

## Message for the Students

Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University is the only state Open University, established by the Government of Gujarat by the Act No. 14 of 1994 passed by the Gujarat State Legislature; in the memory of the creator of Indian Constitution and Bharat Ratna Dr. Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar. We stand at the seventh position in terms of establishment of the Open Universities in the country. The University provides as many as 54 courses including various Certificates, Diplomas, UG, PG, as well as Doctoral degree, to strengthen Higher Education across the state.



On the occasion of the birth anniversary of Babasaheb Ambedkar, the Gujarat government secured a quiet place with the latest convenience for University, and erected a building with all the modern amenities named 'Jyotirmay' Parisar. The Board of Management of the University has greatly contributed to the making of the University and will continue to this by all the means.

Education is the perceived capital investment. Education can contribute more to improving the quality of the people. Here I remember the educational philosophy laid down by Shri. Swami Vivekananda:

*"We want the education by which, the character is formed, strength of mind is increased, the intellect is expand and by which one can stand on one's own feet".*

In order to provide students with qualitative, skill and life oriented education at their threshold, Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University is dedicated to this very manifestation of education. The university is incessantly working to provide higher education to the wider mass across the state of Gujarat and prepare them to face day to day challenges and lead their lives with all the capacity for the upliftment of the society in general and the nation in particular.

The university, following the core motto 'स्वध्यायः परमम् तपः' does believe in offering enriched curriculum to the student. The university has come up with lucid material for the better understanding of the students in their concerned subjects. With this, the university has widened scope for those students who are not able to continue with their education in regular/conventional mode. In every subject a dedicated team for Self Learning Material, comprising of Programme advisory committee members, content writers and content and language reviewers, has been formed to cater the needs of the students.

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With all these efforts, Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University is in the process of being core centre of Knowledge and Education and we invite you to join hands to this pious *Yajna* and bring the dreams of Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar of Harmonious Society come true.

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**Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University**

**(Established by Government of Gujarat)**

**F.Y.B.A**

**ENGM102**

**INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH  
LANGUAGE AND STRUCTURE**

**Block**

**1**

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**Unit 1**

Evolution of Language, Definition, Meaning and Nature of Language 01

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**Unit 2**

Language as a product of the Society and Culture 32

---

**Unit 3**

Brief History of English Language and Various Influences on English Language 41

---

**Unit 4**

Indian English (Introduction and Development of English in India and present scenario) 54

---

**Unit 5**

Definition and Nature of Grammar 72

---

**Unit 6**

Word Formation 81

---

<b>UNIT 1</b>	<b>EVOLUTION OF LANGUAGE, DEFINITION, MEANING AND NATURE OF LANGUAGE</b>
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**: STRUCTURE :**

**1.0 Objectives**

**1.1 Introduction**

**1.2 Evolution of Language**

**1.2.1 Discussion**

**1.3 Definitions of Language**

**1.3.1 Aristotle**

**1.3.2 Edward Sapir**

**1.3.3 Joshua Whatmough**

**1.3.4 R H Robins**

**1.3.5 Noam Chomsky**

**Evaluation**

**1.4 Meaning**

**Introduction**

**1.4.1 Conceptual Meaning**

**1.4.2 Connotative Meaning**

**1.4.3 Social and Affective Meaning**

**1.4.4 Reflected and Collocative Meaning**

**1.4.5 Associative Meaning**

**1.4.6 Thematic Meaning**

**1.4.7 Meaning Relations**

**1.4.7.1 Synonymy**

**1.4.7.2 Antonymy**

**1.4.7.3 Homonymy**

**1.4.7.4 Hyponymy**

**1.4.7.5 Polysemy Evaluation**

**1.5 Nature of Language**

**Introduction**

**1.5.1 Arbitrariness**

**1.5.2 Creativity (vs Productivity) Meaning**

**1.5.3 Culture Preservation and Culture Transmission**

**1.6 Let Us Sum Up**

**1.7 Key Words**

**1.8 Books Suggested**

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## 1.0 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, learners would be able;

- to explain evolution of language and discuss it intelligibly,
- to understand the definitions of language and outline the features characterizing it in detail,
- to examine the meaning of meaning and elaborate on some of the different kinds of meaning,
- to comprehend the nature and properties of language and discuss them at length.

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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

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Modern linguists define linguistics as ‘the scientific study of language’ ever since the mid–19th century to differentiate it from philology. The phrase ‘the scientific study of language’ would imply that scientific principles operate in the study of language. There are three basic principles of science.

- Empiricism :** The practice of depending on observation and experiment, especially in the natural sciences.
- Rationalism :** The practice of laying emphasis on reason and experience as the necessary criteria for solving problems, and
- Scepticism :** The practice of having reservations or doubt generally or specifically toward a given object of study.

Linguistics is a ‘social science’, not a ‘natural science’, as David Crystal argued convincingly in a report he submitted to the Social Sciences Research Council, UK in 1968. We can no longer insist on empiricism, marked feature in the natural sciences. Therefore, we can only insist on linguistics following rationalism and scepticism as the basic principles. This Unit is not on Linguistics as such but on the evolution of language, definition, meaning and nature of language. Therefore, we shall begin with a discussion on the evolution of language.

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## 1.2 EVOLUTION OF LANGUAGE

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### 1.2.1 Definition :

Evolution is a scientific theory that seeks to demonstrate how new species appear from their pre-existing form over time in a variety of ways through the process of natural selection, genetic mutation or drift, and hybridization.<sup>1</sup> Language is the vehicle of human thought processes, which facilitate communication. Karl von Frisch's research on the ‘language’ of bees in the 1940s created doubts about the idea that the facility of language for communication was primarily human, but it could not lead to the dismissal of the idea. The story of the evolution of language in this context makes for interesting reading. The first cries of a baby at birth communicates the news of its arrival into a world of uncertainties from the safety of his/her mother's womb.

Linguists, who have researched extensively on 'language evolution' as it is known scientifically, have noted with a note of regret that this is a topic of study on which very little research is available. Even the research that is available on the topic is nothing more than speculation and thus questionable on scientific grounds. The reason is that language is primarily speech, or oral in its origins. Its written version took a lot of time to develop.

We will begin with a short discussion on a very well received research paper by Steven Pinker and Paul Bloom in 1990 titled "Natural language and natural selection". They initiate the argument by observing how each of us as human beings are skilled users of language without any reference to the intelligence, social status, or level of education of each of us. Our children acquire language easily and in time develop the ability to use 'complex grammatical sentences' even if they had no formal education. More surprising is the fact that they can use language structures to which they have had no exposure. The ease with which they do it conforming to 'the subtle grammatical principles' of grammar. The greatest of all surprises is that this may have nothing to do with the environment around them. Pinker and Bloom feel that this has to do with biological make-up of human beings than anything else. This way they relate it to Darwin's thesis of natural selection.

In his book, *The Language Instinct : The New Science of Language and Mind*, Steven Pinker (1994) begins by laying stress on language as 'an instinct to acquire an art'. He explains that human beings belong to 'a species with a remarkable ability : we can shape events in each other's brains with exquisite precision' due to their ability to use language. Human beings use language to communicate with each other. They share ideas using their ability to speak. It is through this language ability, consisting of its four major skills : listening, speaking, reading and writing that we are able to bridge 'gaps of time, space, and acquaintanceship'. Non-verbal communication enjoys primacy over writing, as research on communication reveals, for 93 per cent of our communication is non-verbal in nature according to Albert Mehrabian (1971), with speaker's body language accounting for 55 per cent and tone and prosodic elements 38 per cent. The difficulty is that we do not know, even now, about how oral language use evolved.

The question we have before us now is how, then, do we understand and explain how language evolved in its oral form. Pinker argues that when we think of language 'as an instinct' we defy all that we know and perhaps, even invert it. It becomes what he calls 'a biological adaptation to communicate information' rather than being a product of 'human uniqueness'. He attributes to Darwin 'the conception of language as a kind of instinct', which he 'first articulated in 1871'.

In their well-written introduction to a book Givón and Malle edited in 2002 titled *The Evolution of Human Language out of Pre-language* in which they point out these difficulties. They argue that 'language evolution has been an intellectual orphan in linguistics', largely due to deep-set prejudices in its epistemology. This has helped create a rigid boundary 'between the 'biological and the cultural', 'the genetic and the learned' etc

(p.vii). Research on biological evolution requires the study of fossils, which would not help us uncover anything how language originated in its spoken variant. The fossils and the evidence collected by archaeologists would only help shed light on the way written form of language evolved. Yet another problem faced owes itself to tentativeness of any definition.

Our religious scriptures offer us clues to how language evolved. In discussing the evolution of the world and life on earth, the Mainstream *Indian Scriptures* note how the sound of 'Om' resounded in the universe at the time of creation. *The Bible* narrates how angels sang at the time of the creation. It is not certain whether this that led to Philosophers writing on the philosophy of language to talk about two approaches to language study *God's Truth vs Hocus–Pocus* in the 1950s. *God's truth* is an approach to the description of linguistic data that derives its strength from the realists' argument that 'universal' terms in language have a reality of their own, prior to any physical particular and are, therefore, mere abstractions as was claimed to be the case in the nominalist school of thought. Any linguistic data description based on such a belief centres around the hypothesis that language possesses a 'real' structure that needs to be uncovered.

The philosophic assumption in the works of philologists seems to be that if the procedures of analysis were to be logically consistent, then one would arrive at the same description of the same data. If the results differed, then it would seem to suggest that there existed the possibility that the analyst's observation was either defective or the logic used was flawed. This approach does not appear to admit any uncertainty.

Clearly, then, the *hocus–pocus* approach does not base its assumption on God's truth but is thought to underline the need for an organisation to be imposed by a linguist on his/her data to show the kind of structural patterns that emerge as a result of this exercise. Each to his own devices is the message driven home to us. The *hocus–pocus* approach does not set up any particular method for use, leaving individual linguists to use whatever procedures they could, drawing upon their background knowledge to the approach, to analyse the data from their respective angle.

There is at least one defect in the main in doing so in that the resultant analysis could be intuitive, or procedural, or the like leading to the emergence of descriptions that are different, one from the other. The aims differ in these two approaches because the set of assumptions used by a linguist exploiting the data are different. God's truth is a view of language as something that has a structure underlying it and, since it is present, this is easily demonstrable. Hocus–pocus apparently bases itself on the premise that language does not have a readily available structure and, therefore, one needs to impose a structure on it.

Considered from a historical perspective, the evolution of language seems to have occurred over time. Language is the pivot around which researchers argued a case for the superiority of human beings over animals. Much of what we know as language today has its base in oral language use especially sounds. Lack of any direct evidence on the manner in which language evolved as a sound system, to begin with, leads us to speculate

on such an important topic. Fortunately, there is adequate research support available for evolution of language insofar as language use in writing is concerned. Linguists have been able to establish quite convincingly how writing developed as a linguistic form. The movement in development was from use of matchstick drawings to cave paintings to the use of long leaves for writing to stone engravings etc, right up to the point in time that Caxton invented the printing press.

**CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 1**

**1 ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS IN NOT MORE THAN FIVE SENTENCES EACH IN YOUR OWN WORDS.**

- a. Why do you think it is difficult for linguists to prove scientifically how language evolved in speech ?
- b. What is this approach to the study of language called 'God's Truth' ? How does it proceed to explain the evolution of language ?
- c. Examine Pinker and Bloom's theory of language evolution discussed in this sub-unit. Explain your considered view on this.
- d. Read the last paragraph of this sub-unit and summarize it as well as you can.
- e. Explain the difference in 'God's Truth' vs 'Hocus-Pocus' approach to the study of language.

**2. WRITE SHORT NOTES ON THE FOLLOWING.**

- a. The Definition of Evolution
- b. The Difficulties in Explaining Language Evolution

**3. SAY WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE. GIVE REASON FOR YOUR RESPONSE FOR EACH OF THEM.**

- a. Karl von Frisch's research on the 'language' of bees in the 1940s did not add to what we know about the evolution of language.
- b. From a historic perspective, it appears that the evolution of language seems to have occurred over time.
- c. We cannot accept the thesis on language as Hocus-Pocus.
- d. Language evolution is an intellectual orphan in linguistics.

**4. FILL IN THE BLANKS IN THE FOLLOWING FIVE ITEMS CHOOSING THE MOST APPROPRIATE OPTION (A, B, C, OR D) FROM THOSE GIVEN BELOW EACH OF THEM.**

1. David Crystal presented his report to the \_\_\_\_\_ in 1964.  
(A) Life Sciences Research Council, UK.  
(B) Social Sciences Research Council, UK.  
(C) Natural Sciences Research Council, UK.  
(D) Applied Sciences Research Council, UK.

2. The research available on the topic of language evolution is questionable on scientific grounds because \_\_\_\_\_.  
(A) it is sparse and unreliable.  
(B) written language precedes oral variety.  
(C) language is ultimately the product of human mind.  
(D) language is primarily speech, or oral in its origins.
3. Stephen Pinker attributes to Darwin the conception of \_\_\_\_\_.  
(A) language as a kind of 'instinct'.  
(B) language as 'an instinct to acquire an art'.  
(C) language as a set of codes and conventions.  
(D) language as purely human convention.
4. Non-verbal communication amounts to \_\_\_\_\_.  
(A) 36 per cent of our total communication.  
(B) 63 per cent of our total communication.  
(C) 39 per cent of our total communication.  
(D) 93 per cent of our total communication.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ is a view of language as something that has a structure underlying it.  
(A) Truth (B) Hocus-Pocus  
(C) God's Truth (D) Reality

<b>Answers to Task-3</b>
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- a. **True** : Karl von Frisch's research on the 'language' of bees in the 1940s created doubts about the idea that the facility of language for communication was primarily human, but it could not lead to the dismissal of the idea.
- b. **True** : Considered from a historical perspective, the evolution of language seems to have occurred over time.
- c. **False** : The *hocus-pocus* is thought to underline the need for an organisation to be imposed by a linguist on his/her data to show the kind of structural patterns that emerge as a result of this exercise.
- d. **True** : It is so largely due to deep-set prejudices in its epistemology.

<b>Answers to Task 4</b>
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1. (B)      2. (C)      3. (A)      4. (D)      5. (C)

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### 1.3 DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE

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#### Introduction :

We shall discuss the definitions of language by Aristotle, Sapir, Wharmouth, Robins, and Chomsky in order to trace the development of thought down to recent times.

### 1.3.1 Aristotle :

Aristotle seems to use the term “speech” metonymically to imply that language is speech, when he defines it as “the representation of the experience of the mind.” Such an assumption would lead us to the following set of propositions : (a) speech is a representation, per se, (b) the subject of this representation is an experience/s, and (c) this experience is the product of the (human) mind. To represent something is to depict, describe or declare to be, to state facts or, better still, to symbolize.

Language does all this through using phonetic impressions, or graphetic symbols. A representation is the symbolic equivalent of the experience so symbolized. However, this representation cannot be a cent per cent approximation of the experience. We could possibly extend Aristotle's theory of imitation to language. We could then argue that this representation of the experience of the mind is only an imitation, far removed from reality. Two of the important meanings of the word ‘experience’, relevant to our discussion, are (i) long and varied observation, personal or general in nature, and (ii) anything received by the mind as sensation, perception or knowledge. Here is what Aristotle says on this. He argues that

Words spoken are symbols or signs of affections or impressions of the soul; written words are the signs of words spoken... the mental affections themselves, of which these words are primarily signs, are the same for the whole of mankind as are also the objects of which those affections are representations or likenesses, images, copies. (H P Cook's translation cited by Harris and Taylor 1989, 21)

Putting these two together, it should be possible for us to rephrase Aristotle's definition to read as follows : Language is the symbolic equivalent of sensations, perception or knowledge, received or projected by the mind, which is a reservoir of knowledge gained through long and varied, personal or general, observation due to the (human) capacity to think, understand, intend, and act. Surely, this is a mentalistic view of language and it is clear that Chomskyan thesis of the ‘human essence’ or ‘the distinctive qualities of the mind, derives from some such a position.

‘Knowledge’ is the product of a system of substitutions involving sensations and images (i.e., products of experiences), whereas ‘thought’ is shaped by the object in question and its context. We need to bear in mind the fact that it is the object, which is always at the heart of an experience or a set of experiences, no matter whether this object is concrete or abstract. The detachment from experience to idea is something that we call imagination. Since we have focused our discussion largely focused on language, we shall rest our argument here itself.

Investigations on language gathered momentum in the beginning of 20th century due largely to the unnerving inventions and discoveries in the main and the two world wars we fought. World War I (1914–1918) triggered off inquiries into the nature of communication and language. No wonder, then, that there were studies on language like Edward Sapir's work *Language* published immediately thereafter in 1921, which made an important contribution to the study of language.

### 1.3.2 Edward Sapir :

Sapir defines language as ‘a purely human and non–instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols.’ There is a marked stress on ‘method’ and ‘system’ in the definition but the focus of attention is the process of ‘communication’. The word, communication, derived from *communis* in Latin, incorporates the idea of sharing. What we usually communicate is only a representation of an idea, which has its origin in creation. The object, as it were, is the source of the idea that, in turn, becomes the source for the creation in the worldly sense.

Scholars argue that there is correspondence, equivalence and analogousness that exists between the object and the ideas it evokes on the one hand, and between the idea and its representation on the other. However, such correspondence, equivalence and analogousness is subject to the limitations imposed by a spatio–temporal reality. Thus, perfection cannot be achieved.

Returning to Sapir's definition, we find four ideas in the main in it. One, language is human. It is so primarily because it is the product of his mind, which enables human beings to know, understand, think, intend, and act. Two, language use is indeed an action, based as it is on thought. Thought is conditioned by our perception and understanding of reality. Understanding presupposes knowledge. The gift of intellect enables human beings to analyse and comprehend everything they perceive through their senses.

Although it is human, language is non–instinctive in nature. It employs a non–instinctive method of communication using voluntarily produced symbols. In calling language ‘human’, Sapir, perhaps unintentionally, ruled out communication systems other than those used by human beings as *Language*. Thus, he added to his definition the basic premise that language learning is non–instinctive in nature.

Let us look at a real–life example. Two patients were for their appointment with the dentist, when her beautiful receptionist called out to one of them, non–native student, who was also waiting for his turn at the surgery. She looked at him smilingly and said, “Would you like to see the dentist now ?” There was an awkward silence before the young man looked at her and said very nervously, “No, thank you, nurse. I will wait for my turn.” The nurse frowned. She did not know how to handle this. However, she soon overcame the feelings, and without any show of emotion, she said, “It is your turn to see the dentist now”.

This piece of discourse is illustrative of the problems faced in the learning of English as a foreign/link language. One thing is evidently clear here. Either the young man lacked basic knowledge of the notions and functions in English, thus found it difficult to understand the receptionist. Alternatively, the nurse's tone/tenor in asking him to see the dentist was not a part of his experience of language use. Our conclusion would not have been any different even if we did not know the context. Anything can go wrong at any of the levels of understanding, thought, intention, or action.

A native speaker would have responded with a polite 'Thank you' and would have moved on to the surgery to see the dentist.

Communication presupposes a shared knowledge of language implying a shared cultural context as well. We need to learn a language, for we are not born with it. We acquire it through imitation/repetition and begin using it creatively after we have mastered the basic structures. An 'instinct' implies an innate – native, natural, inborn, or inherent – character. This goes to prove that it is non-instinctive, unlike the expression of pain, anger, surprise etc. There is inadequate research support available to confirm that it may be non-instinctual even if Chomsky's (1965) innateness hypothesis was very popular at some point in time.

