects of language. This is one of the branches of linguistics that is involved in the study of the different psychological factors that control the processes of acquiring, understanding and use of language by human beings.

Comparative Linguistics

Comparative Linguistics is one of the sought-after branches of linguistics that is involved in the study of identifying similar and dissimilar properties between different languages of a common origin. It studies the development of languages through a comparative analysis of two or more different languages evolved from a single parent language.

Historical Linguistics

One of the important branches of linguistics, historical linguistics studies the evolution and changes in languages through periods of time. It analyses how and in what ways language changes over time, and also involves the reconstruction of past forms of languages.

Branches of History

Stylistics

Another key mention amongst the various branches of Linguistics, Stylistics deals with the study and interpretation of style and tones in both written and spoken language. It involves the analysis of different features of style, including but not limited to the use of symbolism, dialogues, regional accents, rhyme, sentence structure etc.

Branches of Phonetics

There are three main branches of Phonetics:

- **Articulatory Phonetics:** Study of how sounds are produced with the articulators
- **Acoustic Phonetics:** Study of the acoustic production of various articulations.
- **Auditory Phonetics:** Study of how the listeners perceive linguistic auditory aspects and understand these signals.

Scope and Branches of Linguistics

Linguistics is a vast and ever-evolving field of study as languages form an important part of human communication. The most popular subfields of linguistics where there is an advanced scope are:

- Phonology
- Phonetics
- Semantics
- Historical Linguistics
- Computational Linguistics
- Syntax
- Pragmatics
- Psycholinguistics
- Sociolinguistics

From sociology, computer science, language to history, psychology and real-life applications, Linguistics is filled with extensive scope to explore varied careers in. Here are the key employment areas to build a successful career in Linguistics:

- Lexicography
- Teaching
- Linguistics Research
- Social Psychology
- Sociology
- Speech and Language Therapy
- Editing, Proofreading & Translations
- Computer Science and Programming
- Anthropology
- Historical Research

1.5 Kinds of Linguistics - Descriptive, Comparative and Historical

Descriptive linguistics.

noun. (functioning as singular) **the study of the description of the internal phonological, grammatical, and semantic structures of languages at given points in time** without reference to their histories or to one another Also called: synchronic linguistics Compare historical linguistics.

comparative linguistics

Comparative linguistics, formerly Comparative Grammar, or Comparative Philology, **study of the relationships or correspondences between two or more languages and the techniques used to discover whether the languages have a common ancestor.**

Historical linguistics

It is also called Diachronic Linguistics, the branch of **linguistics concerned with the study of phonological, grammatical, and semantic changes**, the reconstruction of earlier stages of languages, and the discovery and application of the methods by which genetic relationships among languages can be ...

Unit 2 English Phonetics and Phonology I

2.1 Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology

Phonetics is the study of human sounds in general without reference to their systemic role in a specific language (contrast *phonology* below). Phonetics is divided into three types according to the production (articulatory), transmission (acoustic) and perception (auditive) of sounds.

Sounds can be divided into consonants and vowels. The former can be characterised according to 1) *place*, 2) *manner of articulation* and 3) *voice* (voiceless or voiced). For vowels one uses a coordinate system called a *vowel quadrangle* within which actual vowel values are located.

Phonology This is the functional classification of the sounds of a particular language. It is the system of sounds by means of which meanings are differentiated in a language and which serve as the building blocks for the higher linguistic levels, e.g. morphology.

Phoneme This is the smallest unit of language which distinguishes meaning, it is the organisational unit of phonology. Phonemes are written in slashes: / /. Examples of phonemes are /k/ and /g/ in English or German. Their status is shown by finding minimal pairs in which the only difference is between the two sounds in question, e.g. *cot* and *got* in German.

English or German

Allophone This term has two basic meanings. a) the realisation of a phoneme; b) non-distinctive variants of a phoneme. Allophones are written in square brackets: []. Examples of allophones are provided by different sounds in a language which do not change the meaning of a word, e.g. the uvular and alveolar /r/ of German as in *Brot* [bʁo:t] or [bro:t]. An English example would be provided by the alveolar and the velarised /r/ of English as in *leap* [li:p] and *deal* [di:l].

Phonotactics This is the area which is concerned with the possible sequences of sounds in a language. For instance, there is a word *ctaf* in English with a syllable-final /-kt/ but there is no word *ctaf* as /kt-/ cannot occur at the beginning of a syllable. Another example of a phonotactic restriction can be seen with the vowel /ɪ/ which occurs in closed syllables but not in open ones,

e.g. *dove* /d v/ is a permissible word in English but /dɪ/ is not because the syllable is not closed by a consonant at the end.

Prosody is concerned with features of words and sentences above the level of individual sounds,

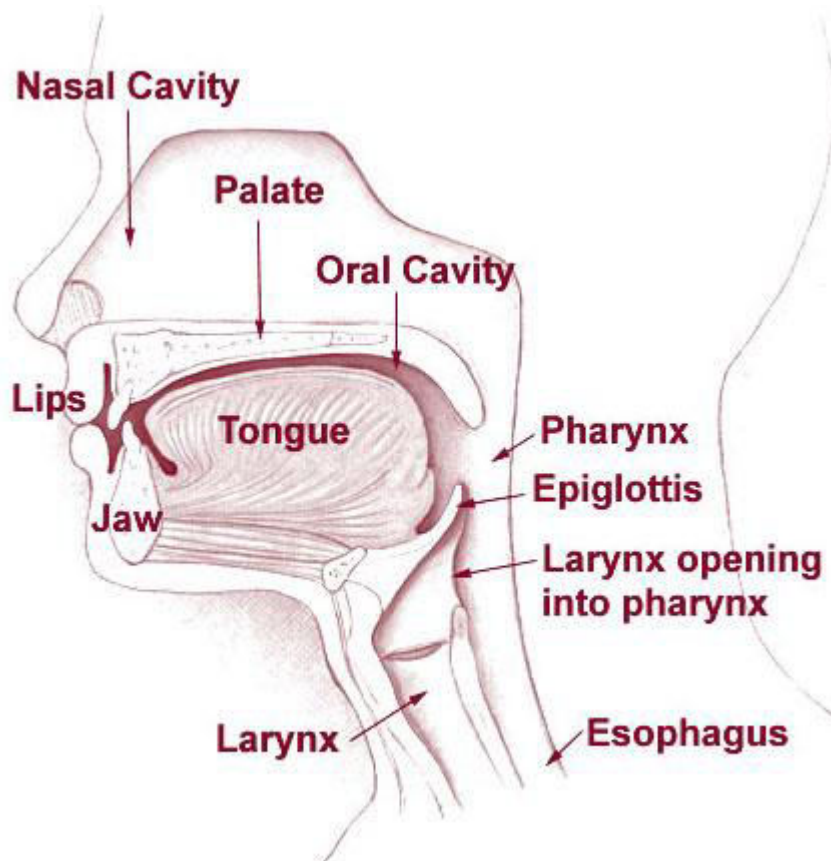
e.g. stress, pitch, intonation. Stress is frequently contrastive in English as in *convert* (noun) and *con'vert* (verb). Note that the stressed syllable of a word is indicated by a superscript vertical stroke placed before the syllable in question, e.g. *hostel* /'hostəl/ and *hotel* /hau'tel/.

It is essential to distinguish between *writing* and *sound*. **There are various** terms to characterise the relationship between the written and the spoken word depending on what the *match* between the two is like: homophony 'sameness of sound', e.g. *meat* and *meet*, *homography* 'sameness of **writing**', e.g. *head* and *lead*, homonymy 'sameness of sound and writing', e.g. *bear* and *bear*

2.2 Organs of Speech

The scientific study of the way speech sounds are produced by our vocal organs, the way they are perceived by the listeners and the way different sounds are combined into syllables, words and sentences is known as *phonetics*.

Speech organs (articulators) - all the sounds we make when we speak are the result of *muscles contracting*. The muscles in the chest that we use for breathing produce the flow of air that is needed for almost all speech sounds. Muscles in the larynx produce many different modifications in the flow of air from the chest to the mouth. After passing through the larynx, the air goes through what we call the *vocal tract*, which ends at the mouth and nostrils. Here the air from the lungs escapes into the atmosphere. We have a large and complex set of muscles that can produce changes in the shape of the vocal tract, and in order to learn how the sounds of speech are produced it is necessary to become familiar with the different parts of the vocal tract. These different parts are called articulators, and the study of them is called articulatory phonetics. Articulators produce the sounds of **language**. Organs used include the **lips, teeth, tongue, alveolar ridge, hard palate**, velum (**soft palate**), **uvula** and **glottis**.



1. Passive articulators - remain static during the articulation of sound.

- *pharynx wall* - is a tube which begins just above the larynx. It is about 7 cm. long, and at its top end it is divided into two, one part being the back of the mouth and the other being the beginning of the way through the nasal cavity. If you look in your mirror with your mouth open, you can see the back of the pharynx.

- *soft palate (velum)* - is seen in the diagram in a position that allows air to pass through the nose and through the mouth. Often in speech it is raised so that air cannot escape through the nose. It is one of the articulators that can be touched by the tongue. When we make the sounds *k* and *g* the tongue is in contact with the lower side of the velum, and we call these velar consonants.

- *hard palate* - is often called "the roof of the mouth". You can feel its smooth curved surface with your tongue.

- *alveolar ridge* - is between the top front teeth and the hard palate. You can feel its shape with your tongue. Its surface is really much rougher than it feels, and is covered with little ridges. Sounds made with the tongue touching here (such as *t* and *d*) are called alveolar.

- *teeth (upper and lower)* - are usually shown in diagrams only at the front of the mouth, immediately behind the lips. The tongue is in contact with the upper side teeth for many speech sounds. Sounds made with the tongue touching the front teeth are called dental.

- *lips* - they can be pressed together (when we produce the sounds *p*, *b*), brought into contact with the teeth (as in *f*, *v*), or rounded to produce the lip-shape for vowels like *u*:. Sounds in which the lips are in contact with each

other are called bilabial, while those with lip-to-teeth contact are called labiodental.

- *uvula*

2. Active articulators - move relative to these passive articulators to produce various speech sounds, in different manners. The most important active articulator is the *tongue* as it is involved in the production of the majority of sounds. The *lower lip* is other active articulator. But glottis (the part of the larynx consisting of the vocal cords and the slitlike opening between them) is not active articulator because it is only a space between vocal folds.

B. Formation of sounds - in studying articulation, phoneticians explain how humans produce speech sounds via the interaction of different physiological structures.

Generally, articulatory phonetics is concerned with the transformation of aerodynamic energy into acoustic energy. Aerodynamic energy refers to the airflow through the vocal tract. Its potential form is air pressure; its kinetic form is the actual dynamic airflow. Acoustic energy is variation in the air pressure that can be represented as sound waves, which are then perceived by the human auditory system as sound.

Components - the *vocal tract* can be viewed through an aerodynamic-biomechanic model that includes three main components: air cavities, pistons and air valves

1. Air cavities - are containers of specific volumes and masses. The main air cavities present in the articulatory system are the supraglottal cavity and the subglottal cavity. They are so-named because the glottis, the openable space between the vocal folds internal to the larynx, separates the two cavities. The supraglottal cavity or the orinasal cavity is divided into an oral subcavity (the cavity from the glottis to the lips excluding the nasal cavity) and a nasal subcavity (the cavity from the velopharyngeal port), which can be closed by raising the velum. The subglottal cavity consists of the trachea and the lungs. The atmosphere external to the articulatory stem may also be considered an air cavity whose potential connecting points with respect to the body are the nostrils and the lips.

2. Pistons - are initiators. The term *initiator* refers to the fact that they are used to initiate a change in the volumes of air cavities, and, by Boyle's Law, the corresponding air pressure of the cavity. The term *initiation* refers to the change. Since changes in air pressures between connected cavities lead to airflow between the cavities, initiation is also referred to as an air stream mechanism. The three pistons present in the articulatory system are the larynx, the tongue body, and the physiological structures used to manipulate lung volume (in particular, the floor and the walls of the chest). The lung pistons are used to initiate a pulmonic airstream (found in all human languages). The larynx is used to initiate the glottalic airstream mechanism by changing the volume of the supraglottal and subglottal cavities via vertical movement of the larynx (with a closed glottis).

3. Valves - regulate airflow between cavities. Airflow occurs when an air valve is open and there is a pressure difference between in the connecting cavities. When an air valve is closed, there is no airflow. The air valves are the vocal folds (the glottis), which regulate between the supraglottal and subglottal cavities, the velopharyngeal port, which regulates between the oral and nasal cavities, the tongue, which regulates between the oral cavity and the atmosphere, and the lips, which also regulate between the oral cavity and the atmosphere. Like the pistons, the air valves are also controlled by various muscles.

Initiation of sounds - to produce any kind of sound, there must be *movement of air*. To produce sounds that people today can interpret as words, the movement of air must pass through the vocal chords, up through the

throat and, into the mouth or nose to then leave the body. Different sounds are formed by different positions of the mouth—or, as linguists call it, "the oral cavity" (to distinguish it from the nasal cavity).

2. Classifications of English speech sounds

Sounds of all languages fall under two categories: vowels and consonants. A *vowel* is a sound in the articulation of which the air passes through the mouth freely. There is no obstruction to the stream of air. The *consonant* is a sound in the production of which an obstruction is formed in the mouth by the active organs of articulation. The organs of speech are tense at the place of obstruction. The stream of air is strong especially in the articulation of voiceless consonants as in [p], [t], [k].

A. Vowels - a speech sound that is produced by comparatively open configuration of the vocal tract, with vibration of the vocal cords but without audible friction and is a unit of the sound system of a language that forms the nucleus of a syllable.

Classification of the English Vowel phonemes - we begin the study of English sounds in the course by looking at vowels, and it is necessary to say something about vowels in general before turning to the vowels of English. We need to know in what ways vowels differ from each other. The first matter to consider is the *shape* and *position* of the tongue. It is usual to simplify the very complex possibilities by describing just two things: firstly, the vertical distance between the upper surface of the tongue, between front and back, which is raised highest.

The English vowel phonemes are divided into two large groups: monophthongs and diphthongs. A monophthong is a vowel in the pronunciation of which the organs, principally the tongue and the lips do not change their position through out the duration of the vowel as in the monophthongs [i:], [i], [e], [æ], [ɑ:], [ɔ:], [ɔ], [u], [ʊ:], [ə], [ə:], [ʌ],

A diphthong is a vowel sound in the pronunciation of which the organs of speech start in the position of one vowel and glide gradually in the direction of another. There are 8 diphthongs in English [ei], [ai], [oi], [əu], [iə], [eə], [uə], [ou]

The vowels are classified according to the following principles:

1. According to the position of the tongue

- on the horizontal movement of the tongue - the vowels are divided into:

- front - [i], [e], [ɛ], [æ]
- front restricted - [ɪ]

- mixed - [ə:], [ə]
 - back - [ɑ] [a:], [ɔ], [ɔ:], [u:]
 - back-advanced - [ʌ], [u:]
- *on the vertical movement of the tongue*
- close - [i:], [ɪ], [u:], [ʊ]
 - open - [æ], [a:], [ɔ], [ɔ:]
 - midopen - [e], [ə:], [ə], [ʌ]

2. According to the position of the lips

- *rounded* - [ə], [ɔ:], [u:], [ʊ]

- *unrounded* - in the production of which the lips are spread or neutral as in [i:], [ɪ], [e], [æ], [a:], [ʌ], [ə:], [ə]

3. According to their length

- *long* - [i:], [ɔ:], [a:], [ə:], [u:] and [æ] in certain positions

- *short* - [ɪ], [e], [a], [ə], [u], [ʌ], and [æ] in certain positions

4. According to the degree of tenseness

- *tense vowels* - [i], [ɔ:], [u:], [a:], [ə],

- *lax vowels*

In the production of tense vowels the organs of speech are tense. All English long vowels are tense. Lax vowels are those in the production of which the muscles of the organs of speech are less tense. All English short vowels are lax. The greater tenseness of the long vowels is connected with their length. Bulgarian vowels aren't differentiated according their tenseness.

5. According cavity where is produced

- *nasal vowel* - is a vowel that is produced with a lowering of the velum so that air escapes both through the nose as well as the mouth.

- *oral vowels* - are vowels without this nasalization. Nasal vowels that are distinctive or obligatory are of far more linguistic importance than whether or not speakers of a language tend to nasalize vowels in some instances.

[Nasal vowel / Oral vowel] [Previous Vowel / Later Vowel] [Rounded vowel / Unrounded vowel] [Open vowel / Closed vowel]

2.3 Segmental Phonemes

B. Consonants - the quality of the consonant sounds depends on the kind of noise that results when the tongue or the lips obstruct the air passage. Consonants are produced with some form of *restriction or closing in the vocal tract* that hinders the air flow from the lungs. Consonants are generally classified according to where in the vocal tract the airflow has been restricted. This is also known as the place of articulation.

occlusive (stops) consonants: the air passage through the mouth is completely blocked. They may be noise consonants or plosive like [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g] and occlusive sonorants [m], [n], [ŋ] in which the air passage through the mouth is blocked while the soft palate is lowered so that the air can pass through the nasal cavity.

- *constrictive*: the air passage is not blocked completely but is narrowed (constricted) an uncomplete obstruction - [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ], [h]

According to the size of narrowing the constrictive consonants are divided into:

- noise consonants - which are also called fricative consonants because an audible friction is produced [dʒ], [ʒ] and
- constrictive sonorants - in which the air passage is rather wide, so that no audible friction is produced. Here belongs the consonants - [w], [j], [r], [l]
- occlusive-constrictive: these are noise consonants - [tʃ], [dʒ]
- rolled or thrilled

2. According to the active organ of speech and the place of obstruction (*place of articulation*) - movement of the tongue and lips can create these constrictions and by forming the oral cavity in different ways, different sounds can be produced:

- *Bilabial* - when producing a [b], [p] or [m], articulation is done by bringing both lips together.

- *Labiodental* - [f] and [v] are articulated by placing the upper teeth against the lower lip.

- *Interdental* - [θ] and [ð] are both spelled as "th" (θ as in think) (ð as in the). They are pronounced by inserting the tip of the tongue between the teeth.

- *Alveolar* - [t][d][n][s][z][l][r] are produced in many ways where the tongue is raised towards the alveolar ridge.

- [t, d, n] - the tip of the tongue is raised and touches the ridge.
- [s, z] - the sides of the front of the tongue are raised, but the tip is lowered so that air escapes over it.

- [l] - the tip of the tongue is raised while the rest of the tongue remains down, permitting air to escape over its sides. Hence, [l] is called a lateral sound (âm biên).
- [r] [IPA ɹ] - curl the tip of tongue back behind the alveolar ridge, or bunch up the top of the tongue behind the ridge, the air escapes through the central part of the mouth. It is a central liquid.