McKeachie and Doyle (1966) point out how 'unlearned connections' facilitate intricate reactions to a complicated series of stimuli 'in lower animals'. They argue that these are 'dependent to a large extent on built-in circuitry', which they identify as 'instincts'. They suggest the use of criteria for investigators to follow in order to identify 'a pattern of behaviour as an instinct'. (1), every member of a species typically shows particular fixed sequence of behaviour in an appropriate situation; (2) the behaviour is performed adequately the first time, and (3) the behaviour differs from a reflex. They illustrate this by citing the examples of mating rituals and maternal behaviour as common instances of instinctive behaviour. Instinct is in this way quite psychobiological in nature. Thus, it refers to an animal's innate ability or tendency to act in ways essential to its development and preservation. These are a part of what is innate. They do not require any learning.

Sapir's observation about language being a non-instinctive method of communication. This is borne out by revelations found when we apply the McKeachie and Doyle criteria to identify instinctive behaviour. Communication involves two types of behaviour : intensive and interpretative on the part of the speaker and listener or reader and writer respectively. Since it is intensive, it has an aim, and an intent, which makes it purposeful.

The use of language implies intentionality. Words, which help us create meaning, are signals, and all signals denote or connote something. Negotiation of meaning necessitates the comprehension of what those words/signals indicate which, in turn, makes it possible for people to make reasoned judgements about their associative and emotive implications. Let us take up the next definition of language.

### **1.3.3 Joshua Whatmough :**

In his book also titled *Language*, Joshua Whatmough defines language as "human... a verbal systematic symbolism... a means of transmitting information... a form of social behaviour... (with a) high degree of convention." This definition has a wording that reveals a patchwork. This is so because it is a summary of several long paragraphs. It is not very popular with scholars and researchers working on language and linguistics due to this reason. The elements common to this definition and that of Sapir's are the terms 'human', 'symbols', and 'symbolism'. There is no point in repeating what we have said earlier about language being a human



institution. Therefore, we shall focus our attention on the phrase ‘a verbal systematic symbolism’.

‘Verbal’ has two clear meanings in the main : (i) of or pertaining to and derived from a verb or verbs, and (ii) of, or in the nature of, or concerned with, or in the matter of words or words rather than things. We would like to believe that both these meanings are involved in the use of that adjective. In referring to a verb or verbs, it refers to action/s. When we perform a function in language, we perform an action. The mention of words denoting things is one of dealing with their denotative and connotative references. These actions and the words used to denote them are ‘systematic’ in nature.

Language, notes Whatmough, is ‘a means of transmitting information’. He implies, of course, that there are means of transmission of information other than language. He also implies that language is a tool of communication. We have dealt with this in detail earlier and find no need for repetition. However, we shall discuss the process of transmission. Transmission is the act or process of transmitting, such as the sending of electromagnetic waves from a transmitter to a receiver. To transmit is to pass on, send or communicate. For Whatmough, language is a means of transmitting information. We know that information is knowledge communicated or received, and to inform is to tell someone something about a particular thing or on a definite topic, or to provide important details on a given subject, person etc.

The *articulate mammal*, as Aitcheson (1978) calls fellow humans, transmits bits and pieces of information on different topics of discourse using a complex system of signs and symbols to encode and decode messages. These messages are signals, either in the phonemic or graphemic forms, whose substance is, therefore, phonic or graphic in nature. A piece of discourse uses sounds and sequences of sounds whereas a text uses orthographic medium. Sounds and their graphetic equivalents are open to manipulation and, thus, a variety of interpretations.

Tonal fluctuations of the speaker, stress patterns, and paralinguistic features including facial expressions that indicate its underlying meaning mark our speech conveying a message. A listener who does not have the advantage of being on the spot is more than likely to process the wording of a message. The text of a message is easier to process because the text in print is bound to have contextual clues built into its structure and organisation.

Language is, in this way, context-dependent and context-sensitive, more so because, in the words of Whatmough, it is ‘a form of social behaviour’. We need the knowledge of language in order to assert our existence as an important part of the speech community. One does not need language use in its verbal manifestation when the effort is to communicate with ourselves. Nature has doubly blessed as human beings, for it has gifted us with both the intellect and the ability to use language.

Our intellect allows us to think and benefit from what psychologists have often called ‘ideational fluency’. Our minds are like beehives of ideational activity and thus it is difficult to comprehend what might be going on there before, at the relevant point of time, during, and even after the

communicative event. This is the most important reason why communication is unpredictable. Since language is a verbal behaviour, its significance which is clearly social in nature.

We define *behaviour* as an organism's response to a stimulus or a set of stimuli. The stimulus for verbal behaviour lies in the need for and context of such behaviour. We would not respond to a situation (as a stimulus) unless we feel the need to do so and can find the appropriate context for our response. Language is bound to the culture of the people, i.e., to the race that produces it. It is only natural, then, that it would be culture-specific.

Imagine that you are on a visit to the UK. A native speaker of English greets you and tries to engage you in a conversation – something quite unlikely to happen unless it is unavoidable. The utterance he/she would use would be, “It is a lovely morning, isn't it ?” Now, if you were to respond with a quizzical look, “Yes, it is better than yesterday”, then he/she would immediately make out that you are a foreigner in his/her country. Even if you were to look very English by the colour of your skin and other features. The response pattern holds the clue to enable the native speaker to identify your non-native origin.

When we use language as a form of social behaviour, we do so consciously, for language derives its existence from the society, which nurtures and sustains it. Communication is the greatest need of a human being, ranked easily after food. The human need to belong, to experience companionship provides us with the stimulus for communication. This need links with our survival in a social set-up. We need to appreciate that any form of social behaviour has a high degree of convention.

Language use follows a specific variety of norms of social convention. Conventions govern all aspects of social life, be it the courtroom of a judge, the consulting room of a physician or surgeon, the chamber of the head of an organisation, or even our own drawing rooms where it is in evidence. Social convention governs the use of language. “I would like you to do this” is certainly a better option than the authoritative “I want you to do this”. A request or a polite but firm statement fetches a favourable response when compared to other options indicating power and authority.

Convention offers a protective shielding which deviation/s from norms of social behaviour would disallow us. We cannot use English the way we because that would be difficult to accept. You cannot respond to the “How do you do ?” of a stranger with “I am fine. Thank you” because that is not the convention. “Would you like to see the dentist now ?” is not a question but a request, a suggestion about what the speaker thinks/ believes. It would be a linguistic mess if we were to respond with a cool “No, thank you; I will wait for my turn.” A serious lack of understanding of the cultural implications is clearly marked in embarrassing interactions of this kind.

We have often found letters with the complimentary close : “Looking forward to hearing from you”, or “... to meeting you”, or “...to seeing you”. Teachers of English have often had to explain the unusual combination of ‘to’ and the present participle form of the verb to their inquisitive learners.

No communicative grammar would give you a satisfactory response to the query why this actually happens. We would need to fall back upon the conventions of language use to explain a phenomenon of that kind. Never mind if it sounds arbitrary, for arbitrariness is an important feature characterising a language. Let us now take up R H Robin's definition of language.

### **1.3.4 R H Robins :**

Robins defines language as “a symbol system ... based on pure or arbitrary convention ... infinitely extendable and modifiable according to the changing needs and conditions of the speakers” (*General Linguistics : An Introductory Survey*, 1971). Again a patchwork of a definition! It makes five main observations about language. (1) Language is a symbol system. (2) Pure or arbitrary convention governs language. (3) Language is infinitely extendable and modifiable. (4) The changing needs of the speakers govern the infinite extensions and modifications. (5) The conditions of use are the determinants of these extensions and modifications, besides needs. Language is a need-based social product, a creation of the human mind. Since it is not individual in its origin and orientation, it draws its sustenance from social convention.

The basic proposition in Robins' thesis is that language is a symbol system. Robins stopped short of using the term ‘social semiotic’ used by Halliday later. Robins finds the study of semiotics to be something that does not form a part of general linguistics, but Halliday accorded it an important place in his theoretical discussion on language as a social semiotic. Semiotics is the science of signs which has three major divisions : (a) semantics (a branch studying ‘the signification of signs’), (b) syntactics (a branch studying ‘the way in which signs of various classes’ – ie word classes – ‘are combined to form compound signs’), and (c) pragmatics (a branch studying ‘the origin, the uses, and the effects of signs’). Morris (1955) had pointed out that ‘semiotic’ is ‘the science of signs’ with ‘semantics, syntactics, and pragmatics’ as ‘its main divisions’. One might wonder how this relates to symbols. Morris explains that a symbol is ‘a sign that is produced by its interpreter and that acts as a substitute for some other sign with which it is synonymous.’ All signs, but not all symbols, are signals because a sign, unlike a symbol, is not a substitute for some other sign with which it is synonymous.

When we claim that language is a signalling system, we actually refer to signs and not symbols. However, when we claim that language is a symbol system, we are not focusing singularly on symbols as symbols but on those of them that are signs, for only signs are signals. Shedding light on the essential difference between signs and symbols, Robins observes that whereas ‘signs in general are events or things that in some way direct our attention to, or are indicative of, other events or things ... symbols are a special class of signs’ that are called ‘conventional signs’ (see p.12). Signs are indeed signals, as is popularly accepted. Thus, we would have ‘acoustic’, ‘ideographic’, or ‘graphic’ signals in speech and writing respectively. The disturbances caused in the air as a result of articulation and the marks made on a piece of paper or any other flat surface as a representation of that

articulation are the two media in the main of language in action. Both these are the products of the human mind of language as a social semiotic.

We shall return to Robins' statement that pure or arbitrary convention governs language and examine it. A 'convention' is any accepted rule or practice, especially in social behaviour. Conventions are known to have contributed both to the creation of languages and in adding to the complexities which have governed their development. Social behaviour is the central plank of any discussion on language. We have already argued how language that makes for interaction between members of a speech community allows them to make informed judgements about the motivations governing the patterns of their behaviour.

It is indeed true that language is a part of the cultural ethos of a people who use it, and the history of human civilisations acknowledges that it is one of the most important factors binding them together. The history of independent India of the sixties stands testimony to the way in which people have managed to forge unity on this issue despite the apparently insurmountable differences that have divided them and provoked language riots in the late 50s and the 60s of the last century. The articulate mammal uses language to make friends and influence people.

We need answers to two queries straightaway : (a) what does 'pure' convention mean ? (b) How is language the product of 'arbitrary' convention ? The use of the adjective 'pure' to qualify the noun 'convention' seems to make 'pure convention' analogous with the import of a phrase like 'pure sciences'. 'Pure' has as its synonyms, words like theoretical, abstract, hypothetical, conjectural, speculative, fundamental, or basic. The dictionary meanings of these words seem to suggest that we can easily put them under two broad categories of those concerned with concepts of (i) assumption and tentativeness and, therefore, inadequacy, and

(ii) totality and completeness, or of necessity. We can see a dyadic relationship here that is contradictory in nature. This is something that contributes to the inherent confusion in our understanding of the term 'pure'.

We shall reverse the order of the categorisation above in order to reflect upon this feature. We consider anything that is 'pure' as being fundamental or basic in the sense we have it used here. 'Fundamental' is suggestive of something that is a prerequisite and, therefore, indispensable, and, used in a philosophical context, it means more formal and more natural. 'Basic' may not suggest what is necessary, but also what is acceptable as standard. The other category represents features that constitute a theoretical formulation, which is speculative in nature. Nothing theoretical may be practical for at least one important reason that it is as a hypothesis, it offers only a provisional explanation, which we need to prove or disprove with reference to facts.

A theory is an abstraction, and so is language an abstraction as a theoretical construct. It has existence only as a mental concept denoting a quality or certain qualities of a thing apart from the thing it refers. Since it is conjectural in nature, it relates closely to guess work and this way stresses the incompleteness or inadequacy of the various pieces of evidence

serving as the basis of judgement. We need to sum up what we mean by 'pure convention' by putting all this together. We should now be able to say that 'pure convention' is a phrase referring to a generally accepted rule or practice based on a standard, fixed as true, until such time as the theory or some important part of it is falsified. Pure convention is a reference to a standard fixed provisionally and, therefore, remains open all the time to further speculation, or scientific investigation.

Language has arbitrary convention as based on, primarily because the standard against which we measure the level of *usage* and *use* is subjective largely. Although we aim our observations at being as objective as possible, the element of subjectivity built into our speculative inquiry makes it a suspect in the eyes of the readers. It is absolute, not in the sense of being complete or perfect, but in the sense of not being dependent on, or in when seen in comparison with other languages.

Robins argues that 'language is infinitely extendable and modifiable according to the changing needs and conditions of the speakers.' Language is need-based and the changing needs and conditions of the speakers govern the changes in language. Undoubtedly, users do this done to match the demands of the speech community. Language is infinitely extendable in the sense that it is productive in nature. What is productive is usually responsible for making things that satisfy needs. Language, in being infinitely extendable and modifiable, provides us with the proof of its natural capacity to allow changes and extensions keeping in tune with the demands of the situation from time to time. A language user can go on making changes in the structure and meaning of his/her utterances by adding to what he/she or someone else has said. This way, he/she modifies them.

Extensions are possible due to the inclusion or addition of more and more of information on a given subject. Take, for example, a simple sentence like 'Birds fly'. We can extend this *ad infinitum*, though within certain well-defined limits, to make provision for economy of expression, and keeping it so in order to facilitate its meaningful processing. We can extend the sentence in some select ways as follows. (A) Birds fly. (B) Birds fly in the sky. (C) Birds fly in the sky and over the land. (D) Birds fly over the land and migrate to other places. (E) Smaller birds are believed to fly faster than the larger ones. (F) Smaller birds fly from one tree to another to avoid attacks and possible killing by larger birds etc.

We can also make modifications this way since our creative urge, thus, facilitating refinement necessitate these. Take, for example, a sentence like 'The man is standing'. We can modify this as follows. (i) The man, who is standing there, is my wonderful neighbour.

(ii) The man sporting jeans and a pullover, standing there, is a very dear friend of mine, is believed to be a spoilt genius. (iii) The man, who is standing there, claims to be an expert freelancing on several subjects that he neither knows, nor does anyone recognise him as knowing. Since extensions and modifications are different from a technical point of view, people may accept them as being dissimilar. However, they are not so in practice, for both these properties of language are interrelated and interdependent

in many ways. It is the creative element, our creativity, which prevents us from becoming wholly mechanical in our productive role. Chomskyan linguistics apparently offers such an explanation.

### **1.3.5 Noam Chomsky :**

Chomsky (1968) makes a very interesting observation about language. He notes that ‘when we study human language, we are approaching what some might call *human* essence, the distinctive qualities of mind that are, as far as we know, unique to man.’ His argument is that the study of human language leads us to what he calls the ‘human essence’ or the distinctive qualities of mind. Mind is the essence that enables human beings to feel, and emote. Thus, it makes it possible for them to respond to stimuli such as sensations, perceptions, dispositions, moods, physical, and intellectual activities that their cognition strengthens.

Knowledge, thought, understanding, purpose, and action are the distinctive qualities of mind. Knowledge, as we know, is a system of substitutions of sensations and images. Sensation is the feeling produced by the stimulation of any sense organ, or of the mind. Image is usually in the likeness of the object of perception and cognition or the mental picture of a given object. The sensation, along with the mental picture it evokes, leads to an experience, which, in turn, evokes a thought. This creates a chain of a sensation plus a mental picture that provide the trigger for a thought. All this forms the basis of knowledge.

A thought consists of an object of cognition and its context. Objects perceived through sense organs are the targets at which we direct an action or a particular feeling. Mentalists of Chomskyan persuasion add to the five senses, a sixth one, i.e., intuition, putting the study and use of language firmly within the scope of psychology. Sense perception and sense experience are goal-directed. Thus, we direct the action or feeling toward the goal, which is the object of cognition defining its meaning.

We establish logical relations through deductive or inductive procedures, drawing suitable inferences. This is what finally informs the process involved in understanding. All of this is a part of what essentially constitutes the initial stages in the formation and comprehension of concepts. Understanding is the discovery of meaning, which is evident in language use shaped by purpose. Anything that is goal-directed is purposeful. Intention and effort define our purpose and so does choice.

Once we have drawn upon the twin areas of knowledge : of the world, and of language, our thoughts allow us to make suitable inferences in the fulfilment of our purpose, which manifests itself in the form of action. Action is behaviour, for it is in response to a stimulus or a set of stimuli. Language is action, for Skinner (1957) refers to it as verbal behaviour. However, there may not be any verbal behaviour in evidence, and action or behaviour. In such cases, one can understand by using other kinds of support including reactions involving long stretches of silence in a communicative event. This is quite challenging because it uses paralinguistic features.

Waldron (1985) apparently has the Chomskyan thesis in mind in observing that ‘words are themselves perceptible, like many things with which they are associated. But they only have meaning insofar as they are interpreted and understood.’ The act of interpretation involves showing, clarifying or explaining the meaning of something available to us for elucidation. Interpretation is always dependent on context.

This is in affirmation of Waldron's explanation that ‘the central function of human language’ is ‘the *manner* in which it *mediates* between *sense experience* and *conceptual thought*’ (his emphasis). The focus is on ‘the manner’ of the mediation (intervention between conflicting parties to promote reconciliation, settlement, or compromise) and, of course, the process of doing so. The central function of language, in other words, is to show how it can, and does indeed, bring about an agreement between ‘sense experience’ on the one hand and ‘conceptual thought’ on the other.

Sense and experience are interrelated much in the same way as concept and thought are interrelated. Sense is related to perception made possible by the faculties of taste, touch, smell, sight, and hearing and, in this way, it is the feeling generated by perception. We take experience as any event or circumstance that one has experienced through direct encounter or observation. It is instructive in the sense that one gains knowledge from it. Experiences lead to better perception of things.

Concept is a reference to an idea, especially of the kind generalised from various instances or observations. Generalisation is the process of drawing a general conclusion from one or more particular cases. We base conclusions on inferences drawn by using the method of deduction or induction. Thought is the act, or process, or the result of thinking. To think is to use our mind to form an idea, judgement etc, and we know that an idea is something conceived as a part or result of thought.

Idea and thought are terms often confused to be the same though they are not. Idea is quite a general term ‘applicable to almost any part or aspect of mental activity’ and a thought is ‘an idea based on intellectual activity’ and is, in no way, ‘directly attributable to a sense impression’. In a strictly technical sense, our mind and intellect are not the same because the intellect is the product of the mind. A reference to mind is actually a reference to the most general and the most neutral of the mental abilities that include comprehension, analysis, and inquiry.

Let us attempt to put together the various concepts we have been examining all this time. Sense is the feeling generated by perception and experience, which is the product of direct encounter or observation of any event or circumstance, is useful in strengthening and improving our understanding of concepts. Concepts are generalised ideas pulled out of various instances and observation.

A thought is the act, process, or the product of thinking. It is an idea, which employs intellectual abilities because, as a term, it is almost any part or aspect of mental activity. A thought is a unit consisting of several ideas that go into its making. Hence, when we consider the central function of language to be the manner in which it mediates between sense experience

and conceptual thought, we are actually arguing that language is a sort of a catalyst that reconciles experience, which is the product of sense; and thought, which is conceptual in nature. This way, language helps relate experience and thought. If experience leads to thought, then the thought provides the stimulus for another experience in a cyclical process.

Thinking is the function of the human mind, which enables human beings to comprehend the knowledge of the world using their knowledge of language. Comprehension, or understanding, based on the misconceived notion that the two concepts are synonymous, involves an analysis of thought of the same kind we have been using in this sub-unit.

### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2**

**1. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS IN NOT MORE THAN FIVE SENTENCES EACH IN YOUR OWN WORDS.**

- a. Comment on the statement : “language is not only used for communication but also for self-realisation”, giving reasons for your reactions.
- b. We often use the term ‘speech’ as a substitute for ‘language’. Why do you think this happens ?
- c. Examine Pyles and Algeo's (1982) remark that “To be human is to use language and to talk is to be a person.”
- d. Show how thought and language are connected.
- e. Differentiate between human language and animal communication made by Verma and Krishnaswamy (1989), and show how it is useful in our scheme of things ?
- f. Compare Aristotle's definition with that of Chomsky's and explain the features the two have in common.
- g. We find that language is ‘unique to man’. List the views of theorists quoted in the text on this belief.
- h. Discuss the interrelationship that exists between and among concepts like knowledge, thought, understanding, purpose, and action.
- i. List the ideas on language that come to your mind after reading the Unit, and write an essay showing how these can be meaningfully connected one with the other.

**2. WRITE SHORT NOTES ON THE FOLLOWING.**

- A. Human essence is unique to man.
- B. Relation between Sense and Experience.
- C. McKeachie and Doyle's Argument
- D. The Non-instinctive Nature of Language
- E. Paralinguistic Features of Language

**3. SAY WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE. GIVE REASON FOR YOUR RESPONSE FOR EACH OF THEM.**

- A. We establish logical relations through deductive or inductive procedures.
- B. Extensions in language are possible without any inclusion of information.



- C. Language, like theory, is an abstraction as a theoretical construct.
- D. Robins finds the study of semiotics to be something that does not form a part of general linguistics.
- E. Aitcheson (1978) use of the phrase 'the articulate mammal' is a reference to human beings.

**4. FILL IN THE BLANKS IN THE FOLLOWING FIVE ITEMS CHOOSING THE MOST APPROPRIATE OPTION (A, B, C, OR D) FROM THOSE GIVEN BELOW EACH OF THEM.**

- 1. Aristotle seems to use the term "speech" metonymically \_\_\_\_\_, when he defines it as "the representation of the experience of the mind."  
(A) to imply that language could be speech  
(B) to imply that language is speech  
(C) to imply that speech is written language  
(D) to imply that language may be speech
- 2. 'Knowledge' is the product of a system of substitutions involving \_\_\_\_\_.  
(A) images and symbols (B) symbols and images  
(C) sensations and images (D) images and sensations
- 3. Communication presupposes \_\_\_\_\_ implying a shared cultural context as well.  
(A) a shared knowledge of language  
(B) knowledge of language  
(C) a shared acquisition of language  
(D) acquisition of language
- 4. Tonal fluctuations of the speaker, stress patterns, and paralinguistic features including \_\_\_\_\_ that indicate its underlying meaning mark our speech conveying a message.  
(A) parametric features (B) graphitic symbols  
(C) phonemic signals (D) facial expressions
- 5. A branch of language studying 'the way in which signs of various classes' like word classes 'are combined to form compound signs' is called \_\_\_\_\_.  
(A) pragmatics (B) semiotics (C) syntactics (D) phonetics

**Answers to Task 3**

- a. **True** : We establish logical relations through deductive or inductive procedures, drawing suitable inferences.
- b. **False** : Extensions are possible due to the inclusion or addition of more and more of information on a given subject.
- c. **True** : Robins finds the study of semiotics to be something that does not form a part of general linguistics.

- d. **True** : A theory is an abstraction, and so is language an abstraction as a theoretical construct.
- e. **True** : The *articulate mammal*, as Aitcheson (1978) calls fellow humans, transmits bits and pieces of information on different topics of discourse using a complex system of signs and symbols to encode and decode messages.

<b>Answers to Task 4</b>
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- |        |        |       |        |        |
|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|
| 1. (B) | 2. (C) | 3. () | 4. (D) | 5. (C) |
|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|

## 1.4 MEANING

### Introduction

Sound, grammar and meaning are the basic components of language in a layperson's view of it. Technically, one studies the sounds of a given language using knowledge from two sciences of sound, phonology and phonetics.

*Phonology* is the science of sounds, which helps establish and describe 'the distinctive sound units of a language (phonemes) by means of distinctive features'. It studies 'word-to-word relations in sentences' by pointing out how combination of words affect the sound patterns, and helps marks out intonation patterns. *Phonetics*, on the other hand, is the science of sounds, which deals with the way in which we articulate different sounds in a given language.

Similarly, in studying grammar, one studies lexes, syntax, morphology and inflections. Lexes are words of a given language listed in the dictionary. Syntax studies how words combine with one another to form sentences and the conventions that govern sentence-formation. Morphology is a science that studies how a morpheme – the smallest meaningful and indivisible unit in a language – combines in the formation of a word. *Inflection* is the extension of a word by adding an *affix* to it or addition of *-s/-es* to it, depending on conventions of language use.

The study of meaning involves two other sciences, semantics and pragmatics. *Semantics* is the science that studies meaning. *Pragmatics*, on the other hand, is also a science of meaning. It studies how sentences are related one to the other and the contexts and situations in which we use them. In other words, pragmatics studies meaning in a social context.

Since our concern in this sub-unit is meaning, let us move to it straightaway. The meaning of the term *meaning* is what one intends to convey through as well as what one actually conveys through language use. Words on their own do not have any meaning. Look up a word in the dictionary and you will find several meanings listed there. A word gets its meaning from the context in which we use it. For, it *denotes* or indicates what we try to say, but the choices we make could make or destroy the sense we wish it to convey. *Sense* is a wonderful word as it indicates a meaning we convey or intend to convey. Technically speaking, this represents is import and signification respectively.

Words get their meaning from the context of their use. Thus, we have word meaning at one level. We use words in a chain-like formation with a subject (a noun/noun phrase/pronoun), a verb and an object (again a noun/noun phrase/complement/adverbial/pronoun) to give us a sentence. Theoretically, we have sense, reference, denotation and connotation as different aspects of meaning. Sense refers to the position a word or phrase has in terms of relationships with other words in within its lexicon. Reference marks the relationship between words as well as what these represent. Denotation is the relational link between something that occurs in the real or even world, and denotative meaning is the “central” or “core” meaning of a lexeme. Connotation is the meaning evoked by a word or thing, or its implication.

In Chapter-2 of his book, *Semantics : The Study of Meaning*, Geoffrey Leech (1985) discusses seven types of meaning : conceptual meaning, connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning, collocative meaning and thematic meaning. We shall spend some time looking at each of them.

#### **1.4.1 Conceptual Meaning :**

We also call it ‘denotative’ or ‘cognitive’ meaning sometimes. It is one of the essential features of language in terms of communication. The principle of *contrastiveness* and the principle of structure seem to be operational here. The former is operational at the phonological level, enabling us to use distinctive features to classify nouns like adult, boy etc. The latter is evident in how smaller unit get together to form larger units.

#### **1.4.2 Connotative Meaning :**

Communicative value is central in *connotative* meaning, showing how it is closer to the notion of ‘reference’. A set of criteria brings out the contrastive features in connotative meaning. Bitzer defines horse in Charles Dickens’ *Hard Times* as a ‘Quadruped. Graminivorous. Forty teeth, namely twenty-four grinders, four eye-teeth, and twelve incisive. Sheds coat in the spring... Hoofs hard, but requiring to be shod with iron. Age known by marks in mouth.’ Look at the contrastive features operational there in Bitzer's description of a horse. Leech observes that ‘connotations are apt to vary from age to age and from society to society’. He brings out the fact that there is a thin boundary between conceptual and connotative meaning.

#### **1.4.3 Social and Affective Meaning :**

*Social meaning* is what our language use has to convey about our social context. Language varies from region to region which is how we have dialects like Charotari dialect, Kathiyawari dialect, Surati dialect etc within Gujarati and there are different styles of use. Status also plays a major role in language use. Leech argues that social meaning could include ‘*illocutionary force* of an utterance’ like it does in case of ‘a request’, ‘an apology’, ‘a threat’, etc. *Affective meaning* has to do with emotions, where one would find a marked change in the intonation pattern. For example, ‘Don't tell me that this cannot be done.’ Or, ‘Why don't you take a break !’ Or, even, ‘Give me a break !’

#### 1.4.4 Reflected and Collocative Meaning :

*Reflected meaning* is meaning born out of our reaction to events like Bhajans, Qawwalis, Ghazals etc. There is a range of emotions that these evoke. The meaning we derive from attending such events depends on the emotions they evoke in us. Something of this kind happens when you read Milton's lines "Doth God exact day-labour, light denied ?' / I fondly ask... / They also serve who only stand and wait." A reader finds relief after a series of questions arise in response to the question, when he/she finds the protagonist of the poem "On his Blindness" has reconciled himself to the wishes of God. *Collocative meaning* takes its name and form from collocation, which is a noticeable arrangement or joining of linguistic elements such as words to attain a particular purpose, such as in the case of the phrase 'grace-abounding' in *Grace Abounding to the Chief of Sinners* by John Bunyan.

#### 1.4.5 Associative Meaning :

Leech observes that 'Reflected meaning and collocative meaning, affective meaning and social meaning... have more in common with connotative meaning than with conceptual meaning'. However, he also tells us that all of them can 'be brought together under the heading of *associative meaning*'. The process operational in this case is association, which seems to be of the same kind that Eliot calls 'objective correlative'. In Eliot's own words, it is 'a set of objects, a situation, a chain of events which shall be the formula of that particular emotion; such that when the external facts, which must terminate in sensory experience, are given, the emotion is immediately evoked.' The law of association is at work in this example.

#### 1.4.6 Thematic Meaning :

*Thematic meaning*, notes Leech is 'what is communicated by the way in which a speaker or writer organizes the message, in terms of ordering, focus, and emphasis' as it happens when we transform a sentence in active voice into a passive construction. 'Meaning differs' because they are different structurally but the 'conceptual content seem to be the same.' For example, 'He was arrested last night' becomes 'The police arrested him last night'. Structurally speaking, the two sentences differ in the order of words, focus and emphasis but the content remains the same. Why 'Police' ? The police is the only agency that any government authorises to arrest a person for violations of law as a matter of principle.

#### 1.4.7 Other Meaning Relations :

We have some other meaning relations like synonym, antonymy, homonymy, hyponymy, and polysemy in the main and we shall briefly discuss these hereafter.

##### 1.4.7.1 Synonymy :

Linguistics tells us that no two words are the same though there is an element of sameness in some of them. For example, we consider smell, odour, fragrance, incense, perfume, scent, aroma etc, to name some, as synonyms. *Smell* is a general term that means odour, foul smell, especially from the armpits and socks, or even scent, especially one found in oils extracted from flowers, though it can also be that of a body. We associate

*fragrance* with flowers, *incense*, especially with religious events. *Perfume* is sweet-smelling vapour in particular. We associate *aroma* with the distinctive, pervasive, and usually pleasant or appetising smell, particularly of food.

#### 1.4.7.2 Antonymy :

Linguistics also tells us that no two words are fully opposite though there is an element of difference in some of them. Antonymy is a mismatched relation between two words. It owes more to gradable and non-gradable words. For example, *good* has various antonyms like bad, badly, deficiently, ill, inadequately, intolerably, poor, unacceptably, and unsatisfactorily, according to *Merriam-Webster's Thesaurus*. Look up the dictionary and you will find that each of these has a different reference though there is some commonness among them. There are three main types of antonyms. *Complementary or contradictory antonyms* : bachelor/spinster, living/non-living, prepared/unprepared etc. *Relational antonyms* are word pairs wherein the existence of implies the existence of the other : above/below, supervisor/researcher, superior/subordinate, thrifty/lavish etc. *Gradable or scalar antonyms*, pairs of words differing in degrees in terms of size, height, beauty, etc : small/large, thin/fat, simple/difficult etc.

#### 1.4.7.3 Homonym :

Homonymy is a relationship two words belonging to the same grammatical category and spelling pronounced the same way even as their meanings and origins are different. For example, *lie*. To lie is to be or to stay at rest in a horizontal position : he was lying for some rest. To lie is to occupy a certain relative place or position : Gujarat lies to the western side of India. To lie is to have an effect through mere presence, weight, or relative position : His actions lie heavily on his conscience, which means he is remorseful. To lie is to make an untrue statement with purpose of deceiving others. To lie is to remain unused, unsought, or uncared for : The house lay unoccupied for years together. To lie is to create a false or misleading impression : Statistics are a great lie at times.

#### 1.4.7.4 Hyponymy :

Hyponymy is a generic name that not based on a familiar species. Leech calls hyponymy 'an important structural principle in many languages with classifiers'. Hyponym is in action from the sense one gets from the relation between the predicates *man* and *human*. Thus, it is a relationship between two words, wherein the meaning of one of the words includes the meaning of the other word, such as animal and dog.

#### 1.4.7.5 Polysemy :

Etymologically, it derives from the Greek root *polysēmos*, which consists of *poly*-(many) + *sēma* (sign). Polysemy indicates the semantic relationship between 'a word and its multiple conceptually and historically related meanings' as pointed out by Crystal, Fromkin and Rodman and some other linguists. For example 'foot' can be a reference to a part of human body, the lowest part of a mountain, a unit of measurement etc. However, these words are not interchangeable.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

**1. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS IN NOT MORE THAN FIVE SENTENCES EACH IN YOUR OWN WORDS.**

- a. List the Seven Types of Meaning according to Geoffrey Leech and write at least about two of them.
- b. What is Conceptual Meaning ? How does it differ from Connotative Meaning ?
- c. Show how Social Meaning shares areas of similarity with Affective Meaning.
- d. Comment on Leech's observation that 'Reflected meaning and collocative meaning, affective meaning and social meaning... have more in common with connotative meaning than with conceptual meaning'.

**2. WRITE SHORT NOTES ON THE FOLLOWING.**

- A. Connotative Meaning
- B. Associative Meaning
- C. Thematic Meaning
- D. Antonymy

**3. SAY WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE. GIVE REASON FOR YOUR RESPONSE FOR EACH OF THEM.**

- a. Polysemy indicates the semantic relationship between a word and its multiple conceptually and historically related meanings.
- b. Homonymy is not a relationship two words belonging to the same grammatical category and spelling pronounced the same way.
- c. Hyponymy is an important structural principle in many languages with classifiers.

**4. FILL IN THE BLANKS IN THE FOLLOWING FIVE ITEMS CHOOSING THE MOST APPROPRIATE OPTION (A, B, C, OR D) FROM THOSE GIVEN BELOW EACH OF THEM.**

1. \_\_\_\_\_ is the science of sounds, which helps establish and describe 'the distinctive sound units of a language (phonemes) by means of distinctive features'.  
(A) Phonology (B) Semiology (C) Graphology (D) Morphology
2. \_\_\_\_\_ studies how sentences are related one to the other and the contexts and situations in which we use them.  
(A) Tactilics (B) Pragmatics (C) Syntactics (D) Kinesis
3. \_\_\_\_\_ meaning is the "central" or "core" meaning of a lexeme.  
(A) Connotative (B) Affective (C) Denotative (D) Collocative
4. Communicative value is central in \_\_\_\_\_ meaning, showing how it is closer to the notion of 'reference'.  
(A) Denotative (B) Literal (C) Figurative (D) Connotative

5. \_\_\_\_\_ *meaning* has to do with emotions, where one would find a marked change in the intonation pattern.  
(A) Affective (B) Reflected (C) Social (D) Thematic

**Answers to Task 3**

- a. **True** : Polysemy indicates the semantic relationship between ‘a word and its multiple conceptually and historically related meanings’ as pointed out by Crystal, Fromkin and Rodman and some other linguists.  
b. **False** : Homonymy is a relationship two words belonging to the same grammatical category and spelling pronounced the same way even as their meanings and origins are different.  
c. **True** : Leech calls hyponymy ‘an important structural principle in many languages with classifiers’.

**Answers to Task 4**

1. (A)                      2. (B)                      3. (C)                      4. (D)                      5. (A)

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## 1.5 NATURE OF LANGUAGE

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### Introduction

Nature is a reference to the inherent character, properties or attributes of something by means of which we can identify and categorize it, especially its structure, composition, and characteristics. We have taken a close look at language, its evolution and definitions. We shall now discuss the following properties that differentiate ‘human languages’ from ‘animal noises’ as discussed in parts by Yule (1985) Verma and Krishnaswamy (1989) respectively as follows in alphabetical order :

#### 1.5.1 Arbitrariness :

The absence of any ‘natural’ or logical connection between a linguistic form and its meaning is an example of *arbitrariness*. For example, the way in which we take symbols in the form of the letters of the alphabet in English as indicating a particular sound or a group of sounds belonging to the same family of sounds defies logic.

#### 1.5.2 Creativity (vs Productivity) :

Meaning innovativeness, inventiveness, artistry, or the ability to create, which Yule refers to as *productivity*, suggesting the capacity of a language user to create, or generate mentally, and produce number of utterances that he/she might never have heard before.

Even so, technically speaking, *creativity* and *productivity* are not the same. For, the former involves the ability to do something new, using *recursiveness* – a state of recurrence, with actions or processes repeating indefinitely. This allows the formation or interpolation of sentences within sentences, thus giving rise to complexity. We understand the latter as being purely mechanical in nature.

#### 1.5.3 Culture preservation and culture transmission :

Language, which is but one of the products of culture refining us, enables humankind to reserve culture defined ‘as a way of life’ by Eliot

(1919). Words, phrases, idiomatic expressions etc are often culture-specific. Take, for instance, the Sanskrit word *ratikrida*. We treat it mistakenly as an equivalent of the English word *lovmaking* in translation.

The *krida* in the Sanskrit word means *sport* and the *making* in its English translation carries the sense of something *constructed from separate pieces*, or *manufactured*. This does not mean the same. This is true also of the English idiomatic expression *once in a blue moon*, which does not have an exact equivalent in Indian languages.

Language is, in this sense, not only *culture preserving* but also *culture transmitting* pass on a system of values, traditions etc from generation to generation. Such a context enables us to understand why the English first began to translate works from almost all the major Indian languages, and then went on compile the grammars of these languages, and produce their lexicons before making India a part of the larger British Empire. This was an effort to understand the Indian mind.

#### 1.5.4 Discreteness :

*Discreteness* is a quality of being distinct. It enables language users to distinguish, or discriminate between and among the various sounds in the sound system of a given language. For, each sound is distinct in itself like the discrete allophones /l/, /l̥/, and /l̄/ of the consonantal sound /l/; or /ə/, /æ/, and /a:/ that are discrete variants of the vowel sound /a/ in English. These are discrete in the sense that these vary one from the other.

#### 1.5.5 Displacement :

*Displacement* is a condition wherein we displace something in place of something else, or of replacing one thing with another. This is so because human language can be *context-free*. This allows a language user to refer to things or events that may be absent from the immediate settings or environment, without any stimulus controlling it directly.

#### 1.5.6 Duality :

*Duality* is representative of a state wherein we take something to be consisting of two parts. One finds good examples of duality in philosophy and theology. If there is a belief in philosophy that mind and matter exist as separate entities, then there is this belief in theology which holds that good and evil are similarly distinct states of being or principles.

We take *duality* in language and linguistics to mean the dual nature of language systems such that if there are distinctions of form and meaning, and structure and function. We see this even in the difference between form and substance, wherein substance operates at two distinct levels : phonic and graphic. In other words, this *duality* reflects itself in two different forms : one in sounds and sound combinations and the other in their symbolic representation. In phonetics and phonology, we use it to mean ‘double articulation’ of a single sound (phones) and its variants (allophones), or a single sound and a combination of sounds (words).