- *Palatal* - [ʃ] [ʒ] [tʃ] [dʒ] [j] are produced by raising the front part of the tongue to the palate.

- *Velar* - [k][g][ŋ] are produced by raising the back part of the tongue to the soft palate or the velum.

- *Uvular* - [ʀ][q][ɢ] these sounds are produced by raising the back of the tongue to the uvula. The 'r' in French and German may be an uvular trill (symbolized by [ʀ]). The uvular sounds [q] and [ɢ] occur in Arabic. These do not normally occur in English.

- *Glottal* - [h][ʔ] the sound [h] is from the flow of air coming from an open glottis, past the tongue and lips as they prepare to pronounce a vowel sound, which always follows [h]. if the air is stopped completely at the glottis by tightly closed vocal chords the sound upon release of the chords is called a glottal stop [ʔ].

- *lingual*: they are articulated with the top of the tongue and the blade of the tongue [t], [d]

Here	we	distinguish	3	types:
- fore	lingual	[b],	[t],	[n],
- medio			lingual	[j],
- back	lingual	[k], [g], [ŋ]		

3. According to the work of vocal cords

- *voiceless consonants* - in the articulation of which the vocal cords are kept apart as [p], [t], [k], [ʔ], [ç], [f], [θ], [s], [ʃ], [tʃ], [h]

- *voiced consonants* - in the production of which the vocal cords are close together and vibrate [b], [d], [g], [m], [n], [ŋ], [v], [ð], [z], [ʒ], [dʒ], [l], [w]

4. According to the position of the soft palate

- *oral* – the soft palate is raised

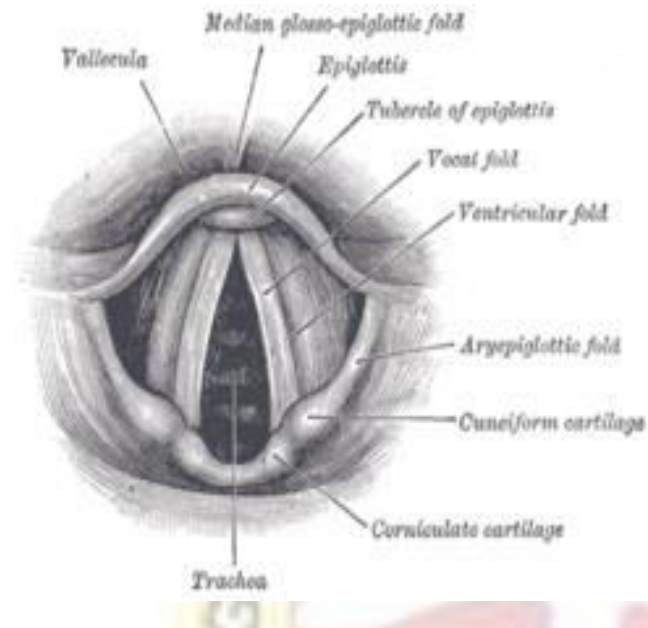
- *nasal consonants* – in the production of which soft palate is lowered and the air passes through the nasal cavity [m], [n], [ŋ]

2.4 FIVE point Description – P

In humans, **vocal cords**, also known as **vocal folds** or **voice reeds**, are folds of tissue in the throat that are key in creating sounds through vocalization. The size of vocal cords affects the pitch of voice. Open when breathing and vibrating for **speech** or **singing**, the folds are controlled via the **recurrent laryngeal branch** of the **vagus nerve**. They are composed of twin infoldings of **mucous membrane** stretched horizontally, from back to front, across the **larynx**. They **vibrate**, modulating the flow of air being expelled from the lungs during **phonation**.^[1]

The 'true vocal cords' are distinguished from the 'false vocal folds', known as **vestibular folds** or **ventricular folds**, which sit slightly superior to the more delicate true folds. These have a minimal role in normal **phonation**, but can produce deep sonorous tones, screams and growls.

The length of the vocal fold at birth is approximately six to eight millimeters and grows to its adult length of eight to sixteen millimeters by adolescence. **Testosterone**, an **androgen** secreted by the gonads, causes irreversible changes in the cartilages and musculature of the larynx when present in high enough concentrations, such as during an adolescent boy's **puberty**: The thyroid prominence appears, the vocal folds lengthen and become rounded, and the epithelium thickens with the formation of three distinct layers in the *lamina propria*.



The vocal folds are located within the larynx at the top of the **trachea**. They are attached at the back to the **arytenoid cartilages**, and at the front to the **thyroid cartilage**. They are part of the **glottis**. Their outer edges are attached to muscle in the larynx while their inner edges form an opening called the **rima glottidis**. They are constructed from **epithelium**, but they have a few muscle-fibres in them, namely the **vocalis muscle** which tightens the front part of the **ligament** near to the thyroid cartilage. They are flat triangular bands and are pearly white in color. Above both sides of the **glottis** are the two **vestibular folds** or false vocal folds which have a small sac between them.

Position of the Soft Palate

The soft palate is the muscular part at the back of the roof of the mouth. It sits behind the hard palate, which is the bony part of the roof of the mouth. The palates play important roles in swallowing, breathing, and speech. The hard and soft palates make up the roof of the mouth. The soft palate sits at the back of the mouth, behind the hard palate, which holds the teeth and gums.

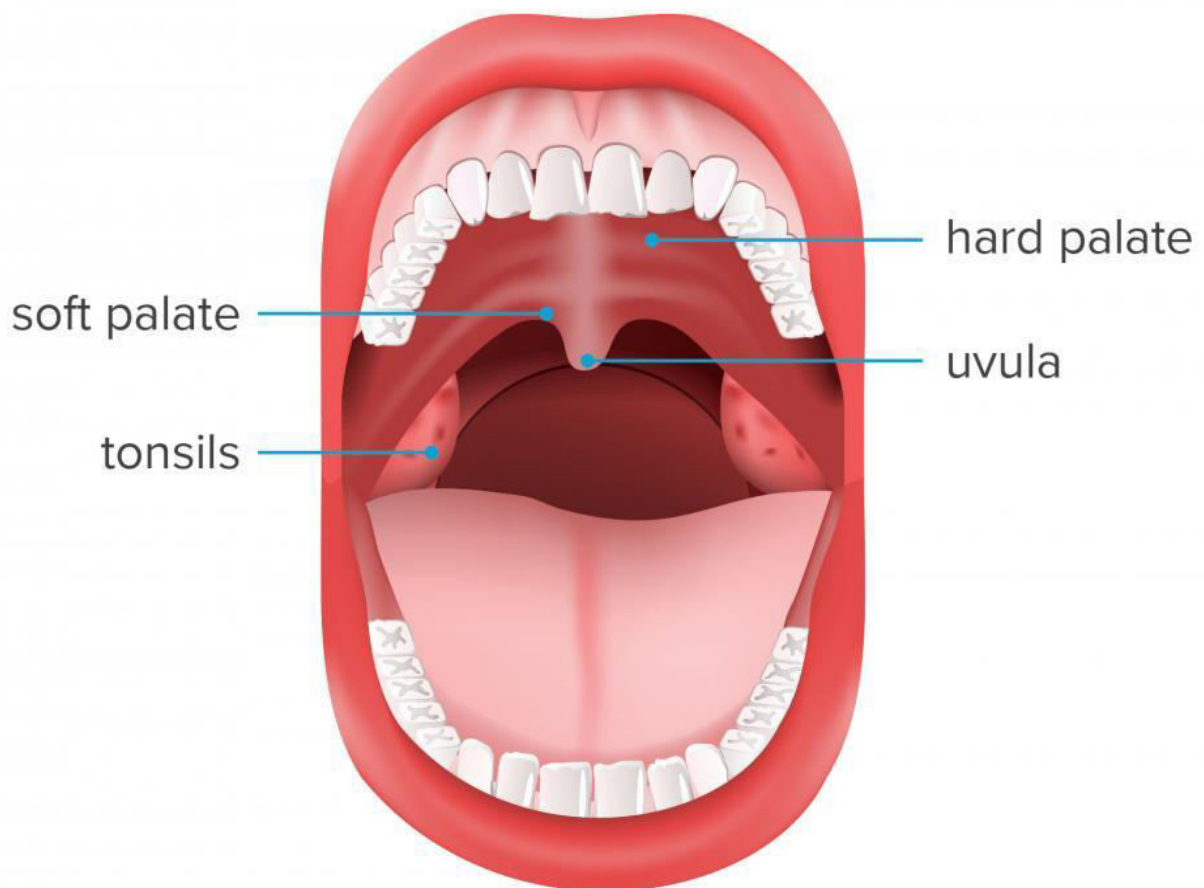
The soft palate does not contain any bone but is a fleshy area that ends in the uvula. The uvula is the fleshy projection that hangs down from the soft palate and is visible when a person opens their mouth. The function of the uvula is to block the nasal cavity when a person is eating or drinking.

The soft palate comprises muscle and tissue, which make it mobile and flexible. When a person is swallowing or sucking, the soft palate completely separates the mouth from the throat, which helps keep food out of the respiratory tract.

The soft palate is also known as the muscular palate or the velum.

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Place of Articulation

In [articulatory phonetics](#), the **place of articulation** (also **point of articulation**) of a [consonant](#) is the point of contact where an [obstruction](#) occurs in the [vocal tract](#) between an **articulatory gesture**, an active articulator (typically some part of the tongue), and a passive location (typically some part of the roof of the mouth). Along with the [manner of articulation](#) and the [phonation](#), it gives the consonant its distinctive sound.