### 1.5.7 Dynamism :

*Dynamism* is a property of language represented in the changes that come about in language over a time. Human language changes gradually as against animal communication that remains *static* in nature, is inflexible, and shows no changes at all. Verbs may be *stative* (disallowing the use of progressive aspect) or *dynamic* (allowing the use of progressive aspect) in syntax in English.

### 1.5.8 Redundancy :

A property in language and linguistics, *redundancy* finds reflection in marked shifts in syntactic units and in tone. For instance, take the manner in which it happens in the transformation of sentences. An assertive 'yes-no' sentence like 'He is coming with us', when transformed to an interrogative sentence, shows certain changes : 'Is he coming with us ?' and the tone would change to a rising tone. This not only happens in transformations, but also while using tag questions or question tags.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

1. **ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS IN NOT MORE THAN FIVE SENTENCES EACH IN YOUR OWN WORDS.**

- What is discreteness ? How does it find reflection in language ?
- Show how language demonstrates dynamism by citing some examples of your own.
- Comment on redundancy as a property of language, giving suitable examples.

2. **WRITE SHORT NOTES ON THE FOLLOWING.**

- Creativity and Productivity.
- Culture Preservation and Culture Transmission

3. **SAY WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE. GIVE REASON FOR YOUR RESPONSE FOR EACH OF THEM.**

- Duality is a quality inherent in language.
- Nature refers to inherent character, property or attributes of something.
- Recursiveness makes language open-ended.

4. **FILL IN THE BLANKS IN THE FOLLOWING FIVE ITEMS CHOOSING THE MOST APPROPRIATE OPTION (A, B, C, OR D) FROM THOSE GIVEN BELOW EACH OF THEM.**

- \_\_\_\_\_ is a reference to the inherent character, properties or attributes of something by means of which we can identify and categorize it, especially its structure, composition, and characteristics.  
(A) Nature (B) Nurture (C) Evolution (D) Devolution
- The absence of any 'natural' or logical connection between a linguistic form and its meaning is an example of \_\_\_\_\_.  
(A) ceativity (B) arbitrariness (C) Productivity (D) Discreteness

3. \_\_\_\_\_ allows the formation or interpolation of sentences within sentences, thus giving rise to complexity.  
(A) Nature (B) Evolution (C) Recursiveness (D) Acceptability
4. \_\_\_\_\_ is a condition wherein we displace something in place of something else, or of replacing one thing with another.  
(A) Transmission (B) Preservation  
(C) Acculturation (D) Displacement
5. Verbs may be *stative* i.e. disallowing the use of progressive aspect, or \_\_\_\_\_ i.e. allowing the use of progressive aspect in syntax in English.  
(A) dynamic (B) dual (C) discrete (D) redundant

#### Answers to Task 3

- a. **True** : Duality in language and linguistics is taken to mean the dual nature of language systems such that if there are distinctions of form and meaning, and structure and function.
- b. **True** : Nature is a reference to the inherent character, properties or attributes of something by means of which we can identify and categorize it, especially its structure, composition, and characteristics.
- c. **False** : Creativity in language involves the ability to do something new, using *recursiveness*, a state of recurrence, with actions or processes repeating indefinitely.

#### Answers to Task 4

1. (A)      2. (B)      3. (C)      4. (D)      5. (A)

### 1.6 LET US SUM UP

This entire Unit is about the evolution and nature of language including definitions of language and meaning. We defined and discussed the theory of language evolution and pointed out the challenges confronting linguists in mapping language evolution. We have argued that it is easier to map the evolution of writing rather than speech due to the absence of reliable data in case of speech. We then moved to take up the definitions of language and examined five such definitions in detail. Then we shifted our discussion to meaning and we drew upon the work of Geoffrey Leech in enumerating and examining types of meanings and meaning relations. The last sub-unit was on nature of language where we discussed eight properties of language.

### 1.7 KEY WORDS

**Empiricism** : A type of theory in epistemology, the basic idea in which is that experience has primacy in human knowledge and justified belief.

**Rationalism** : A term used in philosophy to highlight how reason has precedence over other ways of acquiring knowledge, or, more strongly, that it is the unique path to knowledge.

**Scepticism** : A term used to indicating usual common refusal to grant that there is any knowledge or justification.

**Philology** : Another term for Comparative Historical Linguistics. A branch of linguistics, which studies language change and language relationships by comparing earlier and later forms of a language and by comparing different languages.

**Evolution** : Also called Darwinism so named after Charles Darwin. It is the view that biological species evolve primarily by means of chance variation and natural selection.

**Epistemology** : (From Greek *episteme*, ‘knowledge’, and *logos*, ‘explanation’), the study of the nature of knowledge and justification; specifically, the study of (a) the defining features, (b) the substantive conditions or sources, and (c) the limits of knowledge and justification.

**Metonymy** : A figure of speech consisting of the use of the name of one thing for that of another of which it is an attribute or with which it is associated. For example, “crown” for a King/Queen or “Shakespeare” for the plays of Shakespeare.

**Phonology** : The science of sounds, which helps establish and describe ‘the distinctive sound units of a language (phonemes) by means of distinctive features’.

**Lexes** : Words of any given language listed in the dictionary. Lexicon is the technical term we use for a dictionary. Dictionary comes from the word ‘diction’, which is a reference both to choice of words especially with regard to correctness, clearness, or effectiveness, especially in speaking and the style of articulation and enunciation in speaking/singing.

**Syntax** : It studies how words combine with one another to form sentences and the conventions that govern sentence–formation.

**Morphology** : A science that studies how a morpheme – the smallest meaningful and indivisible unit in a language – combines in the formation of a word.

**Inflection** : The extension of a word by adding an *affix* to it or addition of –s/–es to it, depending on conventions of language use.

**Semantics** : The study of meanings. It makes a historical and psychological study of words and the classification of changes in the signification of words or forms viewed as factors in linguistic development.

**Pragmatics** : The science of meaning in a social context. It studies how sentences are related one to the other and the contexts and situations in which we use them. In other words, pragmatics studies meaning in a social context.

**Conceptual meaning** : We also call it ‘denotative’ or ‘cognitive’ meaning sometimes. It is one of the essential features of language in terms of communication and works on the twin principles of *contrastiveness* and *structure*.

**Connotative Meaning :** Communicative value is central in *connotative* meaning, showing how it is closer to the notion of ‘reference’, and a set of criteria brings out the contrastive features in connotative meaning. Leech brings out the fact that there is a thin boundary between conceptual and connotative meaning.

**Social meaning :** It is what our language use has to convey about our social context. Language varies from region to region which is how we have dialects and different styles of use. Status also plays a major role in language use.

**Affective meaning :** It has to do with emotions, where one would find a marked change in the intonation pattern, as in ‘Don't tell me that this cannot be done.’; ‘Why don't you take a break !’; or ‘Give me a break!’

**Reflected meaning :** It is meaning that shapes out of our reaction to events like Bhajans, Qawwalis, Ghazals etc with a whole range of emotions that these evoke, and the meaning we derive from attending such events depends on the emotions they evoke in us.

**Collocative meaning :** It takes its name and form from collocation, which is a noticeable arrangement or joining of linguistic elements such as words to attain a particular purpose, such as in the case of the phrase ‘grace-abounding’, or “make the bed”.

**Associative meaning :** It is a particular part of the complete meaning of an expression that associate the expectations of a speaker/writer with what they might be referring to such as an object, a person, or a situation.

**Thematic meaning :** What gets communicated due to the way in which a speaker or writer shapes his/her message, especially in terms of bringing together, providing focus, and emphasis, for example the transformation of a sentence in active voice into its passive construction.

**Synonymy :** The quality or state of being synonymous in having the same connotations, implications, or reference. There may be similarity between two words in a given language but they are not the same. For instance, although perfume and scent are synonymous related as they are to a pleasant smell, the former is gas-based chemical formulation and the latter is a product of oil/s extracted from flowers.

**Antonymy :** It is a mismatched relation between two words. It owes more to gradable and non-gradable words.

**Homonymy :** A relationship two words belonging to the same grammatical category and spelling pronounced the same way even as their meanings and origins are different.

**Hyponymy :** A generic name that not based on a familiar species. It is in action from the sense one gets from the relation between the predicates *man* and *human*.

**Polysemy :** The semantic relationship between any given word and the meanings in the context of its make-up as concept and the history

it has behind it. A ‘foot’, for instance, can be a reference to a part of human body, the lowest part of a mountain, a unit of measurement etc.

We have explained the keywords in Sub–Unit 1.5 exhaustively which is why we would not repeat what we have said there.

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## 1.8 BOOKS REFERRED AND SUGGESTED

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**Note :** Suggested readings have been marked with an asterisk (\*).

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## **UNIT 2**

## **LANGUAGE AS A PRODUCT OF SOCIETY AND CULTURE**

### **: STRUCTURE :**

#### **2.0 Objectives**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

#### **2.2 Language**

##### **2.2.1 Check Your Progress**

#### **2.3 Culture and Society**

##### **2.3.1 What is Culture?**

##### **2.3.2 Check Your Progress**

##### **2.3.3 What is Society?**

#### **2.4 Language, Society and Culture**

#### **2.5 Let Us Sum Up**

##### **2.5.1 Check Your Progress**

#### **2.6 Books Suggested and References**

#### **Answers**

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### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

In this Unit we shall;

- discuss how language, culture and society are related, and
- discuss society and culture help in the evolution of language.

On completion of the unit, you should be able to;

- understand the concept of language, culture and society, and
- understand how society, culture are related.

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### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Have you ever asked yourself how we got here ? I mean from the Stone Age cavemen to the present civilized state; from the ape to homo sapiens—how the human species developed over time. What have been the major defining factors that have lead us here—intelligence and the faculty of language or rather the capability to use language. Can you imagine where we would have been without this unique gift ? It is one primary reason the cave men started to interact, live together, develop and grow.

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### **2.2 LANGUAGE**

Human language is unique among the communication systems of the natural world; it is socially learned and offers open-ended communicative potential. It is a complex and fascinating phenomena that has played a role in recording human thoughts, explorations and achievements. Human language is unique among the communication systems of the natural world

for interaction. It is our primary tool of thought and perception. Language not only reflects and expresses facts and observations; it also influences attitudes and behaviour. It is at the heart of who we are as individuals.

Languages are constantly changing, sometimes into entirely new varieties of speech, leading to subtle differences in how we present ourselves to others. It thus constitutes a vital component of the cultural prerequisites underlying societal development. However, the question that intrigues us all is – how is language, culture and society interrelated ? To do that, let's first examine each of the three words separately.

### **2.2.1 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 1**

**SAY WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE ABOUT LANGUAGE.**

- (i) Spoken Language is not unique to humans. \_\_\_\_\_
- (ii) It would have been possible to develop without language. \_\_\_\_\_
- (iii) Language has no role to play in our personality. \_\_\_\_\_
- (iv) Languages always had a complex structure and a rich vocabulary. \_\_\_\_\_
- (v) Only our language is responsible for our growth and development. \_\_\_\_\_

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## **2.3 CULTURE AND SOCIETY**

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The overwhelming majority of mankind learns language within the context of an existing culture. There is no doubt that as people started living in groups they must have used some rudimentary sounds and gestures for communication which gradually evolved into some language over may be hundreds of years. It is possible to conclude that language is the precursor to culture. There are two points that should be noted. For either language or culture to evolve their need to be a community.

Although, there can be no absolutely conclusive evidence that language predates culture but it is possible that a group of humans could have created an elementary language that provided the framework for a culture. However without this cultural framework complex forms of language such as our own are not possible.

Many people use culture and society synonymously because both are so intermingled with us and the language we use. The language used by humans everywhere reflects the culture and society they belong to. Let us examine the terms society and culture in more detail.

### **2.3.1 What is Culture ?**

The term culture comes from the Latin word *cultura* which means “to cultivate”. It is a Social Science. It is the way people live their lives and interact. All the norms, social rules, symbols, shared meanings, traditions, customs, methods of doing things, beliefs, rituals and interpretations of the world around, shared by a particular group or population can constitute culture.



So, **Culture** can be defined as a set of the beliefs, behaviours, objects, and other distinctiveness common to the members of a particular group or society. It is culture through which, people and groups identify or define themselves, conform to society's shared values, and contribute to society.

Thus, culture includes many societal aspects : language, customs, values, norms, traditions rules, tools, technologies, products, organizations, and institutions. We can also say that it is described as the people's way to live such as their learned behaviour, values, morals, art, law, symbols, lifestyle *which they accept completely without any second thought in mind.*

In general, culture is handed down through the generations, by communication, teaching and imitation. It is considered as the social heritage of the organized group. It can be said to be a pattern of responses (thinking, feeling, and behaving) developed by the Society for dealing with issues arising due to the interaction of the group members and the environment. This interaction is through language. Language is also transmitted culturally; that is, it is learned and language is also a transmitted part of culture. Language and the cultural environment in which it is spoken are interconnected. This interconnectedness is affected by the physical environment as well as the social and cultural environments in which the language is spoken. A clear example of the influence of culture and the physical environment may be noted in the differences between the forms of English that are spoken in different parts of the world, so we can say that language has played a key role in the transmission of culture across generation.

### **2.3.2 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 2**

<b>SAY WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE.</b>
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- (1) Language is a part of culture. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) Culture is older than language. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Cultural heritage is passed on from one generation to another.  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (4) Cultural development is not possible without language. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) Language is the medium through which different aspects of culture get expression. \_\_\_\_\_

### **2.3.3 What is Society ?**

According to the Cambridge dictionary, Society is a large group of people who live together in an organized way, making decisions about how to do things and sharing the work that needs to be done.

The Merriam–Webster's Dictionary defines society as :

- An enduring and cooperating social group whose members have developed organized patterns of relationships through interaction with one another.
- A community, nation, or broad grouping of people having common traditions, institutions, and collective activities and interests.

Society can also be a part of a community that as a unit is distinguishable by particular aims or standards of living or conduct : a social circle or a

group of social circles having a clearly marked identity. It can be understood as an organized group of people *who live and interact in such a way as to share a common culture*. The members of the society share common attributes like values, traditions and customs. They also share similar cultures and religion. It is nothing but an organized group of people who live together and are connected with one another. It is not exactly same as **culture**, which can be understood as the way of living of people living in a particular place or region. Every society has its culture, but they are not the same thing.

Let's look at some differences to get a better understanding

<b>BASIS FOR COMPARISON</b>	<b>CULTURE</b>	<b>SOCIETY</b>
What is it ?	It is something that differentiates one society from the other.	It is a community of people, residing in a specific area, sharing common culture over time.
What it does ?	It unites the social framework through influence.	It shapes the social framework through pressure.
Represents	Rules that guide the way people live.	Structure that provides the way people organize themselves.
Includes	Beliefs, values and practices of a group.	People who share common beliefs and practices.
Examples	Fashion, lifestyle, tastes & preferences, music, art, etc.	Economy, village, city etc

#### **2.3.4 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 3**

**SAY WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE.**

- (1) A common culture can unify many societies or communities.
- (2) Culture is already within us.
- (3) Culture is learned.
- (4) It is possible for many societies to exist within a culture.
- (5) The growth of culture is not possible without language.
- (6) Society is,
  - (a) A Political Entity
  - (b) The same as culture and nation
  - (c) Limited by geographical boundaries
  - (d) Organized interaction of people sharing distinctive culture in a geographic location
- (7) Culture includes,
  - (a) Only material things such as cars and jewelry
  - (b) Our thoughts, our beliefs and our possessions

- (c) The land we share
- (d) Only non material things such as values or beliefs

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## 2.4 LANGUAGE, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

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### What came first : language or Culture ?

In mankind's earliest evolutionary period there must have been mere gestures and facial expressions and yells and grunts similar to what researchers observe in the great apes. But that is language. That is communication. There can be no doubt that language came first, for obvious reasons. For one, it is instinctive for both humans and the lower animals to communicate, even creatures as far down the scale as ants; or even a human child reared with no experience of human culture. Culture, on the other hand, implies being part of a group in which the members are free to act by individual choice. The separate “pieces” of culture – the urge to vocalize or a sense of rhythm, or the urge to gather food or to mate – are for sure based on instinct. But the culture–building sharing of values and resources and customs and all the rest of what makes up “culture”. It could never have started in the first place if some means of communication had not been already been established. So, Language had to come first. As human language develops, enculturation occurs, but again, this means language had to be the first step in its development – not the result. Man is a social animal due to language which is central to our existence. The overwhelming majority of mankind learns language within the context of an existing culture. It is possible to conclude that language is the precursor to culture. *There are two points that should be noted. For either language or culture to evolve there needs to be a community.*

Society and language are correlative terms. It is hard to think of ourselves, our societies, and culture without language. Culture unifies a community although there is within that unity. As we evolved, the need for language and communication became clear. It became almost like a natural need. Communication is necessary and vital to man just like the intake of water and food is essential for survival of mankind. Language is a primary means of socialization.

Language helps us in our everyday thought processes and also to merge into societies and be responsible for lifestyles. The pillar stones of any society are its population and human potential, both of which depend greatly on communication in the form of language. Communication of ideas and emotions is essential for the development of society and bonding among people and this has been made possible because of the formation of language.

Language is a social product, springing up with the first community, developing with the increasing needs of culture and civilization. It has been observed that if there is no community or society, language also disappears. Thus language happens to be the index of the progress of society. The longer a society exists, the richer is the language. Therefore, we can say that Society and language are mutually indispensable.

The phrase ‘language is culture and culture is language’ is often mentioned when language and culture are discussed. From the earliest times language can have developed only in a social setting and culture started when speech was available. Language itself is a mirror of society and culture. Their values can be reflected in its language. Language like society is constantly evolving and is subject to growth and change in much the same way as a living organism. It is difficult to think of a society without language which is the foundation of human progress. It is the flesh and blood of human culture and central to one's identity as an individual and as an indicator of a social group. The kinds of language we use help us identify ourselves with a social group or society.

There are several possible relationships between language and society. The varieties of language that speakers use reflect their regional, social or ethnic origin and possibly even their gender. It is also seen that particular ways of speaking, choice of words, and even rules for conversing are in fact highly determined by certain social requirements of the group in which that language is being used. For instance with the rapid explosion in the field of communication technologies and the availability of multiple social network platforms, people have quickly adopted theses for their everyday communication. It has been seen that there is a remarkable decline in etiquette in SMS language and other online conversation and correspondence. Use of traditional greetings like “hello” and “goodbye” are slowly disappearing and use of slang and universal loan words have become more prevalent. At times it becomes difficult to digest this loss of “netiquette” as it is now called. Language is evolutionary and the vocabulary and phrases which are used depend on a number of factors like place of residence, age, education level, social status etc.

Culture unifies a community though there is great diversity within that. India is a great example of this. The speech used by the youth is very different from the one used by the older generation. Similarly, different groups may speak one language but there might be subsets used by different groups of people. In other words, within the broad spectrum of culture, multiple societies, groups or communities can co-exist. These societies are bound by the uniform cultural norms and yet use a variety for communication in their groups. Common speech can serve as a symbol of social solidarity amongst the speakers of that language. Moreover, there are certain sub forms of a language which can be identified with a particular group like a family unit or maybe a young college group, club members, underworld dons, a labour union. These groups develop their own peculiarities of speech and this in turn differentiates them from the larger group.