The terminology in this article has been developed for precisely describing all the consonants in all the world's spoken languages. No known language distinguishes all of the places described here so less precision is needed to distinguish the sounds of a particular language.

Manner of Articulation

In articulatory phonetics, the manner of articulation is **the configuration and interaction of the articulators** (speech organs such as the tongue, lips, and palate) when making a speech sound. One parameter of manner is stricture, that is, how closely the speech organs approach one another.

– Active and Passive Articulators

At each place of articulation, there is a constriction between an active articulator and a passive articulator. The **active articulators are the lower lip and the tongue**, while the passive articulators are the upper lip, the upper teeth, the roof of the mouth, and the rear wall.

2.5 Minimal Pairs-

A **minimal pair** is *two words that vary by only a single sound*, usually meaning sounds that may confuse English learners, like the /f/ and /v/ in *fan* and *van*, or the /e/ and /i/ in *desk* and *disk*.



UNIT 3 English Phonetics and Phonology II

What Is A Vowel?

In order to count the number of English vowel sounds, we need to know what counts as a vowel. Technically speaking, **vowels are produced by releasing air from the lungs through the oral and/or nasal cavity**. From there, we typically modify these sounds with our vocal cords, mouth and lips to produce distinct vowel sounds.

However, this description can also include sounds like the W in “with,” the Y in “year” and the R “red.” But these are not vowels because they lack the vital characteristic that all vowels have in common: **Vowels are syllabic**, meaning they can be a syllable all on their own.

Types Of Vowels

From here, we can divide English vowel sounds up into a couple of categories: **short vowels, long vowels, diphthongs, vowels before historical R, and weak vowels**. First, the distinction between short and long vowels is pretty self-explanatory. Next, diphthongs are vowel phonemes that begin as one vowel sound and slide into another, but still only make up one syllable.

Meanwhile, vowels before historical R have undergone many changes in the [history of English](#), and so this is an important category to consider. This is especially true because our two reference accents differ on this a lot, as SSBE has lost all traces of historical R when not at the beginning of a syllable. Finally, weak vowels are like short vowels, except they can never appear in a stressed syllable and they can end a syllable.

Vowels In Standard Southern British English

From this point, we’ll reference [lexical sets](#) and the [International Phonetic Alphabet](#) quite a bit, so a little background or research on these topics will be helpful for following along.

Standard Southern British English has 19 distinct vowel phonemes. Here’s the full list, with their relevant lexical sets below:

/ɪ/ /e/ /æ/ /ʌ/ /ɒ/ /ʊ/ /i:/ /ɔ:/ /u:/ /ɑ:/ /aɪ/ /eɪ/ /ɔɪ/ /aʊ/ /əʊ/ /ɪə/ /ɛ:/ /ɜ:/ /ə/

Short vowels

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
KIT	/ɪ/	myth, pretty, women
DRESS	/e/	bread, many, friend

TRAP	/æ/	cat, man, Africa
STRUT	/ʌ/	son, courage, blood
LOT	/ɒ/	watch, knowledge, Austria
FOOT	/ʊ/	took, good, put

Among SSBE's short vowels, spellings vary pretty widely. The one thing that remains constant is the TRAP vowel, which is always spelled with a letter A. This is a reliable way to tell it apart from the STRUT vowel, which many English learners confuse it with.

Long vowels

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
FLEECE	/i:/	sea, people, police
THOUGHT, NORTH, CURE	/ɔ:/	water, four, sure
GOOSE	/u:/	new, due, tuna
BATH, PALM, START	/ɑ:/	fast, half, car

Diphthongs

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
PRICE	/aɪ/	try, night, height
FACE	/eɪ/	say, stain, freight
CHOICE	/ɔɪ/	noise, loiter, boy
MOUTH	/aʊ/	noun, cow, shower
GOAT	/əʊ/	slow, toe, mauve

Here we can see more examples of how **spelling is not a reliable indicator of how many vowel sounds English has**. The same spelling can represent distinct vowel pronunciations, and in reverse, the same pronunciation can be represented by multiple spellings.

With historical /r/

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
NEAR	/ɪə/	clear, tear, beer
SQUARE	/ɛ:/	fair, chair, heir
NURSE	/ɜ:/	mercy, earth, word

As mentioned above, since SSBE lost all /r/s that were not before vowel sounds, all syllable-final /r/s are dropped in pronunciation too. This left a set of vowel sounds which are still written with the letter R in spelling, but have no remnant of the /r/ sound in them in this accent.

Weak vowel

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
LETTER, COMMA	/ə/	hammer, about, common

The weak vowel is also known as a *schwa*, and it just so happens to be the most common vowel sound in English. It can be tricky to see at first because the knowledge of spelling often overrides our perception of a spoken sound. But once you become aware of it, you'll notice it everywhere.

Vowels In General American English

General American English has 21 distinct vowel phonemes. They are as follows:

/ɪ/ /ɛ/ /æ/ /ʌ/ /ʊ/ /i:/ /ɑ:/ /u:/ /aɪ/ /eɪ/ /ɔɪ/ /aʊ/ /oʊ/ /ɪr/ /ɛr/ /ɔr/ /ɑr/ /ʊr/ /ɜ/ /ɝ/ /ə/

Short vowels

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
KIT	/ɪ/	myth, pretty, women
DRESS	/ɛ/	bread, many, friend
TRAP, BATH	/æ/	cat, fast, pass
STRUT	/ʌ/	son, courage, blood
FOOT	/ʊ/	took, good, put

More or less the same as SSBE, GenAm's system of short vowels differs only in that there is no difference between the sets TRAP and BATH, so the words "gas" and "grass" are perfect rhymes. Also, notice that the DRESS vowel is written with a different symbol in GenAm than in SSBE because the GenAm vowel tends to be much more open.

Long vowels

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
FLEECE	/i:/	sea, people, police
LOT, THOUGHT, PALM	/ɑ:/	watch, caught, half
GOOSE	/u:/	new, due, tuna

Diphthongs

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
PRICE	/aɪ/	try, night, height
FACE	/eɪ/	say, stain, freight
CHOICE	/ɔɪ/	noise, loiter, boy
MOUTH	/aʊ/	noun, cow, shower
GOAT	/oʊ/	slow, toe, mauve

GenAm's distribution of diphthongs is identical to SSBE's, but one minor difference is the transcription of the GOAT vowel: Here it starts with a much rounder vowel sound.

With historical /r/

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
NEAR	/ɪr/	clear, tear, beer
SQUARE	/ɛr/	fair, chair, heir
NORTH	/ɔr/	boar, four, chore
CURE	/ʊr/	pure, ensure, couture
START	/ɑr/	car, alarm, Arctic
NURSE	/ɜ-/	mercy, earth, word

Since GenAm has retained the /r/ sound in all positions, this subset of vowels is quite large. We transcribe all of them as a vowel plus /r/, except for NURSE which has its own special symbol, used to indicate an "R-colored vowel." We can also think of the NURSE vowel in GenAm as a syllabic /r/. This means that we could say that there isn't vowel sound at all in this word, and instead the /r/ makes up the syllable itself.

Weak vowels

Lexical set	Transcription	Examples
LETTER	/ə-/	feather, entered
COMMA	/ə/	ninja, common, original

Unlike SSBE, GenAm makes a distinction between these two sets since all historical /r/s are kept. For example, this means that the words "clear" and "idea" do not rhyme in GenAm.

Sentence stress :

We have seen that every word of two or more syllables, when said alone, has a stress on one of its syllables. This is called word-stress. But in connected speech we do not hear a stress on every word. Some words lose their stresses, especially when we talk quickly, other words keep their stresses and these stressed syllables form what is called sentence stress.

1.1 Functions of sentence stress

Sentence stress has two main functions: Its first function is to indicate the important words in the sentence (from the point of view of grammar, meaning or the speaker's attitude).

For example: I could `hardly `believe my `eyes. In this sentence the words "hardly", "believe" and "eyes" are stressed because they are important in meaning. The second function of sentence stress is to serve as the basis for the rhythmical structure of the sentence. The rhythm of English speech is formed by the recurrence of stressed syllables at more or less regular intervals of time and by the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. Under the influence of the latter peculiarity of the rhythm of English speech, important words in meaning which are usually stressed may be pronounced without sentence stress. For example: Very good. Not very good. t veri `gud]P[`veri `gud] [`n

1.2 How to teach sentence stress in EFLT We have a very strong impression that many Chinese students speak English with every word stressed, CAI Cui-yun, M.A., lecturer, College of Foreign Languages, Zhejiang Gongshang University; research fields: cross-cultural communication, English teaching. The features and training of English stress and rhythm 62 whereas, some students may read texts without modulation in tone. Here are some suggestions for teachers to help students to grasp sentence stress.

(1) It is improper to accent all the content words in a word group regardless of the contextual situation, although they are more likely to receive accent than the grammatical (form) words. Only the "telegram" words or the words you would wish a somewhat deaf person to hear first should be accented.

(2) To supply students with enough opportunities to decide which words should be stressed in a sentence by themselves, let them read the text silently, think over, then underline the words ought to be stressed. It means that students should comprehend first, then practise, but not model mechanically.

(3) The teacher should read texts loudly. When the teacher is reading or playing the tape, students ought to look at the text. The teacher should direct students to pay attention to the lowering, rising, loudness, pause, slowing of sounds.

2. Word stress Words which are usually stressed in English unemphatic speech belong to content words, namely, nouns, adjectives, numerals, notional verbs, adverbs, demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite pronouns and possessive pronouns functioning as nouns. Those that are usually unstressed in English unemphatic speech are form words, namely, auxiliary and modal verbs, verb to be, monosyllabic prepositions, monosyllabic conjunctions and articles. Personal pronouns, possessive pronouns (except absolute ones: mine, hers...), reflexive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns and relative pronouns are also usually unstressed. Examples: I am `reading a `very `interesting `novel. `Dress yourself more `neatly. However, it is necessary to point out that any word in a sentence may be logically stressed if it implies special emphasis or contrast. Examples: We `heard `John `talking (plain statement of fact). We `heard John talking (implied contrast-"but we didn't see him"). We heard `John talking (implied contrast-"but didn't hear Mary"). `We heard John talking (implied

contrast-“but others didn’t”). We heard John `talking (implied contrast-“but we didn’t hear him singing”). A word that is logically stressed may stand at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a sentence, and is usually the last stressed word in it. Sentence-stress on words following logical stress disappears. Here are some other examples: I `can do the job (Don’t think I can’t do it). I `didn’t `know `you were leaving (I thought it was he who was leaving).

2.1 Stress of auxiliary and modal verbs Auxiliary and modal verbs, as well as the link verb to be, are stressed in the following cases:

(1) At the beginning of a sentence, that is to say, in general and alternative questions, e.g. `Are you on `duty to day? `Have you `finished your homework? The features and training of English stress and rhythm 63 Note that in the examples above, the initial auxiliary or modal verbs or verb to be may be unstressed, but this will make the questions sound casual.

(2) When they are in the end, used as short answers to general questions, e.g. `Have you `read the book? `Yes, I `have. However they are not stressed when used as answers to special questions, e.g. `Who is on `duty today? `I am.

(3) In contracted negative forms, e.g. He `won’t be `late. It `doesn’t matter. (4) The auxiliary verb “to do” is stressed in emphatic constructions, e.g. `Do come a gain. He `did `write to me. (5) Modal verbs “ought to”, “must” (expressing strong certainty and expectation), “should” (meaning ought to) and “may” (indicating possibility) are always stressed, e.g. You `ought to `do it `now. It `should be `fine to morrow. (6) “Will” and “would” expressing determination or desire always receive sentence stress, e.g. Of `course, we `will do our `work `well.

2.2 Stress of prepositions Prepositions are usually stressed in the following cases:

(1) If they consist of two or more syllables and are followed by an unstressed personal pronoun at the end of a sense-group, e.g. The `dog ran `after him. We should note that prepositions consisting of one syllable in this position are usually unstressed. They may have either strong forms or weak forms. `Here is a `letter for you. [f:] or [f]

(2) If they are at the beginning of the sentence or after verb “to be” and followed by an unstressed syllable, they may be stressed, e.g. `In the countryside, he `made `many `friends. It’s `in my `pencil-box. (3) Conjunctions are usually stressed if they stand at the beginning of a sentence and are followed by an unstressed word, e.g. `If he comes, please `ring me up.

2.3 No stress of some content words Some content words are not stressed in certain cases as follows:

(1) A word that has just been used is not stressed, as it is a known message, e.g. `How many `times? `Three times.

(2)The word “street” in names of streets is never stressed, e.g. `Wall Street

(3) In exclamatory sentences such words as “what”, “how” etc, are usually not stressed in order to give emphasis to the adjectives (or adverbs),

e.g. The features and training of English stress and rhythm 64 a. What a `good `comrade! b. What `lovely `weather! c. How `hard they are `working! However, “What” in sentence a may be stressed for rhythmical reason as it is followed by an unstressed syllable (i.e. a)

(4) The word “so” used as a substitute word to stand for a whole statement has no sentence stress. e.g. Is he `coming? I `don’t `think so.

(5) Demonstrative pronouns “this” and “that”, having the meaning of “it” and “the”, are not stressed: He’ll `never for`get that `day when he `joined the `Party (that = the). `When did you `read this? (this = it)

(6) Demonstrative pronoun “this” in “this morning” (afternoon, evening) is not stressed: He ar`rived this `morning.

(7) Adverb “enough” preceded by an adjective or another adverb is not stressed, e.g. The `book is `easy enough for us to `read. He `ran `fast enough. (8) Adverbs of degree followed by strongly stressed words often lose their stress, e.g. It’s much `better than I ex,pected. It’s rather too `late.

3.5 Suprasegmental features –

Suprasegmental, also called **prosodic feature**, in phonetics, a [speech](#) feature such as [stress](#), [tone](#), or word juncture that accompanies or is added over consonants and vowels; these features are not limited to single sounds but often extend over syllables, words, or phrases. In [Spanish](#) the stress [accent](#) is often used to distinguish between otherwise identical words: *término* means “term,” *termino* means “I terminate,” and *terminó* means “he terminated.” In [Mandarin](#) Chinese, tone is a distinctive suprasegmental: *shih* pronounced on a high, level note means “to lose”; on a slight rising note means “ten”; on a falling note means “city, market”; and on a falling–rising note means “history.” English “beer dripped” and “beard ripped” are distinguished by word juncture.

The above examples demonstrate functional suprasegmentals. Nonfunctional suprasegmentals that do not change the meaning of words or phrases also exist; stress in French is an example. Suprasegmentals are so called in contrast to consonants and vowels, which are treated as serially ordered segments of the spoken utterance.

The logo of St. Xavier's College, Chennai, India, is a circular emblem. It features a central white cross with a flame-like shape at its base, set against a red background. The emblem is surrounded by a yellow border containing the text "ST. XAVIER'S COLLEGE, CHENNAI, INDIA" in a circular arrangement.

UNIT -4 Morphology and Word Formation

4.1 Morphemes – Free and bound Morphemes

What are Morphemes?

Definition

A "morpheme" is a short segment of language that meets three basic criteria:

1. It is a word or a part of a word that has meaning.
2. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful segments without changing its meaning or leaving a meaningless remainder.
3. It has relatively the same stable meaning in different verbal environments.

Free and Bound Morphemes

There are two types of morphemes-free morphemes and bound morphemes. "Free morphemes" can stand alone with a specific meaning, for example, **eat**, **date**, **weak**. "Bound morphemes" cannot stand alone with meaning. Morphemes are comprised of two separate classes called (a) bases (or roots) and (b) affixes.

A "base," or "root" is a morpheme in a word that gives the word its principle meaning. An example of a "free base" morpheme is **woman** in the word **womanly**. An example of a "bound base" morpheme is **-sent** in the word **dissent**.

Affixes

An "affix" is a bound morpheme that occurs *before* or after a base. An affix that comes before a base is called a "prefix." Some examples of prefixes are **ante-**, **pre-**, **un-**, and **dis-**, as in the following words:

antedate
prehistoric
unhealthy
disregard

An affix that comes after a base is called a "suffix." Some examples of suffixes are **-ly**, **-er**, **-ism**, and **-ness**, as in the following words:

happily
gardener
capitalism
kindness

Derivational Affixes

An affix can be either derivational or inflectional. "Derivational affixes" serve to alter the meaning of a word by building on a base. In the examples of words with prefixes and suffixes above, the addition of the prefix **un-** to **healthy** alters the meaning of **healthy**. The resulting word means "not healthy." The addition of the suffix **-er** to **garden** changes the meaning of **garden**, which is a place where plants, flowers, etc., grow, to a word that refers to 'a person who tends a garden.' It should be noted that *all* prefixes in English are derivational. However, suffixes may be either derivational or inflectional.

Inflectional Affixes

There are a large number of derivational affixes in English. In contrast, there are only eight "inflectional affixes" in English, and these are all **suffixes**. English has the following inflectional suffixes, which serve a variety of grammatical functions when added to specific types of words. These grammatical functions are shown to the right of each suffix.

-s noun plural
 -'s noun possessive
 -s verb present tense third person singular
 -ing verb present participle/gerund
 -ed verb simple past tense
 -en verb past perfect participle
 -er adjective comparative
 -est adjective superlative

4.2 Affixes -Prefix , Suffix and Infix

There are three main types of affixes: prefixes, infixes, and suffixes. ... A **prefix occurs at the beginning of a word or stem** (sub-mit, pre-determine, un-willing); a suffix at the end (wonder-ful, depend-ent, act-ion); and an infix occurs in the middle.