Language has reflected the times in which it is operational. Just as the cultures and societies are dynamic, so are languages. Language grows and continuously adapts, evolving as we come up with better words that reflect our society or culture. In particular, it mirrors the complexity with which our lives are. As with technology, we strive to optimize language so we can communicate complex ideas, with most clarity in the most efficient way. There is no doubt that the amount of technical vocabulary and slang we use in everyday life is currently growing faster than ever before. With roughly

half of the world's population now connected to the internet, we see massively increased levels of communication. Ideas, words and phrases are being generated and circulated at a amazing rate. Previously, it took years for specialized language to make the transition from developer to the general public. Now, thanks to the growing influence that technology has on the economy and the use of social media, technical jargon can pass into everyday usage extremely quickly. We live in a connected world, where the internet and technological advancements affect our daily lives. As a result, the English language has to keep up-to-date with changing concepts and ideas and has seen the rise of new words such as Wi-Fi, Internet, YouTube, Wireless, Connectivity, Online, Web, Twitter, Instagram and Facebook.

We've also changed the way we communicate via devices such as tablets and smart phones, using slang and word abbreviations to explain what we mean and how we feel. Some of the most common examples of text speak include :

- LOL – this means ‘laugh out loud’ and is often thrown into verbal communication as well as written communication.
- BRB – this means ‘be right back’
- TTFN – meaning ‘ta, ta for now’
- TC – means ‘take care’

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## **2.5 LET US SUM UP**

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We can conclude that language (even if it was the most primitive or rudimentary) must have played a key role in bringing people together into a community leading to the formation of societies and helped to develop a common culture. Culture and society are intricately related and cannot exist without each other. A culture consists of the “objects” of a society, whereas a society consists of the people who share a common culture. Both are intertwined and in both the cases, people need language because language performs various functions in a society. The evolving communities and societies have helped languages to evolve further. So, we can say that language is the product of society and culture. Language not only reflects and expresses facts and observations; it also influences attitudes and behaviour. Therefore, we can say that social changes produce changes in language and language is indeed a product of culture and society.

### **2.5.1 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 4**

<b>ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.</b>
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- (1) Is growth of culture possible without language ? Why ?
- (2) Is it possible that within a Culture many societies can exist ?
- (3) Do you think the language spoken today will remain same in future ? Why ?
- (4) The language used by the person reflects his/her cultural background. Comment on this statement.

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## 2.6 KEY WORDS

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**Enculturation** : The adoption of the behavior patterns of the surrounding culture

**homo sapiens** : species to which modern man belongs; bipedal primate having language and ability to make and use complex tools;

**Phenomenon** : something that exists and can be seen, felt, tasted, etc. especially something unusual or interesting

**Interact** : act together or towards others or with others

**Fascinating** : capturing interest

**Endeavour** : Activity

**Primary** : one of the main

**Norm** : an accepted standard or a way of behaving or doing things that most people agree with

**Rudimentary**

**Values** : Principles or standards of behaviour; one's judgment of what is important in life.

**Traditions** : the transmission of customs or beliefs from generation to generation, or the fact of being passed on in this way.

**Customs** : a traditional and widely accepted way of behaving or doing something that is specific to a particular society, place, or time.

**Indispensable** : If you say that someone or something is indispensable, you mean that they are absolutely essential and other people or things cannot function without them.

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## 2.7 BOOKS SUGGESTED AND REFERENCES

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[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/313098787\\_Language\\_Culture\\_and\\_Society\\_Implication\\_in\\_EFL\\_Teaching](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/313098787_Language_Culture_and_Society_Implication_in_EFL_Teaching)

<http://www.actforlibraries.org/which-came-first-language-or-culture-language/>

<https://arroseinaprose.org/2018/04/10>

**ANSWERS**

**Check Your Progress 1**

1. False      2. False      3. False      4. True      5. False

**Check Your Progress 2**

1. True      2. False      3. True      4. True      5. True

**Check Your Progress 3**

1. True      2. False      3. True      4. True      5. True  
6. D      7. A, B, D

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**3.0 Objectives****3.1 Introduction****3.2 The Old English****3.2.1 Contribution of Old English****3.3 The Middle English****3.3.1 Contribution of Middle English****3.4 The Modern English****3.5 The Latin Influence****3.5.1 Roman Invasion****3.5.2 Latin brought by Anglo-Saxon****3.5.3 Role of Christian Missionaries****3.5.4 Latin in the Middle English Period****3.5.5 The Renaissance****3.6 The Greek Influence****3.7 The Influence of the French Language****3.8 The American Influence****3.9 The Influence of Shakespeare****3.10 The Influence of Radio****3.11 The Influence of the Bible****3.12 Let Us Sum Up****3.13 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**3.0 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit, you should be able to;

- brief history of English Language,
  - various influences on English Language.
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**3.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Historians of the English language distinguish three main stages of its development. The first is the Old English (The Anglo-Saxon) Period. This period extends from about the year 600 AD to 1100 AD. This is followed by the Middle English Period from 1100 AD to 1500 AD and finally there is the period of Modern English from 1500 AD onwards. These divisions need not be water-tight for the development of a language is never sudden



but is a gradual process. However it can be seen that at times this process of change is more rapid due to a variety of reasons.

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### 3.2 THE OLD ENGLISH

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The earliest inhabitants of the British islands were the Britons and they spoke a form of Celtic language. It had all similarities with the language spoken in some districts of Northern France which is now called Britain. This language was in popular use throughout the whole of Roman occupation from 55 BC to 410 AD. After this Anglos, Saxons and Jutes, tribes from north Germany, descended with their hordes and the supremacy of Celtic language rapidly came to an end. By 600 AD they had succeeded in establishing their power fairly, firmly and implanting their language in Britain. Critics call this language Old English to stress the continuity of speech and the connection of this early form with the language which is spoken today.

#### 3.2.1 Contribution of Old English :

The Old English language had many dialects but of all the dialects that of Wessex became the most important. This was because this region was the most civilized, had an ordered form of government and most of the literature of this period was written in this dialect, of which the work *Beowulf* still survives. However traces of other dialects still survive. It is the old English with its several dialects that has given to us doublets or two words with only a slight difference in its meaning. They were originally dialectal variants of the same word. For example, because of the normal development of the old English *a* into *o*, the old English *hal* became *whole* (in the Biblical sense of healthy or free from disease). However in a northern dialect, the change did not take place and hence we now also have the word *hale*. Anglo-Saxon had a very complicated grammar. Nouns had three or four case endings. It was also highly inflected just as modern German is today. The vocabulary of old English was chiefly Germanic though some words came from the language of *Celts*. Every word has pronounced according to its spelling and there were no silent syllables. For example the word *come* was read as /kome/. The Roman occupation too had its impact on the Anglo-Saxon tongue. For example the modern English *wall* is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *weall* which in turn was derived from the Latin *vallum*.

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### 3.3 THE MIDDLE ENGLISH

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The conquest of England in 1066 by William of Normandy had a profound influence not only upon the history and political system of the country but also upon the language. English now became a much more hybrid language. In the beginning two languages were spoken side by side : Old English and Norman French. Gradually these two languages mingled to give what is known as Middle English. The Modern English descended from this mixed Anglo-French tongue. The Norman-French which was the language of the rulers enjoyed greater prestige and was used as the language

of the aristocracy, while the Old English was the language of the general public. However, the mixed language had a fewer French words. Meanwhile Latin was still used for learned works.

Literary English developed with the growth of London as a centre of commercial, political, legal and ecclesiastical life towards the end of the fourteenth century. The *East Midland* English assumed a dominant position now because it was spoken in and around London. Oxford and Cambridge also used it and hence it became the language of scholarship. The *Received Standard* English of today is said to have descend from this dialect. Chaucer and number of other prominent writers of that time used it. Hence we find Chaucer to be intelligible to the modern readers. Finally the introduction of the printing by Caxton (in 1476) brought many changes at the end of this period.

### **3.3.1 Contribution of Middle English :**

During this period there were changes in grammar, pronunciation, spellings and there were additions to the vocabulary. For example *-es* became popular as the plural termination in place of *-en*. The only survival of *-en* is *Oxen*. This period also marks the loss of some of the inflexions. Hence it is called the period of *levelled inflexions*. Phonetic development of the Middle English period was the lengthening of short vowels when they stood in open syllables and the shortening of long ones in closed syllables. That is why we pronounce *laddy* and *lady* differently. The discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation began in this period.

The existence of two languages side by side gave rise to synonyms, one from the native tongue while the other was from the Norman–French. An example is found in the two words, *wed* (native) and *marry* (French). The French also established the beginnings of the modern legal system and so a number of new words were introduced into English from French. So we have a host of words like *justice*, *judge*, *jury*, *indict*, *verdict*, *prison*, *punish* and *court* itself. Same is the case with the higher offices of the church which got French words like *Chapel*, *Cathedral*, *Confession* and even the word *Religion* itself.

#### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1**

##### **ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.**

1. What was the period of the Anglo–Saxon period ?

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.....  
.....

2. How were the words pronounced in the Old English era ?

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3. During the period of the Middle English, which were the major changes ?

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4. Which invention, established a standard language and discredited dialect ?

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### 3.4 THE MODERN ENGLISH

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On the advent of the renaissance the full flood of the new learning reached England at about the year 1500 and this affected the English language too. The Renaissance was chiefly a Latin one and hence Latin words were introduced into English vocabulary in great numbers. The reformation was an outcome of the spirit of criticism generated by the Renaissance. The bitter religious controversies gave rise to numerous words. A very important outcome of the reformation was the various English translations of the Bible, the chief being Tyndale's in 1526, and more important was the Authorised Version in 1611. The Bible played an important role in *fixing* the English language and setting a kind of standard. Many more inflexions were lost in this period.

Printing too played an important role. The printers of Queen Elizabeth's time fixed the spelling according to the pronunciation that existed during the late Middle English and Early Modern English period. However, the pronunciation changed considerably after that but not the spelling. Hence, the pronunciation was not phonetically reflected in the orthography. Hence English spellings are largely symbolical of thoughts and are not always phonetic representation of the actual sound of the words.

Hence the invention of printing established a *standard* language and discredited dialect. It served to popularize the new coinages and newly introduced words and it tended to fix spelling about which there had been a great uncertainty before. By the middle of the seventeenth century the language had more or less attained its present form so far as grammar, spelling pronunciation are concerned.

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### 3.5 THE LATIN INFLUENCE

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English is a heterogeneous language. Its basis was Anglo-Saxon but there are also substantial elements of Scandinavian, French and Latin in it. Besides this, it has also absorbed words from most of the languages of Europe and also from some of those spoken in the other four continents.

Latin words in English can be divided into six main heads according to the time and manner in which they were introduced. They are as follows :

### 3.5.1 Roman Invasion :

During the Roman occupation of England from 55 BC to 410 AD, a number of Latin words must have found their way into the Celtic tongue. Words like *win* (wine) in old English evolved from Latin *vinum*. The Latin *vallum* resulted in the old English *weall* (wall), *ceaster* (camp) developed from *castra*.

### 3.5.2 Latin brought by Anglo-Saxon :

The invading Angles and Saxons being once a part of the Roman Empire had their own stock of Latin words which they brought to England. Therefore we have the Anglo-Saxon *deofol* (devil) from the Latin *diabolus* and *nint* (night) from Latin *nox*.

### 3.5.3 Role of Christian Missionaries :

Some words were introduced direct from Latin during the Anglo-Saxon period through early Christian missionaries. These, naturally, are for the most part terms connected with religion. For example Anglo-Saxon *cruc* (cross) evolved from the Latin *crux*. Other terms like *candel* (candle), *creda* (creed), *cometa* (comet), *idol* (idol) etc. too are from Latin origin.

### 3.5.4 Latin in the Middle English Period :

In the Middle English period (1100 AD to 1500 AD) there were other instructions from Latin mainly in the spheres of religion, law, medicine and alchemy and also a number of abstract terms. But many of these were only second-hand loans, through French.

### 3.5.5 The Renaissance :

The great period of the Latin influx was at the time of the Renaissance, especially during the period of 1550 to 1600. The rebirth of the classical language enriched the English language as a multitude of words were derived from the language spoken by Caesar, Virgil and Ovid. English scholars read, spoke and wrote Latin treatises of the time like More's *Utopia* were first published in Latin and not in the vernacular. Many Latin words like *genius*, *miser*, *medium*, *senior*, *junior*, *animal*, etc. were adopted unaltered, while a number of others like *secure* and *compute* were anglicized. Milton too made an elaborate use of Latin words as he was under the classical influence.

### 3.5.6 Academic Use :

Some Latin words have been borrowed unaltered for academic or technical purposes. Such words are *radius*, *dictum*, *quantum*, *vacuum*, *apex* etc. Latin words have been taken to make patent names, especially for medicines and foods. Words derived from Latin's are used to name scientific inventions for example, *locomotive*, *tractor*, *motor* etc.

English has borrowed a large number of prefixes and suffixes from Latin. They are attached to words of native or foreign origin to create new words. Examples of such affixes are *ate* (as in educate), *ic* (as in elastic) etc.

Therefore the contribution of the classical Latin to the enrichment of the English language has been immense and fundamental.

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### 3.6 THE GREEK INFLUENCE

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The Greek language also contributed a lot to the enhancement of the English tongue. However many of the Greek words have not come to England directly. A very large proportion of the Greek words in English have been adopted from Latin. The direct borrowings do not become very numerous until the 19th century when the Greek words were used to name scientific discoveries.

During the Anglo-Saxon period there were a few words of Greek derivation which were mainly religious in nature. For example, *Engel* (Angel) which came from the Greek *Aggelos*. *Preost* (Priest) from the Greek *Prebsty* and even the word *Ciricce* (Church) too has a Greek origin. However, these words too reached English through Latin or German. The Latin influence affected the pronunciation of many words. The Greek *k* became *e* and *u* became *y*. Then after the Roman period *c* lost the sound *k* before the vowels like *u*, *i* and *e*. Hence the Greek word *Kukklos* became the modern *cycle*.

In the Middle English period words now so well known and common as *Bible*, *theatre*, *surgeon*, *logic*, *ecstasy*, *idiot* etc. came into English. These words, though of a Greek origin, came into English via French.

The Renaissance opened the floodgates to classical learning. As the importance of Greek classics grew the language too shot into prominence. It became an important subject at the university level. The use of Greek words began to be considered as a mark of scholarship. Hence English writers started borrowing Greek terms. There by a large number of Greek terms directly became a part of the English language, without being influenced either by French or Latin. Words like *alphabet*, *chorus*, *psychology*, *pandemonium*, *pathos*, *character* etc. became an inextricable part of the English vocabulary.

The nineteenth and the twentieth century saw a spurt of scientific inventions. To name these new wonders of science, Greek words were borrowed. Hence we have *oxygen*, *hydrogen*, *logic*, *biology*, *geography*, *astrology*, *astronomy*, *photograph*, *phonograph*, *telephone*, *telegram*, *telegraph*, *telescope*, *microscope*, etc. we also have medical terms like *psychology*, *neurology* (nevro=nerve) and *phlebotomy* (phlebo=vein and tome=cutting) etc.

Greek prefixes and suffixes have been attached to many words of English or foreign origin. For example, we have hyper-sensitive, amoral, anti-British etc. the Greek suffix *ology* when added to the Latin word *socius* gave birth to the modern *sociology*.

Therefore the Greek language has contributed immensely to the flowering of the English language, especially in naming scientific and technological inventions. Its contribution is exemplary.

## CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

STATE WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE.

Sr.	Statement	T / F
1.	English is a homogeneous language.	
2.	The great period of the Latin influx was at the time of the Renaissance, especially during the period of 1550 to 1600.	
3.	English has borrowed a large number of prefixes and suffixes from Latin.	
4.	More's <i>Utopia</i> was first published in the vernacular and not in Latin.	
5.	The ignorance of Greek words began to be considered as a mark of scholarship.	

### 3.7 THE INFLUENCE OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE

The conquest of England in 1066 by William of Normandy had a profound influence not only upon the history and the political system of Britain, but also upon the language. Up to this time English had been more or less a pure tongue with a sprinkling of Latin, Celtic and Danish words, but henceforth it became much more definitely a hybrid language. However the French influence had actually started trickling in from 1002 when the English king Ethelred married a French princess. However, William the Conqueror hastened and completed the process which had already begun.

After the Norman Conquest for some years two languages were spoken side by side : English and Norman–French. The later naturally enjoyed greater prestige and higher social status. It was the language of court, of the nobility of the law courts and of the learned professionals. However ninety percentage of the population still spoke English or Anglo–Saxon. Gradually these two languages mingled and the modern English is a result of this mixed Anglo–French tongue. Hence the role of French language in shaping the English tongue is immense.

The existence of two languages side by side gave rise to synonyms in English. If one word came from the native Anglo–Saxon tongue, the other came from Norman–French. Hence we now have *wed*, belonging to the native tongue and the Norman–French *marry*. Class difference in the society is reflected in the use of French words. For example, while living in the fields, tended by the native shepherds it was called by the native word – *sheep*. However when the French cooks cooked it and French nobility ate it was called by the French *mutton*. Similarly we have *pig* and *pork*, *cow*/*bullock* and *beef*, *calf* and *veal*.

The Normans established the beginnings of the modern English legal system and hence a number of related words were introduced. So we have *justice*, *jury*, *judge*, *verdict*, *prison*, *prisoner*, *punish* and *court* itself. Most of the high offices of the church too were held by the Normans hence we have words like *chapel*, *cathedral*, *convent*, *clergy*, *conscience*, *confession*,

*penance*, *prayer* and even the word *religion* itself. Words like *war*, *battle* and *chivalry* too are derived from French. It was due to the French influence that the native *full* was displaced by the French *verrai* meaning true and which has now become the very used very.

The 18th century supplied many words indicating fashionable life style and *polite* pastimes. Hence we have words like, *connoisseur*, *suit*, *saloon*, *cuisine*, *etiquette*, *debut*, and *souvenir* etc. The influence of the French Revolution gave words like, *regime*, *guillotine* etc. France also gave English language words like, *blouse*, *attaché*, *fiancé*, *debutant* etc. Phrases like, *coup d'etat* and *bête noire* were also borrowed from French.

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### 3.8 THE AMERICAN INFLUENCE

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Of all the recent influences on the English language, that from the United States is the most wide spread. American English is not a foreign language in the same sense that German, French, Italian and Spanish are, it is merely another variety of English. The American English language has become influential on account of the economic superiority of US and also because of its monopoly over the electronic mediums like radio, television, multimedia, technology and internet. Films too have played an important role.

Over the last three hundred years, American English has developed independently. Hence we find that American speech and written language have several new elements in vocabulary, phrasing, structure and pronunciation. On the side of grammar, Americans make past participles like *gotten* and *proven* for verbs like to *get* and to *prove*. Due to the American influence there is an increasing tendency to use *mail* for *post* and *letters*.

The main difference between British and American English is the rhythm and intonation of speech. The Englishmen speak with clipped syllables, while American English speaker lays stress on nasal tone. The shade of meaning of the same word differs in America and England. For example, the word *Politician* has negative sense in America while it is not so on in England. Unlike in the British the word *solicitor* in American English stands for a beggar while the word *Clerk* stands for a shop assistant. The different history of America coupled with its vastly different culture and lifestyle has prompted the American English to pronunciations and meaning of the words from the British English.

Many American words have become an inextricable part of the English vocabulary. The word *cut* in the sense of *reduction* and the word sense of *feel* were originally American. Expressions in British English like to *fix* and *party machine* are American in origin.

The most obvious American influence on the English language is the incorporation of the American slang in the language. Words like *dumb* for *stupid*, *blue* for *depressed*, *pass out* for *faint*, *O.K.* for *all right* and *frame up* for *trumped up charge* are commonly used.