List of common prefixes

ante-	before	antenatal, anteroom, antedate,
anti-	against, opposing	antibiotic, antidepressant, antidote, antifreeze
circum-	around	circumstance, circumvent, circumnavigate
co-	with, together	co-worker, co-pilot, co-operation, co-worker
de-	off, down, away from	devalue, defrost, derail, demotivate, deactivate
dis-	opposite of, against	disagree, disappear, disintegrate, disapprove
em-, en-	cause to, put into	embrace, encode, embed, enclose, engulf
epi-	upon, close to, after, central point	epicentre, episcopo, epidermis
ex-	former, out of, no longer with	ex-president, ex-boyfriend, exterminate
extra-	More of, beyond	extracurricular, extraordinary, extra-terrestrial

fore-	before, beginning	forecast, forehead, foresee, foreword, foremost
homo-	same, two equal things	homosexual, homonuclear, homoplastic
hyper-	over, above, excess of	hyperactive, hyperventilate
il-, im-, in-, ir-	not, to negate, negative	impossible, illegal, irresponsible, indefinite
im-, in-	into, within	insert, import, inside
infra-	beneath, below	infrastructure, infrared, infrasonic, infraspecific
inter-, intra-	between	interact, intermediate, intergalactic, intranet
macro-	large, big version	macroeconomics, macromolecule
micro-	small, tiny, petite	microscope, microbiology, microfilm, microwave
mid-	middle, centre point	midfielder, midway, midsummer
mis-	wrongly, not correct	misinterpret, misfire, mistake, misunderstand

mono-	one, singular	monotone, monobrow, monolithic
non-	not, without	nonsense, nonentity, nondescript
omni-	all, every, all places	omnibus, omnivore, omnipotent
para-	beside	parachute, paramedic, paradox
post-	after,	post-mortem, postpone, post-natal
pre-	before, beginning	prefix, predetermine, pre-intermediate
re-	again, repeat	return, rediscover, reiterate, reunite
semi-	half,	semicircle, semi-final, semiconscious
sub-	under, below	submerge, submarine, sub-category, subtitle
super-	above, over, above	superfood, superstar, supernatural, superimpose
therm-	heat, temperature	thermometer, thermostat, thermodynamic

trans- across, beyond transport, transnational, transatlantic

tri- three triangle, tripod, tricycle

un- not, to negate, negative unfinished, unfriendly, undone, unknown

uni- one, unicycle, universal, unilateral, unanimous

List of common suffixes

-acy state or quality democracy, accuracy, lunacy, fallacy

-al the action or process of remedial, denial, trial, criminal,

-ance, -ence state or quality of nuisance, ambience, tolerance

-dom place or state of being freedom, stardom, boredom

-er, -or person or object that does a specified action reader, creator, interpreter, inventor, collaborator, teacher, terminator

-ism doctrine, belief, theory Judaism, scepticism, escapism, cynicism

-ist	person or object that does a specified action	Geologist, protagonist, sexist, scientist, theorist, communist, physicist
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-ity, -ty	quality of	extremity, validity, enormity, absurdity
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-ment	condition, state of being	enchantment, argument, agreement
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-ness	state of being, condition	heaviness, highness, sickness, staleness
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-ship	position held	friendship, hardship, internship,
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-sion, -tion	state of being	position, promotion, cohesion, creation
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VERB SUFFIXES

-ate	become	mediate, collaborate, create, mandate
------	--------	---------------------------------------

-en	become	sharpen, strengthen, loosen
-----	--------	-----------------------------

-ify, -fy	make or become	justify, simplify, magnify, satisfy, clarify
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-ise, -ize	become	publicise, synthesise, hypnotise
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ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES

-able, -ible	capable of being	edible, fallible, incredible, audible, comprehensible,
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		doable
-al	having the form or character of	fiscal, thermal, herbal, colonial,
-esque	in a manner of or resembling	picturesque, burlesque, grotesque
-ful	notable for, possess a skill	handful, playful, hopeful, skillful,
-ic, -ical	having the form or character of	psychological, hypocritical, methodical, nonsensical, musical
-ious, -ous	characterised by	pious, jealous, religious, ridiculous, malicious
-ish	having the quality of, being slightly of something	squeamish, sheepish, childish,
-ive	having the nature of	inquisitive, informative, attentive, native
-less	without, zero	meaningless, hopeless, homeless
-y	characterised by	dainty, beauty, airy, jealousy, hardly, dandy
<i>ADVERB SUFFIXES</i>		
-ly	related to or quality	softly, slowly, happily, crazily, madly, hopefully
-ward, -wards	direction, movement	towards, afterwards, backwards, inward, downward
-wise	in relation to	otherwise, likewise, clockwise

4.3 Allomorphs - Zero morphemes Empty Morphemes

In linguistics, an allomorph is a **variant phonetic form of a morpheme**, or, a unit of meaning that varies in sound and spelling without changing the meaning. The term allomorph describes the realization of phonological variations for a specific morpheme.

English has several morphemes that vary in sound but not in meaning such as past tense morphemes, plural morphemes, and negative morphemes.

Past Tense Allomorphs

For example, in [English](#), a past tense morpheme is *-ed*. It occurs in several allomorphs depending on its phonological environment, assimilating voicing of the previous segment or inserting a [schwa](#) after an alveolar stop:^[1]

- as /əd/ or /ɪd/ in verbs whose [stem](#) ends with the alveolar stops /t/ or /d/, such as 'hunted' /hʌntɪd/ or 'banded' /bændɪd/
- as /t/ in verbs whose stem ends with voiceless phonemes other than /t/, such as 'fished' /fɪʃt/
- as /d/ in verbs whose stem ends with voiced phonemes other than /d/, such as 'buzzed' /bʌzɪd/

The "other than" restrictions above commonly occur in allomorphy: if the allomorphy conditions are ordered from most restrictive (in this case, after an alveolar stop) to least restrictive, then the first matching case usually "win." Thus, the above conditions could be rewritten as follows:

- as /əd/ or /ɪd/ when the stem ends with the alveolar stops /t/ or /d/
- as /t/ when the stem ends with voiceless phonemes
- as /d/ elsewhere

The /t/ allomorph does not appear after stem-final /t/ although the latter is voiceless is then explained by /əd/ appearing in that environment, together with the fact that the environments are ordered. Likewise, the /d/ allomorph does not appear after stem-final /d/ because the earlier clause for the /əd/ allomorph takes priority; the /d/ allomorph does not appear after stem-final voiceless phoneme because the preceding clause for the /t/ takes priority.

Irregular past tense forms, such as "broke" or "was/ were," can be seen as still more specific cases since they are confined to certain lexical items, such as the verb "break," which take priority over the general cases listed above.^[1]

Plural Allomorphs

The plural morpheme for regular nouns in [English](#), is typically realized by adding an *s* or *es* to the end of the noun. However, the plural morpheme actually has three different allomorphs: [s], [z], and [əz]. The specific pronunciation that a plural morpheme takes on is determined by the following morphological rules:^[2]

- Assume that the basic form of the plural morpheme, /z/, is [z] (ex. bags /bægz/)
- The morpheme /z/ becomes [əz] by inserting an [ə] before [z] when a noun ends in a sibilant (ex. buses /bʌsəz/)
- Change the morpheme /z/ to a voiceless [s] when a noun ends in a voiceless sound (ex. caps /kæps/)

Negative Allomorphs

In [English](#), the negative prefix *in* has three allomorphs: [in], [ɪn], and [ɪm]. The phonetic form that the negative morpheme /in/ takes on is determined by the following morphological rules:^[3]

- the negative morpheme /in/ becomes [in] when preceding an alveolar consonant (ex. intolerant /in'talərənt/)
- the morpheme /in/ becomes [iŋ] when preceding a velar consonant (ex. incongruous /iŋ'kɒŋruəs/)
- the morpheme /in/ becomes [im] when preceding a bilabial consonant (ex. improper /im'prəpər/)

In **morphology**, a **null morpheme** or **zero morpheme** is a **morpheme** that has no phonetic form.^[1] In simpler terms, a null morpheme is an "invisible" affix. It is a concept useful for analysis, by contrasting null morphemes with alternatives that do have some phonetic realization.^[2] The null morpheme is represented as either the figure zero (0) or the **empty set** symbol \emptyset .

In most languages, it is the **affixes** that are realized as null morphemes, indicating that the derived form does not differ from the **stem**. For example, plural form *sheep* can be analyzed as combination of *sheep* with added null affix for the plural. The process of adding a null affix is called *null affixation*, *null derivation* or *zero derivation*. The concept was first used by 4th century BCE **Sanskrit grammarian** from ancient India, **Pāṇini**, in his **Sanskrit grammar**.^[3]

Inflection

The existence of a null morpheme in a **word** can also be theorized by contrast with other forms of the same word showing alternative morphemes. For example, the singular number of English **nouns** is shown by a null morpheme that contrasts with the plural morpheme *-s*.

- *cat* = *cat* + $-\emptyset$ = ROOT ("cat") + SINGULAR
- *cats* = *cat* + *-s* = ROOT ("cat") + PLURAL

In addition, there are some cases in English where a null morpheme indicates plurality in nouns that take on irregular plurals.

- *sheep* = *sheep* + $-\emptyset$ = ROOT ("sheep") + SINGULAR
- *sheep* = *sheep* + $-\emptyset$ = ROOT ("sheep") + PLURAL

Also, a null morpheme marks the present tense of English **verbs** in all forms but the third person singular:

- *(I) run* = *run* + $-\emptyset$ = ROOT ("run") + PRESENT: Non-3rd-SINGULAR
- *(He) runs* = *run* + *-s* = ROOT ("run") + PRESENT: 3rd-SINGULAR^[3]

Derivation

According to some linguists' view, English verbs such as *to clean*, *to slow*, *to warm* are converted from **adjectives** by a null morpheme – in contrast to verbs such as *to widen* or *to enable* which are also converted from adjectives, but using non-null morphemes.^[citation needed] Null derivation, also known as **conversion** if the **word class** changes, is very common in **analytic languages** such as English.

4.4 Compound Words, Back formation Portmanteau words, Clipping of Words

Word Formation

Word formation occurs when compounding, clipping or blending existing words to create new words. Below we will cover the definition of these terms and give you several examples of each.