Signs of the American influence on pronunciation are seen in the tendency to produce *deity* as *day-ity* to say *lew* instead of *lef* for the first

syllable of *lieutenant* to pronounce the sound *sk* at the beginning of *schedule* instead of *sh*.

Thus the following of America into a superpower has had a great effect on the English language. The language has gained immensely with the addition of several new words.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

**STATE WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE.**

Sr.	Statement	T / F
1.	The existence of two languages side by side gave rise to synonyms in English.	
2.	American English language has become influential because of its monopoly over the electronic mediums like radio, television, multimedia, technology and internet.	
3.	The French influence had actually ended trickling in from 1002 when the English king Ethelred married a French princess.	
4.	The Normans established the beginnings of the modern English legal.	
5.	The main similarity between British and American English is the rhythm and intonation of speech.	

### 3.9 THE INFLUENCE OF SHAKESPEARE

William Shakespeare, who was eulogized by Ben Johnson as *Soul of our age ! Applause ! The delight ! Wonder of our stage !* contributed not just in the field of drama, but also played a great role in enriching the English language. In fact, Shakespeare's influence as one of the makers of English language can be compared to the bible translations. He has been the source of reference for innumerable dramatists, poets, prose writers and journalists. He criticized and satirized linguistic and stylistic fashion of his contemporaries and he himself experimented with innovations and archaisms. His *Love's Labour Lost* provides an example where he voices his angst against the misuse of Latin language. In this play the pedantic Latinizing school master Holofernes is satirized. His *Henry IV* contains an elaborated satire of the style of some popular tragedies of his time. How minutely he was aware of the finer qualities of the language that existed in his age can be seen in his pun in Hamlet on the words *trap* and *tropically*. This pun was based on the current pronunciation of the *o* of *tropically* as *a*. So it is easy connected in the mind with *trap* when heard. He makes fun of the tendency to use archaic words, for example, in *As You Like It* he uses the archaic word *eyne* for *eyes*.

His use of the existing dialects for dramatic purpose too is remarkable. For example, in *The Taming of the Shrew* he gives a local colour by using same provincialisms like *phleeze* which means to *drive away*. In *Henry IV* he uses the dialect of Scots, Irish and Welsh soldiers.



A unique contribution of Shakespeare is in his invention of compound words. With the French prefix *en* he made words like *enmesh*, *enkindle*, *enrooted* etc. He also used prefixes like *un* and *in* to make words like *unavoided*, *unvalued*, *inevitable* etc. The real greatness of Shakespeare lies in his phrases which have become immortalized in the language. For example the phrase *what the dickens* which he uses in his play *The Merry Wives of Windsor* is now commonly used. Same is the case with phrases like *patience on a monument*, *a foregone conclusion* and of course that haunting phrase from *Hamlet*, *to be or not to be*.

Shakespeare at times sacrifices grammar to achieve intensity of feeling. Hence we have an ungrammatical phrase in *Julius Caesar* like *the most unkindest cut of all*. However, this way Shakespeare has enriched the language because he has left for posterity an effective way of conveying their emotions and language is all about conveying human sentiments and feelings. Hence Shakespeare's contribution to the enrichment of the English language is immense.

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### 3.10 THE INFLUENCE OF RADIO

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Language is primarily something that is spoken. Printing and writing are only substitute for speech. Therefore the standardising of the spoken tongue is important. The radio has played an important role in establishing the standard spoken English. In fact, it has played a central role in popularizing English as a world language. However, the search for a perfect or standard tongue is not free from dangers. If one standard language is spoken throughout the country then the existing dialects would be wiped out. This is what happened with the several dialects being spoken in the different parts of the British islands.

The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) which was set up in 1922 took upon itself to spread what is known as *Good English*. They made efforts in the development of standard pronunciation of English by giving some programmes by trained people. Thus, it tried to establish uniformity in spoken English and check the disintegration of the language. However, even the pronunciation of the experts coming on the BBC was questioned. Moreover, some of the announcers found difficulties in pronouncing the names of the places of foreign countries in correct manner. To get rid of these difficulties, BBC set up an advisory committee on spoken English. This committee advised announcers whenever it was necessary. They also broadcast lessons for beginners to whom printed literature were sent in advance. All these show how serious the BBC is to spread uniformity of spoken English. That is why the BBC announcer is respected and is considered the voice of authority in the matter of pronunciation, intonation, pitch and emphasis. One of the secrets of their success lies in their willingness to improve. And for this purpose the BBC authorities invite suggestions from external agencies and individuals and make changes wherever it merits.

The efforts in the development of spoken English skills made by BBC influenced and encouraged other institutions to work for the development

of the language. For example, many institutes in India have set up language laboratories that help propagate good English. They do so by making people listen to audio cassettes. This constant hearing of a conventionalized form of the language helps in spreading uniform pronunciation in foreign lands.

Though critics may believe that the spoken word must continue to change and that the radio is doing more harm than good by *fixing* the language, its contribution cannot be underestimated. As Jonathan Swift had emphasized *the use of proper word in proper place* is what makes good language. Radio has played an important role in this area and therefore its influence on the English language is immense.

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### **3.11 THE INFLUENCE OF THE BIBLE**

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The Reformation had a great impact not just on the social and political atmosphere of England but also on the English language. The chief influence of the Reformation is seen in the number of English translations of the Bible. The first important translation was that of Tyndale in 1526. But the more influential was the Authorized Version in 1611. These translations contributed to the *fixing* of the English language and setting some kind of standard. For the next four centuries the Bible remained the people's book which they read Sunday to Sunday and with which they became familiar as with no other. It is a fact that the English of the Bible is English of today, save for a word here and there which has changed in the meaning.

Tyndale had a gift of using suggestive phrases and idiomatic expressions. His influence is especially seen in the Old Testament. Phrases like *eat, drink and be merry, the burden and the heat of the day, glad tidings* are all his. Words like scapegoat and babble are from Tyndale's translation. However the word babble has now sunk to colloquial use.

The Authorized Version of the Bible has lots of archaic words. These words were deliberately used in order to create an atmosphere of strangeness and mystery. Moreover, divine revelations are better said in a dignified language than a colloquial one. That is why we have words like, *damsel, raiment, firmament, apparel* etc. King James' translators have managed to strike a fine balance between the literary and colloquial styles. The gifted to the English language words like, *prose rhythm, syntax and style*.

Other than the Authorized Version and Tyndale's translations, the Anglican Prayer book has contributed to the language the sentence like *forgive our trespasses*. Coverdale's translations gave phrases like, *loving-kindness, tender-hearted, the iron that has entered my soul* etc.

Biblical phrases have now become a part of the common usage. For example, when we say *I wash my hands of the whole business* we are echoing Pilate's action of washing his hands in public. Other phrases like, *kill the fatted calf, to cast pearl swine, cared for none of those things* are the gifts of the Bible. Therefore, the translations of the Bible are responsible for the introduction of a considerable number of words. For last many centuries it has been the book of the people and even the illiterate were familiar with it through hearing it read in the church Sunday by Sunday. Thus its influence has been profound.

## CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

**STATE WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE.**

Sr.	Statement	T / F
1	The real greatness of Shakespeare lies in his acting which has become immortalized in the language.	
2	Shakespeare's influence as one of the makers of English language can be compared to the bible translations.	
3	Shakespeare's use of the existing dialects for dramatic purpose too is remarkable.	
4	Shakespeare at times sacrifices feeling to achieve intensity of grammar.	
5	BBC made efforts in the development of standard pronunciation of English.	
6	The Reformation had a great impact on the English language.	

### 3.12 LET US SUM UP

We have, in this unit, discussed brief history of English Language which included the Old English, the Middle English and the Modern English along with their contributions. We also discussed the Latin influence, the Greek influence, the influence of the French Language, the American influence on the English Language, the influence of Shakespeare, the influence of Radio and the Bible.

### 3.13 BOOKS SUGGESTED

- A History of the English Language by Albert C. Baugh & Thomas Cable
- An Outline History Of The English Language by WOOD
- Objective Approach to English Literature for NET, JRF, SLET and Pre-Ph.D. Registration Test by Pandey Om Prakash, Rahmat Jahan Ivan K. Masih K.K. Narayan & Neeraj Kumar
- English A : Literature (Pearson International Baccalaureate Diploma) for Grade 11& 12 by Jan Adkins & Conrad Hughes
- A history of English. A sociolinguistic approach by Fennell Barbara

### ANSWERS

#### Check your progress 1

1. The Anglo-Saxon period was from the year 600 AD to 1100 AD.
2. The words were pronounced according to its spelling and there were no silent syllables.
3. During the Middle English period, there were changes in grammar, pronunciation, spellings and there were additions to the vocabulary.

4. The invention of printing established a standard language and discredited dialect.

**Check your progress 2**

1. False      2. True      3. True      4. False      5. False

**Check your progress 3**

1. True      2. True      3. False      4. True      5. False

**Check your progress 4**

1. False      2. True      3. True      4. False      5. True  
6. True

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

**Brief History of English  
Language and Various  
Influences on English  
Language**

**UNIT  
4****INDIAN ENGLISH (INTRODUCTION AND  
DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH IN INDIA AND  
PRESENT SCENARIO)****: STRUCTURE :**

- 4.0 Objectives**
- 4.1 Introduction**
- 4.2 How India Changed the English Language**
- 4.3 Status of English in Pre-Independence Era**
- 4.4 Protest Against Hindi As Official Language Of India**
- 4.5 English in India**
  - 4.5.1 Phases of Introduction of English in India**
  - 4.5.2 Status of English in Post Independence Era**
  - 4.5.3 Studies on Inclusion of English Language in Academics**
- 4.6 The Uses and the Functions of English**
  - 4.6.1 English as Lingua Franca**
  - 4.6.2 English as Link Language**
  - 4.6.3 English in Education**
  - 4.6.4 English Language in Written Communication**
  - 4.6.5 Indian English and Creative writings**
- 4.7 Objectives of Teaching English in Indian Academic Setup**
- 4.8 Objectives of Teaching English as a Foreign Language Across the Globe**
- 4.9 Status of English in the Present and What will the English Language Be Future ?**
  - 4.9.1 Examination of English as a Lingua Franca in social media**
  - 4.9.2 What is being lost ?**
  - 4.9.3 Getting shorter**
- 4.10 Conclusion**
- 4.11 Let Us Sum Up**
- 4.12 Key Words**
- 4.13 Books Suggested**

**Answers****4.0 OBJECTIVES**

In this unit we shall;

- discuss the historical perspectives of English Language in India,
- comprehend the significance of English as Foreign Language in Academics in Contemporary World,

- perceive the potential of English Language in the coming 100 years. On completing the unit, you shall be able to;
- converse the stages of inclusion of English Language in India (pre and post-independence),
- learn the importance of English Language globally and its various vital functions in knowledge acquisition,
- foresee the strength of English Language in all the domains of knowledge (formal & informal).

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#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Language is closely attached to person's feeling and action. It is in close relation with nationality, religion and the feelings of self. It is used for work, worship and fun by everyone, s/he be beggar or banker, savage or educated.

Languages are essential aspects in the growth and development story of any country. The persons of a social group require language to converse (oral & written) with one another and for all social purposes like public administration, commerce and industry, education and so on.

Ours is a country with “Multilingual, Multicultural, and Pluralistic Setting”. An individual can perform the best through the language which s/he acquires natively, i.e., the mother tongue. The social desires can best be satisfied when they are allowed to function through the mother tongue. So it is usual to think of mother tongue for the purpose of education. However the need to have a common language for communication has lead to the learning of English.

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#### **4.2 HOW INDIA CHANGED THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

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For hundreds of years, words have flowed along the routes of trade and empire. They are in there, often unnoticed. These words have become part of everyday English like loot, nirvana, pyjamas, shampoo and shawl; bungalow, jungle, pundit and thug.

What are the roots, and routes, of these Indian words ? How and when did they travel and what do their journeys into British vernacular – and then the Oxford English Dictionary – tell us about the relationship between Britain and India ?

Long before the British Raj – before the East India Company acquired its first territory in the Indian subcontinent in 1615 – South Asian words from languages such as Hindi, Urdu, Malayalam and Tamil had crept onto foreign tongues. One landmark book “The Definitive Glossary of British India” (1886) records the etymology of colloquial Anglo-Indian words and phrases. The poet Daljit Nagra described it as *“not so much an orderly dictionary as a passionate memoir of colonial India. Rather like an eccentric Englishman in glossary form”*.

The book explains how many of the words pre-date British rule. “*Ginger*”, “*pepper*” and “*indigo*” entered English via ancient routes : they

reflect the early Greek and Roman trade with India and come through Greek and Latin into English.

**“Ginger”** comes from Malayalam in Kerala, travels through Greek and Latin into Old French and Old English, and then the word and the plant become a global commodity. In the 15th Century, it's introduced into the Caribbean and Africa and it grows, so the word, the plant and the spice spread across the world.

As global trade expanded through European conquests of the East Indies, the flow of Indian words into English gathered momentum. Many came via Portuguese. “The Portuguese conquest of Goa dates back to the 16th Century, and mango, and curry, both come to us via Portuguese – **“mango”** began as **“mangai”** in Malayalam and Tamil, entered Portuguese as **“manga”** and then English with an **“o”** ending.

But the movement of South Asian words into English did not always follow a simple East to West trajectory, as Teltscher highlights with **“ayah”**, a word we've always understood to be an Indian nanny, or domestic help. *“Ayah is originally a Portuguese word, which means governess or nurse, and it's used in this way by the Portuguese in India and is absorbed into Indian languages, and then via India comes into English.”*

The Hobson–Jobson glossary describes an unusual journey for the word **“chilli”**, recorded as “the popular Anglo–Indian name of the pod of red pepper”. According to Yule and Burnell, “There is little doubt that the name was taken from Chile in South America, whence the plant was carried to the Indian archipelago and thence to India.”

Hindi, Urdu, Tamil, Malayalam, Portuguese and English words pinballed around the globe in 16th & 17th Centuries, revealing how languages evolve over time as culture is made and remade & people adapt to conditions around them. This is neatly illustrated by 03 words – **“shawl”**, **“cashmere”** and **“patchouli”** – that travel hand-in-hand from India into 18th Century English.

**“Cashmere”** is what we associate with wool and its origins are in Kashmir and the wool produced by Kashmir goats. It was closely associated with shawl, a word which originates in Persian, and travels into India via Urdu and Hindi and then enters English.

**“Shawl”** enters English in 18th & 19th Century because it becomes a desirable luxury garment for women in high society – if you had a brother working for the East India Company, you would want him to send you a beautifully embroidered shawl. **“Patchouli”** is linked to shawls because the perfume was used to deter moths while shawls were being transported and as a result this heady, heavy perfume became popular in Britain.

But **“patchouli”** soon lost its aspirational edge. “As the 19th Century moves on, patchouli becomes associated with racy, decadent French women and prostitutes. So patchouli goes from something royalty might wear into being beyond the pale, and then in the 1960s it becomes associated with the hippie movement,” says Teltscher.

It was inevitable with colonialism that Britain would imbibe the local culture and it would have a lasting effect. “One way of looking at it is these Indian words disrupted the English language because they just didn't exist in English – for example “*veranda*”. The climate's cold here so you wouldn't have a “*veranda*”, or “*pyjamas*” – loose fitting cotton trousers, which again are perfect for a hot climate.

Today, words such as ‘wifi’, ‘internet’, ‘Google’, ‘email’ and ‘selfie’ have become universal; there aren't other words for them. They have infiltrated English and languages all over the world. Social media has also changed the way we talk, the meaning of a word such as ‘*like*’ has completely shifted, and also the words like ‘*following*’, or ‘*lol*’.

India's influence on English points towards how language is perpetually in motion, and highlights the importance of former colonies in the making of the modern world. “*It's so fascinating to look at words because they provide wings to our imagination, emotions and erudition*”.

### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1**

<b>EXPLAIN THE HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF FOLLOWING WORDS IN 2/3 LINES.</b>
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(I) ginger

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(II) mango

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(III) ayah

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(IV) chilli

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(V) shawl

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(VI) cashmere

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(VII) patchouli

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(VIII) veranda

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(IX) pyjama

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#### 4.3 STATUS OF ENGLISH IN PRE-INDEPENDENCE ERA

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Public instruction in English language began in India in the 1830s during the rule of the East India Company (India was then, and is today, one of the most linguistically diverse regions of the world).

In 1835, English replaced Persian as the official language of the Company. Lord Macaulay played a major role in introducing English and the western concepts to education in India. He supported the replacement of Persian by English as the official language, the use of English as the medium of instruction in all schools, and the training of English-speaking Indians as teachers.

Throughout the 1840s and 1850s, primary-, middle-, and high-schools were opened in many districts of British India, with most high schools offering English language instruction in some subjects.

In 1857, just before the end of Company rule, universities modeled on the University of London and using English as the medium of instruction were established in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. During subsequent Crown Rule in India, or the British Raj, lasting from 1858 to 1947, English language penetration increased throughout India. This was driven in part by the gradually increasing hiring of Indians in the civil services. At the time of India's independence in 1947, English was the only functional lingua-franca in the country.

In the early 1900 and very specifically around 1925–1930 English was accepted as the language of the elite, of the administration, and of the pan Indian press. In addition, another phenomenon with a far reaching consequence was that of developing Indian literature in English”.

#### 4.4 PROTEST AGAINST HINDI AS OFFICIAL LANGUAGE OF INDIA

After Indian Independence in 1947, Hindi was declared the first official language, and attempts were made to declare Hindi the sole national language of India. Due to protests from Tamil Nadu and other non-Hindi-speaking states, it was decided to temporarily retain English for official purposes until at least 1965. By the end of this period, however, opposition from non-Hindi states was still too strong to have Hindi declared the sole language. With this in mind, the English Language Amendment Bill declared English to be an associate language “until such time as all non-Hindi States had agreed to its being dropped.” This has not yet occurred, and it is still widely used. For example, English is the only reliable means of day-to-day communication between the central government and the non-Hindi states.

The view of the English language among many Indians has gone from associating it with colonialism to associating it with social and economic progress, and English continues to be an official language of India.

#### 4.5 ENGLISH IN INDIA

Indian English is the register of the English language characteristic of the Republic of India. The Constitution of India designates the co-official language of the Government of India as English, along with Hindi. Today many regional varieties of English or English(es) exist around the globe and are slowly but steadily gaining recognition. Indian English (IndE) is one of the oldest.

Hindi is the official language of the Union Government of India. However, even after 70 years of Indian Independence from Britain, English is still retained with a status of the “subsidiary” official language. English holds the vital position of foreign language in Indian Educational System. Even after independence, it continues to be a major language in our society.

##### 4.5.1 Phases of Introduction of English in India :

Introduction of English language in India includes three phases.

- The first phase is the **missionary phase**, which includes the efforts of the Christian missionaries who came to Indian subcontinent to proselytize.
- In the second phase, the **Indians themselves demanded instruction in English studies**. Raja Ram Mohan Roy (1772–1833) made efforts to persuade the officials of East India Company for Western scientific education in part replacement of Sanskrit and Arabic.
- The third most important phase is that of **bilingualism** which started with the implementation of educational policies for instruction in English based on Lord Macaulay's “Minute on Indian Education (1835)”.

In the early 20th century, English was formally established as the official and academic language of India. English became the prestige language, completely replacing Persian and the other Indian languages.