Compounding Words

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Compounding words are formed when two or more lexemes combine into a single new word. Compound words may be written as one word or as two words joined with a hyphen. For example:

- noun-noun compound: note + book → notebook
- adjective-noun compound: blue + berry → blueberry
- verb-noun compound: work + room → workroom
- noun-verb compound: breast + feed → breastfeed
- verb-verb compound: stir + fry → stir-fry
- adjective-verb compound: high + light → highlight
- verb-preposition compound: break + up → breakup
- preposition-verb compound: out + run → outrun
- adjective-adjective compound: bitter + sweet → bittersweet
- preposition-preposition compound: in + to → into

Compounds may be compositional, meaning that the meaning of the new word is determined by combining the meanings of the parts, or non-compositional, meaning that the meaning of the new word cannot be determined by combining the meanings of the parts. For example, a *blueberry* is a berry that is blue. However, a *breakup* is not a relationship that was severed into pieces in an upward direction. Compound nouns should not be confused with **nouns modified by adjectives, verbs, and other nouns**. For example, the adjective *black* of the noun phrase *black bird* is different from the adjective *black* of the compound noun *blackbird* in that *black* of *black bird* functions as a noun phrase modifier while the *black* of *blackbird* is an inseparable part of the noun: a black bird also refers to any bird that is black in color while a blackbird is a specific type of bird.

Clipping Words

Clipping is the word formation process in which a word is reduced or shortened without changing the meaning of the word. Clipping differs from back-formation in that the new word retains the meaning of the original word. For example:

- advertisement – ad
- alligator – gator
- examination – exam
- gasoline – gas
- gymnasium – gym
- influenza – flu
- laboratory – lab
- mathematics – math
- memorandum – memo

- photograph – photo
- public house – pub
- raccoon – coon
- reputation – rep
- situation comedy – sitcom
- telephone – phone

The four types of clipping are back clipping, fore-clipping, middle clipping, and complex clipping. Back clipping is removing the end of a word as in *gas* from *gasoline*. Fore-clipping is removing the beginning of a word as in *gator* from *alligator*. Middle clipping is retaining only the middle of a word as in *flu* from *influenza*. Complex clipping is removing multiple parts from multiple words as in *sitcom* from *situation comedy*.

Blending Words

Blending is the word formation process in which parts of two or more words combine to create a new word whose meaning is often a combination of the original words. Below are examples of blending words.

- advertisement + entertainment → advertainment
- biographical + picture → biopic
- breakfast + lunch → brunch
- chuckle + snort → chortle
- cybernetic + organism → cyborg
- guess + estimate → guesstimate
- hazardous + material → hazmat
- motor + hotel → motel
- prim + sissy → prissy
- simultaneous + broadcast → simulcast
- smoke + fog → smog
- Spanish + English → Spanglish
- spoon + fork → spork
- telephone + marathon → telethon
- web + seminar → webinar

Blended words are also referred to as portmanteaus.

Word Formation Sample Downloads

For more complete lists of English words formed through compounding, clipping, and blending, please download the following free printable vocabulary lists:

- **Compound Noun List: English Compound Nouns**
- **List of English Clipped Words**
- **List of English Blend Words**

This post is part of the series: **Word Formation: Creating New Words in English**

The articles in this series define and exemplify the most common word formation processes, or the creation of new words, in English including derivation, back-formation, conversion, compounding, clipping, blending, abbreviations, acronyms, eponyms, coinages, nonce words, borrowing, and calquing.

1. **Word Formation: Derivation and Back-Formation**
2. **Word Formation: Conversion**
3. **Word Formation: Compounding, Clipping, and Blending**
4. **Word Formation: Abbreviations, Acronyms, and Eponyms**
5. **Word Formation: Coinages, Nonce Words, Borrowing, and Calquing**

4.5 Morphophonemics - Phonetic Realization of Plural, Past, Third Person Singular morphemes

What is a plural morpheme?

In morpheme. ...of a morpheme are called allomorphs; the ending -s, indicating plural in “cats,” “dogs,” the -es in “dishes,” and the -en of “oxen” are all allomorphs of the plural morpheme. The word “talked” is represented by two morphemes, “talk” and the past-tense morpheme, here indicated by -ed.

Past Tense Morpheme

Past tense forms of verbs are formed in a number of ways in English.

No overt change of form: e.g. 'cut'. 'I cut flowers everyday' vs. 'I cut flowers yesterday'.

A change of vowel: e.g. 'sit'. 'The cat sits on the mat' vs. 'The cat sat on the mat'.

A suppletive form: e.g. 'go'. 'I go to the shops' vs. 'I went to the shops'.

A suffix is added: e.g. 'want'. 'I want money' vs. 'I wanted money'.

Essentially the only productive way to form a past tense in English nowadays is the last option, the addition of the suffix (written as <ed>). By productive I mean that English speakers use this for all novel verbs. It is also the option employed by the majority of verbs (called regular verbs by most) although the most common verbs tend to use a more irregular option. There are a few novel exceptions, notably 'text', e.g. 'I text him yesterday'.

The regular pattern can be seen as the addition of a past tense suffix. In writing, this is represented by the letters <ed>. However, in speech there are three forms: /-d/, /-t/ and /-ɪd/. Listen carefully to how you pronounce the past tense endings of the verbs 'play', 'peep' and 'part' and you'll hear the differences.

Third Person Singular morphemes

In English, these morphemes include the copula and auxiliary BE (i.e., am, is, are, was, were), the auxiliary DO (i.e., do, does, did) and the third person singular present tense morpheme (e.g., **She runs**).

UNIT 5 Semantics

5.1 Word Meaning – Associative and Denotative Meaning

In semantics, *associative meaning* refers to the particular qualities or characteristics beyond the denotative meaning that people commonly think of (correctly or incorrectly) in relation to a word or phrase. Also known as expressive meaning and stylistic meaning.

In *Semantics: The Study of Meaning* (1974), British linguist Geoffrey Leech introduced the term associative meaning to refer to the various types of meaning that are distinct from denotation (or conceptual meaning): connotative, thematic, social, effective, reflective, and collocative.

Cultural and Personal Associations

"A word can sweep by your ear and by its very sound suggest hidden meanings, preconscious association. Listen to these words: *blood, tranquil, democracy*. You know what they mean literally but you have associations with those words that are cultural, as well as your own personal associations."
(Rita Mae Brown, *Starting From Scratch*. Bantam, 1988)

"[W]hen some people hear the word 'pig' they think of a particularly dirty and unhygienic animal. These associations are largely mistaken, at least in comparison with most other farm animals (although their association with various cultural traditions and related emotional responses are real enough), so we would probably not include these properties in the connotations of the word. But the associative meaning of a word often has very powerful communicative and argumentative consequences, so it is important to mention this aspect of meaning."

(Jerome E. Bickenbach and Jacqueline M. Davies, *Good Reasons for Better Arguments: An Introduction to the Skills and Values of Critical Thinking*. Broadview Press, 1998)

Unconscious Association

"A good example of a common noun with an almost universal associative meaning is 'nurse.' Most people automatically associate 'nurse' with 'woman.' This unconscious association is so widespread that the term 'male nurse' has had to be coined to counteract its effect."

(Sándor Hervey and Ian Higgins, *Thinking French Translation: A Course in Translation Method*, 2nd ed. Routledge, 2002)

Conceptual Meaning and Associative Meaning

"We can ... make a broad distinction between conceptual meaning and associative meaning. Conceptual meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word. It is the type of meaning that dictionaries are designed to describe. Some of the basic components of a 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 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' (especially in a haystack), and 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.

[P]oets, songwriters, novelists, literary critics, advertisers, and lovers may all be interested in how words can evoke certain aspects of associative meaning, but in linguistic semantics, we're more concerned with trying to analyze conceptual meaning."

The denotative meaning of a word is its main meaning, not including the feelings and ideas that people may connect with that word:

Although words have both denotative and connotative meanings, there has been little research on a child's acquisition of connotations.

Nurse practitioners are holistic in the denotative sense of the word.

5.2 Seven Types of Meaning

Semantics deals with meaning without any reference to the context of the situation. According to **Geoffrey Leech**, there are at least seven types of meaning in semantics. They are as follows:

1. Conceptual Meaning
2. Connotative Meaning
3. Social Meaning
4. Affective Meaning
5. Reflected Meaning
6. Collocative Meaning
7. Thematic Meaning

Conceptual meaning

In semantics, conceptual meaning is the literal or core sense of a word. This type of meaning is also known as logical, cognitive, or denotative content. It refers to the dictionary meaning, which indicates the concepts. Conceptual meaning aims to provide an appropriate semantic representation of a sentence. It is the base for all the other types of meaning.

If a person wants to relate one particular meaning of any word with another particular meaning, he/ she needs to know the concept of the word. For example, the meaning of the word '**Woman**' can be specified as-

- Is a human
- Not a male
- Is an adult

Connotative Meaning

Connotation points to a meaning that uses a particular word beyond its conceptual meaning. That means when a word has more than one meaning, it is called connotative meaning.

These meanings may vary from society to society, culture to culture, or person to person. They include not only physical characteristics but also psychological and social properties.

This type of meaning is open-ended. For example, some people say women are soft-hearted, submissive, while others say they are frauds, cheaters, etc. They define women with their psychological perspectives.

It is also unstable. For example, in the past, women were attributed as *frail, cowardly, irrational, inconsistent*. They are now treated as *strong-willed, hard workers*, etc. In the future, they will probably be treated differently.

Social Meaning

It is a type of meaning based on the aspects of society. When people from a particular society define language in their way, that is called social meaning. This meaning is based on dialect. The dialect of London differs from the dialect of the USA in regards to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.

Time: The language of the sixteenth century differs from the nineteenth century.

Province: The language of English literature like *simile, metaphor, irony* etc. differs from the language of science and law.

The conceptual meaning and the social meaning of any piece of language would be different. The words '*domicile*', '*residence*,' '*abode*,' '*home*' all refer to the same thing, but each word belongs to a particular situation of use.