#### 4.5.2 Status of English in Post Independence Era :

The constitution of India which was adopted in 1950 had envisaged Hindi as the only official language of the Union of India. However, English has been allowed to continue for 15 years from the date of adoption of the constitution and then to be replaced by Hindi. It was also assumed that it is impossible to educate millions in a totally foreign tongue (English). To quote Pandit Nehru, *“English will certainly remain an important language because of our past association and because of its present importance in the world”*.

#### 4.5.3 Studies on Inclusion of English Language in Academics :

To assess the overall language question of India, the Government has taken various steps like appointing study committees and commissions. The official language commission was appointed in June 1955 under the chairmanship of B. G. Kher to make recommendations about the progressive use of Hindi for all official purposes.

In the report of University Education Commission headed by Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, it was stated that English should be studied in schools and universities so as to keep ourselves in touch with the stream of ever growing knowledge.

“Kunzru Committee of 1957 supported a general proposal to consolidate English, for the foreseeable future, as a major university and pre-university subject. This committee proposed two major changes in approaches to English :

- (1) linking of the study of English literature to the study of Indian literature and
- (2) major expansion at all appropriate levels of linguistics

In 1960 the Banerjee Committee emphasized the value of English as an instrument in scientific learning. The Kothari Commission of 1964 asserted that *“As English will, for a long time to come, continue to be needed as Library language in the fields of higher education, a strong foundation in the language will have to be laid at the school stage”*.

The knowledge required for the development of technology and industries in our country can be best achieved from the books published in English on these subjects. So long as we don't develop such skills and prepare books in our national language or regional languages, we are obliged to continue the study of English language.

The ‘Three language formula’ suggested by Kothari Commission has been proposed as a solution to India's language problem. It involves three languages, namely, Hindi, English as a link language and one regional language.

*“English should be one of the three compulsory languages for students at the secondary stage, the other two being Hindi and the mother tongue or the regional language. This three language formula should form the basis of a National Policy and all state Governments should be invited to fall in line with it as early as possible”*. (Central Advisory Board : 1957)

*“Whatever the controversies and attitudes towards the future of English in India, one thing is certain : The diffusion of bilingualism in English, creative use of English in the country and its use as a pan Indian Language has continued during the post Independence era”. (Kachru 1983 : 93)*

**Indian English (Introduction And Development Of English in India and Present Scenario)**

## CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

**ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS IN 1/2 LINE/S.**

(I) When did public instruction in English Language begin in India ?

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(II) When did English replace Persian as the official language of the East India Company ? And who supported it ?

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(III) When did English was accepted as the language of the elite, of the administration, and of the pan Indian press ?

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(IV) Why did “English Language Amendment Bill declared English to be an associate language” was introduced ?

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(V) Enlist the phases of introduction of English in India.

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(VI) Who headed University Education Commission ?

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(VII) What are the two major changes in approaches to English as suggested by “Kunzru Committee of 1957 ?

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(VIII) Name the committee that emphasized “the value of English as an instrument in scientific learning”

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(IX) Briefly state the “three language formula”.

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## 4.6 THE USES AND THE FUNCTIONS OF ENGLISH

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### 4.6.1 English as Lingua Franca :

Of all the languages of the world, English deserves to be regarded as a world language. It is the common means of global communication. It is the language of international politics, trade, commerce and industry. The present world of science and technology needs the knowledge of English. No language, ancient or modern, can be compared with English in the number of geographical distribution of the homes, shops, factories, and offices in which the language is spoken, written and read.

### 4.6.2 English as Link Language :

It is the only language which is understood by the educated people all over the country. English is needed not for operational purposes but also for identifying oneself with those who use the language in India and abroad. According to Dr. S. Radha Krishnan Commission on Education

*“English is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world and we will act unwisely, if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of a dark curtain of ignorance”.*

### 4.6.3 English in Education :

In spite of the stated goals of the official language policy (replace English by Hindi), English continues to enjoy a pride of place in our educational setup. It continues to be a school subject throughout the country with certain differences in the number of years English is taught at school.

The teaching of English holds an important position in university teaching programmes in national institutions, administration, social circles, creative writing, the mass media, both print and electronic, and publication of books. It has acquired a complementary function in the Indian society along with other indigenous languages.

### 4.6.4 English Language in Written Communication :

English can be considered the key to the store house of knowledge. Books on all branches of knowledge are available in English, besides most of technical Journals, newspapers, periodicals are published in English.

A great deal of the world's scientific, commercial, economic & technological knowledge is written & published in English though the

writers may be Chinese, Swedish or Italians. Publication in English ensures widest readership of new findings and ideas.

#### **4.6.5 Indian English and Creative writings :**

The increasing use of English for creative expression and the adoption of it by writers like Mulk Raj Anand, Bhabani Bhattacharya, Raja Rao and others have given rise to the notion of Indian English. Kachru, who has made a study of Indian English, in his paper “Indian English : A study in Contextualization” says

*“In the spoken medium, Indian English by now established itself as an Indian variety of English. Indian English has ramifications in Indian culture, and is used in India towards maintaining appropriate Indian patterns of life, culture and education. This in short we might call the Indian English, in the same way as we speak of the Englishness of British English”.*

The Indian writers in English expressed their national identity and Indian consciousness effectively through their writings because of their innate originality and felicity of the English language.

#### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3**

- (I) Enlist and Explain the uses and the functions of English Language in detail.

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#### **4.7 OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH IN INDIAN ACADEMIC SETUP**

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Dr. Walker Hill says, *“in a sound system of University Education the objectives, the learning experiences provided in the college and the process of evaluation are closely related; they are interdependent”.*

Any language teaching situation should contain three important considerations.

1. Objectives of teaching the subject.
2. Appropriate methods and materials to achieve these objectives.
3. Periodic testing to ascertain whether these objectives have actually been achieved.

One of the serious shortcomings of the ELT situation in India is the lack of definite statement of objectives of teaching English.

A clear statement of objectives is essential. Teaching and testing become arbitrary and wayward if there are no objectives to guide. The teaching situation as far as English is concerned is fairly stable for several decades. The syllabi, teaching methods and testing procedures had remained fairly stable, though the standards of attainment in English are deteriorating,

In the sphere of ELT we continue to sticks to old methods and cherish objectives which were dear to our teachers. Reform in teaching English

ought to begin by stating the objectives in no uncertain terms. Objectives which are unrelated to our immediate need may fail to create the necessary motivation for learning the language.

To reformulate our objectives in the Indian context today we have to take into consideration (1) the motivation of the learner, (2) the availability of resources for teaching English and (3) the national needs that English may have to serve. For majority of students English is a highly useful language to be taught for practical purposes.

To quote Prof. V K Gokak, “*English will continue to be the language of all important trade and industry in the country for many years to come. It will take many years before it ceases to be the language of administration at higher levels*”.

So it is necessary that we need to design our syllabi on the skills needed in an L2 situation. Understanding of the four basic skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW), is needed and it is to be incorporated in our syllabi.

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#### 4.8 OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACROSS THE GLOBE

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Wilga Rivers enlists 06 classes of objectives which have dominated the teaching of English as a foreign language across the globe at different times. These are :

1. To develop the student's *intellectual capability* through foreign language study
2. To widen the student's *cultural understanding* through the study of the great literature and philosophy
3. To increase the student's learning capability to know how language functions and to bring him/her through the study of a foreign language
4. To teach the student *to read the foreign language with comprehension* so that s/he may keep him/herself abreast of modern writing, research, information and knowledge
5. To bring the student to *a greater understanding of people across national barriers*, by giving him/her sympathetic insight into the ways of life and ways of thinking of the people who speak the language s/he is learning.
6. To provide the student with the *skills which will enable him/her to communicate* orally and to some degree in writing with the speakers of another language and with people of other nationalities who have also learned this language.

## CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

### SHORT QUESTIONS

- (I) What are the points of considerations in formulating objectives in teaching English Language in Indian context ?

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- (II) Enlist the classes of objectives suggested by Wilga Rivers.

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## 4.9 STATUS OF ENGLISH IN THE PRESENT & IN THE FUTURE

The current status of English has turned a significant percentage of the world's population into recreational users or learners of English. The wide spread need for learning puts a considerable pressure on the educational resources involving curriculum development, methodology of teaching and evaluation procedures. Indeed they are getting evolved and rapid expansion and development in digitalization will also reach to almost all knowledge seekers.

The global role English plays today as a *lingua franca* – used as a means of communication by speakers of different languages – has parallels in many foreign languages of the world. Even many countries that have never preferred English Language in their countries have opened the windows and doors for English Language. New “*interlanguages*” are emerging, in which features of English are mingled with those of other native tongues and their pronunciations.

Meanwhile, the development of automatic translation software, such as Google Translate, will come to replace English as the preferred means of communication employed in the boardrooms of international corporations and government agencies. So the future for English is one of “*Multiple Englishes*”.

Looking back to the early 20th century, it was the Standard English used in England, spoken with the accent known as “Received Pronunciation” that carried prestige. But today the largest concentration of native speakers is in the US, and the influence of US English can be heard throughout the world : *can I get a cookie, I'm good, did you eat, the movies, \_ “skedule” \_ rather than “shedule”*. In the future, to speak English will be to speak US English.

US spellings such as **disk** and **program** are already preferred to British equivalents *disc* and *programme* in computing. The dominance of US usage in the digital world will lead to the wider acceptance of further American preferences, such as *favorite, donut, dialog, center*.



#### **4.9.1 Examination of English as a Lingua Franca in Social Media :**

International communications have always relied on a Lingua Franca to serve as a bridge of understanding between individuals with diverse cultural and language background. Arrival of social media in 1995 has resulted in an amplified need for a Lingua Franca. Since then, social media has grown into a global phenomenon that has billions of individuals partake in various media services available to them. Wide spreads of social media allows the users of numerous cultures and languages to interact with one another on a daily basis. This leads to the need for a Lingua Franca to be used to overcome various language barriers that would form in communications of such scope.

The language used as a Lingua Franca will vary. But more often than not, the language chosen for that role will be the one of the country with the strongest economic presences. In modern time, USA has that possession. As a result, their mother tongue English had been a dominant Lingua Franca even before emergence of social media. Therefore, as social media spread around the globe so did the influence of English as a Lingua Franca and the need to use English, allowing the presence of English to grow even stronger.

#### **4.9.2 What is being lost ? :**

In the 20th century, it was feared that English dialects were dying out with their speakers. Projects such as the Survey of English Dialects (1950–61) were launched at the time to collect and preserve endangered words before they were lost forever. A similar study undertaken by the BBC's Voices Project in 2004 turned up a rich range of local accents and regional terms which are available online, demonstrating the vibrancy and longevity of dialect vocabulary.

The turn of the 20th century was a period of regulation and fixity – the rules of Standard English were established and codified in grammar books and in the New (Oxford) English Dictionary on Historical Principles, published as a series of volumes from 1884–1928. Today we are witnessing a process of de-standardisation, and the emergence of competing norms of usage.

In the online world, attitudes to consistency and correctness are considerably more relaxed : variant spellings are accepted and punctuation marks omitted, or repurposed to convey a range of attitudes. Research has shown that in electronic discourse exclamation marks can carry a range of exclamatory functions, including apologising, challenging, thanking, agreeing, and showing solidarity. Capital letters are used to show anger, misspellings convey humour and establish group identity, and smiley-faces or emoticons express a range of reactions.

#### **4.9.3 Getting Shorter :**

Some have questioned whether the increasing development and adoption of emoji pictograms, which allow speakers to communicate without the need for language, mean that we will cease to communicate in English at all ?

The fast-changing world of social media is also responsible for the coining and spreading of neologisms, or “new words”. Recent updates to Oxford Dictionaries give a flavour : *mansplaining, awesomesauce, rly, bants, TL; DR (too long; didn't read)*.

Clipped forms, acronyms, blends and abbreviations have long been productive methods of word formation in English (think of *bus, smog* and *scuba*) but the huge increase in such coinages means that they will be far more prominent in the English of 2115.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 5

- (I) Define interlanguages and Multiple Englishes.  
.....  
.....  
.....
- (II) Critically evaluate the statement “English as a Lingua Franca in Social Media”.  
.....  
.....  
.....
- (III) What is the process of “de-standardization” in usages of language in “Online World” ?  
.....  
.....  
.....

#### 4.10 CONCLUSION

English has been the main Lingua Franca in use the world for almost 400 years. English owes its popularity to being the native tongue of two nations that had the biggest economies. But today it is not their property; it is the language of everybody. It is used in business, entertainment and leisure, as a preferred means to maintain communicational exchanges. With the arrival of social media, the possibilities of interaction between people of different backgrounds have increased to an unforeseen extent. Despite being the most widespread language in the world, with the advent of social media, English has reached its peak of dissemination thanks to the use of English as Lingua Franca (ELF) propitiated by these types of services. The users’ desire for a simple and efficient means to convey their thoughts has converted English into the mainstream language for textual and verbal communication on the world-wide web. Hence it is very important that English Language Teaching – Learning can be revamped in briskly changing world – *“The World With No Boundaries”*.

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#### 4.11 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit you have learnt to;

- converse the stages of inclusion of English Language in India (pre and post independence),
- learn the importance of English Language globally and its various vital functions in knowledge acquisition,
- foresee the strength of English Language in all the domains of knowledge (formal & informal).

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#### 4.12 KEY WORDS

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1. Language – the method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way
2. Monolingual – (of a person or society) speaking only one language
3. Bilingual (of a person or society) speaking two languages
4. Polylingual/Multilingual – using several languages
5. Polyglot – knowing several languages
6. Dialect – a particular form of a language which is peculiar to a specific region or social group
7. Register – professional variety of a language
8. Lingua Franca – A language that is adopted as a common language between speakers whose native languages are different
9. Interlanguage – A language or form of language having features of two others, typically a pidgin or a version produced by a foreign learner
10. Pidgin – A grammatically simplified form of a language, typically English, Dutch, or Portuguese, some elements of which are taken from local languages, used for communication between people not sharing a common language
11. Englishes – The language of England, widely used in many varieties throughout the world
12. Received Pronunciation – The standard form of British English pronunciation, based on educated speech in southern England, widely accepted as a standard elsewhere
13. De-standardization – Removing something from its set standards
14. Emoji – A small digital image or icon used to express an idea or emotion
15. Neologisms – Newly coined words or expressions
16. Acronym – An abbreviation formed from the initial letters of other words and pronounced as a word (e.g. NASA, BBC, WHO)
17. Coinages – The invention of a new word or phrase

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#### 4.12 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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#### Indian English (Introduction And Development Of English in India and Present Scenario)

Jenkins, J. *English as a Lingua Franca : Interpretations and Attitudes*. World Englishes, 2009.

Kachru, Braj. *The Indianisation of English : the English language in India*. Oxford UP, 1983.

Larsen–Freeman, D. & Anderson, M. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (3rd ed.). Oxford UP, 2011.

Mehrotra, Raja Ram. *Indian English : Texts and Interpretation*, John Benjamins Publishing, 1998.

Norton, B. *Identity and Language Learning : Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Change*. Harlow : Longman, 2000.

Sedlatschek, Andreas. *Contemporary Indian English : Variation and Change, Series : Varieties of English Around the World*. John Benjamins Publishing, 2009.

#### ANSWERS

<b>Check Your Progress 1</b>
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- I. Ginger comes from Malayalam in Kerala, travels through Greek and Latin into Old French and Old English.
- II. Mango, comes to us via Portuguese – “mango” began as “mangai” in Malayalam and Tamil, entered Portuguese as “manga” and then English with an “o” ending.
- III. Aayah originally a Portuguese word, which means governess or nurse, and it's used in this way by the Portuguese in India and is absorbed into Indian languages, and then via India comes into English.
- IV. Chilli is the popular Anglo–Indian name of the pod of red pepper
- V. Cashmere is what we associate with wool and its origins are in Kashmir and the wool produced by Kashmir goats.
- VI. Shawl enters English in 18th & 19th Century because it becomes a desirable luxury garment for women in high society.
- VII. Patchouli is linked to shawls because the perfume was used to deter moths while shawls were being transported and as a result this heady, heavy perfume became popular in Britain.
- VIII. Veranda – an open space to move around with ease in hot climate.
- IX. Pyjamas – loose fitting cotton trousers, which again are perfect for a hot climate

<b>Check Your Progress 2</b>
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- (I) 1830s
- (II) 1835 Lord Macaulay
- (III) In the early 1900 and very specifically around 1925–1930.
- (IV) to bring uniformity in accepting English Language by all the states)

- (V) the phases 1 – missionary phase – 2– Indians themselves demanded instruction in English studies – 3 bilingualism
- (VI) Dr.S. Radhakrishnan
- (VII) (1) linking of the study of English literature to the study of Indian literature and  
(2) major expansion at all appropriate levels of linguistics
- (VIII) Banerjee Committee in 1960
- (IX) Hindi, English as a link language and one regional language.

<b>Check Your Progress 3</b>
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- (I) (1) English as Lingua Franca  
(2) English as Link Language  
(3) English in Education  
(4) English Language in Written Communication  
(5) Indian English and Creative writings

<b>Check Your Progress 4</b>
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- (I) (1) motivation of the learner  
(2) availability of resources for teaching English  
(3) national needs that English may have to serve.
- (II) (1) intellectual capability  
(2) cultural understanding  
(3) learning capability  
(4) read the foreign language with comprehension
- (5) greater understanding of people across national barriers
- (6) skills which will enable him/her to communicate

<b>Check Your Progress 5</b>
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- (I) “interlanguages” – features of English are mingled with those of other native tongues and their pronunciations. **“Multiple Englishes”** – dominance of countries like US/Canada over English Language with new and varied usages of words as well as languages
- (II) Social media is a global phenomenon with billions of users with diverse cultures and languages to interact. This leads to the need for a Lingua Franca to overcome various language barriers. The language used as a Lingua Franca will vary. But more often than not, the language chosen for that role will be of the country with the strongest economic presences. In modern time, USA has that possession. As a result, their mother tongue English had been a dominant Lingua Franca even before emergence of social media.

- (III) (1) consistency and correctness are considerably relaxed
- (2) variant spellings are accepted
- (3) punctuation marks omitted, or repurposed to convey a range of attitudes.
- (4) in electronic discourse exclamation marks can carry a range of exclamatory functions
- (5) Capital letters are used to show anger,
- (6) mis-spellings convey humour and establish group identity
- (7) smiley-faces or emoticons express a range of reactions.

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**5.0 Objectives****5.1 Grammar–Nature & Definition****5.1.1 Major Categories of Linguistic Theory****5.1.2 Grammar–Nature and Definition****5.1.3 Linguists and Grammar****5.1.4 Perspective and Descriptive Grammar****5.1.5 The Notion of ‘Standard English’****5.1.6 The Study of Form v/s the Study of Meaning****5.2 Check Your Progress****5.3 Let Us Sum Up****5.4 Points to Ponder****5.5 Key Words****5.6 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**5.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- the unit introduces grammatical structures to enable students recognize, understand and learn to interpret literary as well as non–literary texts,
- there is an introduction of Grammar as the topic with some definitions to make students learn its importance, relevance and also use grammar as an aid to learn and use a new language,
- the intricacies of English language can be understood if students learn grammar in order to even produce the language in correct form,
- samples of some grammatical structures are given for practice work that assist the learning in practical way,
- exercises provided in the unit are based on the grammatical structures explained here aiming to get students’ participation in language related activities,
- the perspectives of ‘Grammarians’ as against ‘Linguists’ have been explained to make students’ language learning decisions independently. Situational learning is at the core than stringent grammar rules.