- Domicile (very formal situation)
- Residence (formal situation)
- Abode (poetic situation)
- Home (general situation)

Affective Meaning

It refers to the speaker's feelings, emotions, attitude towards the ongoing context: the pitch level, intonation, and tone of the speaker changes based on the situation.

For example, if we talk with a motherless child, we will be very emotional, and we will talk in a very soft manner. In the same way, when we become angry, our voices become louder.

Reflected Meaning

In semantics, reflected meaning is an event whereby a particular word or phrase is correlated with multiple sense or meaning. It is a kind of irony.

A poet could not but be *gay*,

In such a jocund company.

For example, by using the word *gay*, the poet tries to mean something joyful. However, this word usually refers to homosexuality.

Collocative Meaning

A collocation is a familiar grouping of words, especially words that habitually appear together and convey meaning by association. In collocative meaning, a particular word goes with another particular word.

Pretty and handsome share familiar ground in the meaning ‘good-looking,’ but these words are different at their appropriate use case.

In details-

- Pretty is appropriate for – girl, woman
- Handsome is appropriate for – boy, man

Thematic Meaning

Thematic meaning is a preference between alternative grammatical structures like active-passive, simple to complex, complex-compound, etc. That means the meaning of a sentence will be the same, but the structure will differ from each other. It deals with how the speaker portrays the message through word choice, the order of words used, and emphasis.

For example-

- He is so weak that he cannot work. (This is a complex sentence).
- He is too weak to walk. (This is a simple sentence).

Here the structures of the sentences are different, but the meaning is the same.

5.3 Lexical Relations –

- OMONIMY, POLYSEMY, AND HYPONYMY

The branch of semantics that deals with the word meaning is called lexical semantics. It is the study of systematic, meaning related structures of words. Lexical semantics examines relationships among word meanings. It is the study of how the lexicon is organized and how the lexical meanings of lexical items are interrelated, and it's principal goal is to build a model for the structure of the lexicon by categorizing the types of relationships between words.

Hyponymy , homonymy, polysemy, synonymy, antonymy and metonymy are different types of lexical relations.

A. Definition of Homonymy

The word Homonym has been derived from Greek term 'Homoios' which means identical and 'onoma' means name. So, Homonymy is a relation that holds between two lexemes that have the same form but unrelated meanings. Homonyms are the words that have same phonetic form (homophones) or orthographic form (homographs) but different unrelated meanings. The ambiguous word whose different senses are far apart from each other and are not obviously related to each other in any way is called as Homonymy. Words like tale and tail are homonyms. There is no conceptual connection between its two meanings.

For example the word ‘bear’, as a verb means ‘to carry’ and as a noun it means ‘large animal’.

An example of homonym which is both homophone and homograph is the word ‘fluke’. Fluke is a fish as well as a flatworm. Other examples are bank, an anchor, and so on.

Homophony - Homophony is the case where two words are pronounced identically but they have different written forms. They sound alike but are written differently and often have different meanings.

For example: no-know, led-lead, would-wood.

Homograph - Homograph is a word which is spelled the same as another word and might be pronounced the same or differently but which has a different. For example, Bear-bear ; Read-read.

When homonyms are spelled the same they are homographs but not all homonyms are homographs.

B. Definition of Hyponymy

Hyponymy is a sense relation in semantics that serves to relate word concepts in a hierarchical fashion. Hyponymy is a relation between two words in which the meaning of one of the words includes the meaning of the other word. The lexical relation corresponding to the inclusion of one class in another is hyponymy. Examples are : apple- fruit ; car- vehicles ; tool- furniture ; cow - animal.

The more specific concept is known as the hyponym, and the more general concept is known as the hypernym or superordinate. Apple is the hyponym and fruit is the superordinate / hypernymy. Hyponymy is not restricted to objects, abstract concepts, or nouns. It can be identified in many other areas of the lexicon.

E.g : a. the verb cook has many hyponyms.

Word: Cook

Hyponyms: Roast, boil, fry, grill, bake.

b. the verb colour has many hyponyms

Word: colour

Hyponyms: blue, red, yellow, green, black and purple

Hyponymy involves the logical relationship of entailment. Example : ‘There is a horse’ entails that ‘There is an animal’. Hyponymy often functions in discourse as a means of lexical cohesion by establishing referential equivalence to avoid repetition.

C. Definition of Polysemy

A polyseme the phenomenon of having or being open to several or many meanings. When a word has several very closely related senses or meanings. Polysemous word is a word having two or more meanings. For example, foot in : - He hurt his foot ; - She stood at the foot of the stairs.

A well-known problem in semantics is how to decide whether we are dealing with a single polysemous word or with two or more homonyms.

F.R.Palmer concluded saying that finally multiplicity of meaning is a very general characteristic of language. Polysemy is used in semantics and lexical analysis to describe the word with multiple meanings. Crystal and Dick Hebdige (1979) also defined polysemy. Lexical ambiguity depends upon homonymy and polysemy.

The difference between homonyms and polysemes is subtle. Lexicographers define polysemes within a single dictionary lemma, numbering different meanings, while homonyms are treated in separate lemmata. Semantic shift can separate a polysemous word into separate homonyms. For example, check as in "bank check" (or Cheque), check in chess, and check meaning "verification" are considered homonyms, while they originated as a single word derived from chess in the 14th century.

5.4 Semantic Roles

A semantic role is **the underlying relationship that a participant has with the main verb in a clause**. ... Semantic role is the actual role a participant plays in some real or imagined situation, apart from the linguistic encoding of those situations.

Semantic relations were introduced in generative grammar during the mid-1960s and early 1970s as a way of classifying the arguments of natural language predicates into a closed set of participant types which were thought to have a special status in grammar. A list of the most popular roles and the properties usually associated with them is given below.

Agent:

A participant which the meaning of the verb specifies as doing or causing something, possibly intentionally. Examples: subjects of *kill, eat, hit, smash, kick, watch*.

Patient:

a participant which the verb characterizes as having something happen to it, and as being affected by what happens to it. Examples: objects of *kill, eat, smash* but not those of *watch, hear, love*.

Experiencer:

A participant who is characterized as aware of something. Examples: subject of *love*, object of *annoy*.

Theme:

A participant which is characterized as changing its position or condition, or as being in a state or position. Examples: objects of *give, hand*, subjects of *walk, die*.

Location:

The thematic role associated with the NP expressing the location in a sentence with a verb of location. Examples: subjects of *keep, own, retain, know*, locative PPs.

Source:

Object from which motion proceeds. Examples: subjects of *buy, promise*, objects of *deprive, free, cure*.

Goal:

Object to which motion proceeds. Examples: subject of *receive, buy*, dative objects of *tell, give*. In linguistic theory, thematic roles have traditionally been regarded as determinant in expressing generalizations about the syntactic realization of a predicate's arguments

5.5 Semantic Field

A semantic field is a set of words (or lexemes) related in meaning. The phrase is also known as a word field, lexical field, field of meaning, and semantic system. Linguist Adrienne Lehrer has defined semantic field more specifically as "a set of lexemes which cover a certain conceptual domain and which bear certain specifiable relations to one another"

Examples and Observations

The subject matter often unites a semantic field.

"The words in a semantic field share a common semantic property. Most often, fields are defined by subject matter, such as body parts, landforms, diseases, colors, foods, or kinship relations....

"Let's consider some examples of semantic fields....The field of 'stages of life' is arranged sequentially, though there is considerable overlap between terms (e.g., *child*, *toddler*) as well as some apparent gaps (e.g., there are no simple terms for the different stages of adulthood). Note that a term such as *minor* or *juvenile* belongs to a technical register, a term such as *kid* or *tot* to a colloquial register, and a term such as *sexagenarian* or *octogenarian* to a more formal register. The semantic field of 'water' could be divided into a number of subfields; in addition, there would appear to be a great deal of overlap between terms such as *sound/fjord* or *cove/harbor/bay*."

Metaphors and Semantic Fields

Semantic fields are also sometimes called fields of meaning:

"Cultural attitudes to particular areas of human activity can often be seen in the choices of metaphor used when that activity is discussed. A useful linguistic concept to be aware of here is that of semantic field, sometimes called just field, or field of meaning....

"The semantic field of war and battle is one that sports writers often draw on. Sport, particularly football, in our culture is also associated with conflict and violence."

More and Less Marked Members of a Semantic Field

Color terms also help illustrate how words are grouped into a semantic field.

"In a semantic field, not all lexical items necessarily have the same status. Consider the following sets, which together form the semantic field of color terms (of course, there are other terms in the same field):

1. Blue, red, yellow, green, black, purple
2. Indigo, saffron, royal blue, aquamarine, bisque

The colors referred to by the words of set 1 are more 'usual' than those described in set 2. They are said to be less *marked* members of the semantic field than those of set 2. The less marked members of a semantic field are usually easier to learn and remember than more marked members. Children learn the term *blue* before they learn the terms *indigo*, *royal blue*, or *aquamarine*. Often, a less marked word consists of only one morpheme, in contrast to more marked words (contrast *blue* with *royal blue* or *aquamarine*). The less marked member of a semantic field cannot be described by using the name of another member of the same field, whereas more marked members can be thus described (*indigo* is a kind of blue, but *blue* is not a kind of indigo).

"Less marked terms also tend to be used more frequently than more marked terms; for example, *blue* occurs considerably more frequently in conversation and writing than *indigo* or *aquamarine*....Less marked terms are also often broader in meaning than more marked terms.... Finally, less marked words are not the result of the metaphorical usage of the name of another object or concept, whereas more marked words often are; for example, *saffron* is the color of a spice that lent its name to the color."