**5.1.1 Major Categories of Linguistic Theory :**

According to contemporary linguistic theory, we can divide the description of any language into three major categories : Grammar (comprising of Morphology and Syntax), Phonology and Lexicon. As the unit is focused on Grammar we should first try to understand the subsets of grammar namely, morphology and syntax before moving into a deeper discussion on Grammar.

Morphology is a study that deals with the forms and structure of words, their arrangement in phrases and sentences is known as Syntax. Morphology is the study of the relationship between form and meaning with the words. Prefixes and suffixes, for example, are added to bases to change the meaning of the base in a number of ways. Various other processes can influence the ways in which words are made up, and there are generalisations about where the morphological markers will occur, as well as about how the bits or words interact with each other semantically. Phonology on the other hand deals with the sound system (involving sounds, stress and intonation) and Lexicon provides information about the individual items of the vocabulary (words, and idioms such as *kick the bucket*).

In each of the three major areas we may distinguish between the study of form and the study of meanings (the term semantics often being applied to the latter, the study of linguistic meanings). Thus, for example, the study of grammatical form will deal with grammatical categories such as past tense and interrogative clause, while the study of grammatical meaning will be concerned with the meanings associated with these categories (past time, question and others).

**5.1.2 Grammar–Nature and Definition :**

The idea that grammar is a set of rules, often seen as arbitrary or unrealistic, is only one narrow view of grammar. Such a view is based on the belief that : a) grammar must be explicitly taught; b) grammar is absolute and fixed, a target or goal that speakers need to attain in order to be “good” speakers or writers of the language; c) grammar is inherently difficult and confusing, its mysteries only apparent to teachers, language experts or linguists.

Grammar is a set of production rules for strings in a formal language. The rules of grammar indicate how strings can be formed from the alphabet of the language. This points to the fact that grammar can be thought of as a method for combining sentences, logically, in order to create meaning. Grammar does not deal with the meanings of the strings. It describes only the forms of the strings, and not how to use them or twist them according to context, which means that the purpose of grammar is to assist future creation of sentences and meaning depending on the situation that the speaker/writer encounters. The situational aspect influencing grammar is a crucial point of debate because language is not static, it changes and evolves and with it evolves the role of grammar.



Language is a living, fluid entity that changes in response to the society. Societal changes are reflected in language, for example— acceptance of certain pronouns, addition of new words adopted into language. Grammar is a reflection of a language at a particular time. No language is fixed, it evolves over time. Language is sounds that evolve into words, phrases and sentences. Language evolves organically reflecting the culture, habits of the speakers of the language. Only language that no longer have native speakers do not change. These are referred to as ‘dead’ languages like Latin & Sanskrit. However in case of English, where there are large number of speakers today with more numbers joining on a daily basis, the language will remain dynamic and ever changing. This change will be reflected in the way grammar is used.

Grammar is often called a set of rules; which is not required to learn in order to learn the language of native speakers. It is a signpost, a map to be used in the form of an extra assistance. There are detractors who say that the notion of grammar creates a sense of mystery, resentment and frustration sometimes with its trite rules and endless drills and mindless practice. However it should be seen as a system, that once understood logically can lead to better use of language, even if the language keeps adapting and evolving.

The English that is taught to non–native speakers is recognized as Standard English because the grammar for most part reflects formally educated native speakers’ shared rules.

### **5.1.3 Linguists and Grammar :**

Linguistics have a very different approach to the notion of grammar. From the linguist's point of view, it is not a collection of rules, often obscure and illogical, that must be taught rather it is a system or the ‘blueprint’ for creating language, while for grammarian, it is the written rules, when to use which form or structures. Linguists’ focus is on the evolving language with unique utterances, which follow shared mental rules of native speakers. According to linguists every language, including its dialects or variants, is systematic and orderly. Language and their variations are rule–governed structures, and are therefore “grammatical”. In other words, all languages consist of patterns, or “grammars,” that make sense of the features of a given language that include the arbitrary symbols, sounds and words that make up that language.

For example, consider the following string of words. How many sentences can you come up with using these words and only these words ?

the, came, boy, books, home, with

Most speakers of English, who have some intuitive knowledge of grammar, will come up with two sentences :

- a. The boy came home with books.
- b. They boy with books came home.

What they do is use grammar to put this seemingly random string of words into a comprehensible sentence. Any other combination of words would produce sentences that would sound strange to English speakers

because they would not be grammatical; i.e. fit the “blueprint” of how words are combined in English to make sentences. A linguist deals with different grammar shared by different groups of speakers as all utterances are systematic in their generation, age or period. Hence all grammar is valid. For a grammarian, it is about strict adherence to rules in order to use the language correctly and views only one particular variety of grammar as ‘Standard’.

#### **5.1.4 Perspective and Descriptive Grammar :**

A linguists’ definition of grammar is descriptive whereas a grammarian’s definition of grammar is prescriptive. Prescriptive grammar is the grammar taught in school, discussed in newspaper and magazine columns on language and on various social media, or mandated by language academies such as those found in Spain or France. Prescriptive grammar tells people how they should say something, what words they should use, when they need to make a specific choice, and why they should do so. At times, prescriptive grammar rules are overextended to the point that speakers hypercorrect, that is, they apply the grammatical rules in situations where they should not.

Take, for instance, the use of the pronouns ‘I’ and ‘me’. For many years, English teachers in the United States railed against the incorrect use of me, the object pronoun, in subject position as in :

1. \*Me and Kabir are going to the store,  
or
2. \*Kabir and me are going to the store.
3. \*Me and Shriya had lunch,  
or
4. \*Shriya and me had lunch.

There is a prescriptive grammar rule in English specifying that pronouns in subject position must be subject pronouns (I, you, we, he, she, it, they). According to this rule, speakers’ use of me in these sentences is incorrect because ‘me’ is the first person object pronoun. ‘Me’ in these sentences is in subject position, and the subject pronoun ‘I’ should follow any other noun subject or subject pronoun. From a prescriptive point of view, these sentences should be :

1. Kabir and I are going to the store.
2. Shriya and I had lunch.

In contrast to prescriptive grammar, descriptive grammar describes how adult native speakers actually use their language. Unlike prescriptive grammar, descriptive grammar does not say “this is right” or “this is wrong.” Instead, descriptive grammar focuses on understanding how language is organized into meaningful, systematic patterns, which are generally below the level of conscious awareness of most speakers. By understanding the patterns of English, we can help others in learning the language learning process.

Some people think that descriptive grammar means saying that everything is right and nothing is wrong. What we must consider is the

purpose for which a speaker is using language. If a person is at a white-collar job interview or sending in a college application, using stigmatized language forms is inappropriate. On the other hand, if the person is among a group of peers, using a different variety of language is part of in-group acceptance and identity. This is not to say that there should be no grammar rulebooks, manuals of style, or standards of usage; on the contrary, there is a need for standards, especially in formal language contexts and when we are teaching English to non-native speakers.

### **5.1.5 The Notion of ‘Standard English’ :**

There is no formal language academy or government institutions decreeing or legislating “correctness” for American English.

American Standard English exists on a continuum of “correctness” because language changes there is no agreement among language gurus on what is “correct” though some grammarians are slower to accept this fact than others.

The description of any language can be divided into three major areas.

1. Grammar – (Morphology & Syntax) Morphology deals with the form of words. Syntax deals with the arrangement of words to form sentences.
2. Phonology deals with sound system involving sounds, accent patterns and intonation.
3. Lexicon provides information about individual items of the vocabulary.

### **5.1.6 The Study of Form v/s the Study of Meaning :**

The traditional grammarians tend to see the straight relation between form and meaning. However, in many cases it is not always so. The study of grammatical form will deal with grammatical categories such as past tense, interrogative clause, passive voice and so on, while the study of grammatical meaning will be concerned with the meanings associated with these categories.

**For example :** Traditional grammar describes ‘past tense’ simply as a form of the verb which expresses the meaning ‘past time’.

Sentence – One day we decided to climb Mount Everest.

In the above mentioned sentence the relationship between form and meaning would be less direct if we changed the clause to ‘It would be interesting if we decided to play golf course’. Here in this example the event is not in the past but a possibility in future.

The type of approach adopted in the present day grammar is dependent on language which is evolving, hence the approach needs adaptation at regular intervals.

#### **● Illustrations :**

Read the following sentences in order to distinguish between form and meaning of grammatical structures.

1. I am leaving in the next 10 minutes (Future)
2. I am nervous. (Present)

3. I am about to fail. (Future)
4. I am almost done. (Perfect)
5. She was about to speak something. (Future)
6. We have good luck. (Present – Positive)
7. We hardly have good luck. (Present – Negative)
8. There is water everywhere. (Positive)
9. There is hardly any water anywhere. (Negative)

Structure with its rigid form cannot be taken as a set of patterns to be followed rigidly. A native speaker can easily discriminate the intricacies of meanings intuitively. However an EFL or ESL learner needs to be educated about the complexity of language rigorously.

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## 5.2 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

**CHOOSE THE CORRECT OPTION FROM THE FOLLOWING.**

1. Grammar deals with \_\_\_\_\_.  
 a. Set of Observations                      b. Learners' Difficulties  
 c. Set of rules about Grammatical structures
2. Phonology is the study of \_\_\_\_\_.  
 a. Sound system of a language      b. Meanings of Words  
 c. Grammatical Structures
3. Morphology deals with \_\_\_\_\_.  
 a. History of the language              b. Meanings of the words  
 c. Arrangement of words
4. Syntax is the study of \_\_\_\_\_.  
 a. Related to meaningful arrangement of words  
 b. Types of Sentence structures  
 c. Correct use of grammatical forms
5. Lexicon provides \_\_\_\_\_.  
 a. Information about a particular word or idiom  
 b. Proper tips to arrange words  
 c. Correct order of words in a sentence

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

**REWRITE THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES WHICH ARE GRAMMATICALLY INCORRECT.**

1. They does not like games.
2. She looks wonderful.
3. Why I am not invited for dinner ?
4. Were he present in the meeting ?

5. Don't Tanu look serious today ?
6. The sky appear immensely wide.
7. Girls wears fashionable clothes
8. Smoking is permitted nowhere.
9. Good habits brings good luck.
10. A student were punished.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

**CATEGORIZE THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS UNDER DESCRIPTIVE & PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR HEADINGS.**

1. A set of rules to be followed rigidly to produce correct language.
2. A set of rules that is ever changing as per the situation.
3. Rules are not bounding but facilitating the learners.
4. A strict adherence to rules is demanded.
5. It increases language complexity.
6. It gives freedom to the learner to express.
7. It tends to be trite, boring and difficult to remember and apply.
8. It gives freedom and linguistic tolerance.
9. A traditional grammarian strictly follows it.
10. A linguist is more interested in finding out the complexities inherent in any language.
11. Change is not allowed in this section of learning.
12. Without change, no language survives.
13. It does not allow any deviation from the set rules.
14. It allows freedom and promotes innovations in language expressions.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

**YOU HAVE ALREADY READ ABOUT THE NATURE AND MEANING OF THE WORD 'GRAMMAR'. THE UNIT HAS INTRODUCED YOU TO THE EXPLICIT EXPLANATION ON WHAT TWO DIFFERENT VIEWS PREVAIL ON THIS TERM. ON THE BASIS OF WHAT YOU HAVE UNDERSTOOD WRITE TWO DEFINITIONS OF THE WORD 'GRAMMAR' IN YOUR WORDS.**

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## 5.3 LET US SUM UP

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In this Unit, we have tried to give in-depth understanding of the term 'Grammar'. A student who is a second language learner needs to deal with challenges that come across while learning a foreign language. English being internationally acclaimed and accepted for communication gives its learners the scope for flexibility and innovative expressions.

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#### 5.4 POINTS TO PONDER

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- Grammar is helpful to an extent.
- More experiments with the language, the more you empower it.
- A linguist's approach is far more helpful than following strict rules of grammar. LSRW go a long way than any prescribed set of grammatical rules.
- Meaning conveyed is more important than the 'form' that is blindly followed.

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#### 5.5 KEY WORDS

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**Descriptive Grammar :** It is a set of rules about language based on how it is actually used.

**Prescriptive Grammar :** it is a set of rules about language based on how people think language should be used.

**Language intuition :** It refers to awareness that the speaker has of linguistic form

**Continuum of Correctness :** A language which changes with no formal language academy establishing it

**Linguists Vs Grammarians :** linguists study syntax, structure, phonetics of phonology of language. Grammarians study morphology and phonology of language.

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#### 5.6 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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W. S. Allen, "Living with Structure : A Guide to American English for Native and Non-native Speaker", London.1947

A Close, English as a Foreign Language, London 1962.

English Study Book by Jacqueline Chinnai

English Grammar : An Introduction by Peter Collins Carmella Hollo

**Answer**

<b>Check Your Progress 1</b>
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1. Grammar deals with Set of Rules about Grammatical structures
2. Phonology is the study of sound system of a language.
3. Morphology is arrangement of words
4. Syntax is related to meaningful arrangement of words
5. Lexicon provides information about a particular word or idiom

<b>Check Your Progress 2</b>
------------------------------

1. They donot like games
2. She looks wonderful.
3. Why am I not invited for dinner ?
4. Was he present in the meeting ?

5. Doesn't Tanu look serious today ?
6. The sky appears immensely wide.
7. Girls wear fashionable clothes
8. Smoking is permitted nowhere.
9. Good habits bring good luck.
10. A student was punished.

<b>Check Your Progress 3</b>
------------------------------

- |                  |                 |                  |                 |
|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Prescriptive  | 2. Descriptive  | 3. Descriptive   | 4. Prescriptive |
| 5. Prescriptive  | 6. Descriptive  | 7. Prescriptive  | 8. Descriptive  |
| 9. Prescriptive  | 10. Descriptive | 11. Prescriptive | 12. Descriptive |
| 13. Prescriptive | 14. Descriptive |                  |                 |

<b>Check Your Progress 4</b>
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Grammar is a set of rules, which is fixed. Any deviation from rules of grammar is a mistake.

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

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**: STRUCTURE :**  
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**6.0 Objectives****6.1 Introduction****6.2 Meaning of ‘Word Formation’****6.2.1 What is ‘Root’ ?****6.2.2 What is ‘Stem’ ?****6.3 Process of Word Formation.****6.3.1 Affixation Method including Prefix and Suffix****6.3.2 Compounding Method and formation of Compound and Complex words.****6.3.3 Blending Method****6.3.4 Conversion Method****6.3.5 Acronym Method****6.3.6 Initialism****6.3.7 Clipping****6.3.8 Onomatopoeia****6.3.9 Coinage****6.3.10 Eponym****6.3.11 Borrowing****6.4 Let Us Sum Up****6.5 Key Words****6.6 Books Suggested****6.7 Check Your Progress****Answers**  
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**6.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- discuss the meaning of ‘word’, ‘stems’ and ‘roots’,
- understand the process of word formation by various methods resulting in compound and complex words,

On completing the unit, you shall be able to;

- distinguish between the root and stem of the word,
- identify and use simple, compound and complex words in order to use language more effectively.



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## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

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Before we understand the meaning and process of word formation, let's see what does 'word' mean :

- The word is the smallest free form found in a particular language.
- A free form is an element that can occur in isolation and/or whose position with respect to the neighboring elements is not entirely fixed. For e.g. in the word 'tourists', 's' cannot be a free form since it must always be attached to the end of some word.

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## 6.2 MEANING OF 'WORD FORMATION'

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Word Formation process in English is the process of building new words by means of existing elements of language according to certain pattern and rules. In linguistics this is known as 'Morphology'. Morphology is the study of words, how they are formed and their relationship to the other words in the same language.

In order to understand the process of word formation, it is necessary to understand the structure and basic parts of a word such as :

### 6.2.1 Root :

The root is a word or a part of word that that does not have a prefix in front of the word or a suffix at the end of the word. It is thus known as **Simple word** as opposed to compound or complex words. Root word can form the basis of new words by addition of prefixes and/or suffixes. For e.g. the root of the English word 'waiting' is 'wait' and 'ing' is suffix. Similarly root for 'bicycle' is 'cycle' and 'bi' is a prefix. Many new words can be formed from a single root.

For e.g. let's take the root word 'form' which means 'shape'. Words based on it are :

1. Information : 'descriptive shape'
2. Deformed : 'out of shape'
3. Malformed : 'badly shaped'
4. Conform : 'Thoroughly shaped' to others
5. Non Conformist : 'Not thoroughly shaped'
6. Formula : 'mathematical shape'
7. Formality : 'requirement of etiquette'
8. Formless : 'having no definite shape'
9. Format : 'structure, plan or arrangement for how something is presented.'

Thus, many words can be formed from one root.

- Understanding the meaning of word roots can help us to understand the meaning of new words when we come across them.
- However, meaning of the root does not always equal to the meaning of the word. For e.g., the root word 'logos' means 'speech', and 'apo'

means ‘from or off’, so if we interpret the meaning of the word ‘apology’ based on root word alone, we might think it is ‘away from speech’ which is not a good explanation for a word that is used to express regret or remorse.

- Root words can have more than one meaning when combined with affixes and sometimes words that may look similar come from different roots. For e.g. root of the word ‘transactions’ is ‘act’.
- In English language, root words are mostly derived from Latin and Greek. For e.g. Some common Latin roots are :
  1. ‘**aqua**’ means ‘water’ forms ‘*aquarium*’, ‘*aquamarine*’.
  2. ‘**aud**’ means ‘to hear’ forms ‘*audience*’, ‘*audition*’, ‘*audio visual*’.
  3. ‘**dict**’ means ‘to say’ forms ‘*dictator*’, ‘*dictation*’.

Some common Greek roots are :

1. ‘**auto**’ means ‘self’ forms ‘*autobiography*’, ‘*automatic*’.
  2. ‘**bio**’ means ‘life’ forms ‘*biology*’, ‘*biography*’
  3. ‘**chron**’ means ‘time’ forms ‘*chronological*’, ‘*chronic*’.
- The root is called the base word.

### 6.2.2 Stem :

After root, another important part to understand is the stem. Stem is a part of a word together with any derivational affixes (meaning of derivation explained in detail further) to which inflectional affixes (prefix and/or suffix) are added. A word has a single stem, namely the part of the word that is common to all its inflected variants.

- The stem of the word consists minimally of a root but may be analyzable into a root plus derivational morpheme. For e.g., the stem of the word ‘friendships’ is not ‘friend’ but ‘friendship’ to which an inflectional suffix ‘s’ is added.
- Stem may be root. For e.g. ‘run’ or words with derivational morphemes. For e.g. the stem of a complex english noun ‘photographer’ is ‘photographer’ but not ‘photo’.
- Understanding the Difference between Root and Stem : Root of the English verb ‘destabilized’ is ‘stabil’ ; the stem is ‘destabilize’ which includes the derivational affixes like ‘de’ and ‘-ize’ but does not include the inflectional suffix ‘(e)d’. Thus stem is that part of the word that inflectional affixes attach to.

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## 6.3 PROCESS OF WORD FORMATION

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The process of forming new words often known as word building is done through various methods :

### 6.3.1 Affixation :

It is a process of forming new word by adding a prefix and/or suffix to an existing base.

**Prefix** is an affix which is placed before the stem of a word. Adding it to the beginning of one word changes it into another word. For e.g., when we add prefix 'un' to the word 'happy', it creates a word 'unhappy'. Thus adding prefix usually changes the meaning of the word but it may not change its word class (parts of speech). For e.g. Write (verb) – 're'write (verb), smoker (verb)– 'non'smoker (verb).

- The word Prefix is itself made up of the stem 'fix' means 'to attach' and prefix 'pre' means 'before', both of which are derived from Latin roots.
- Prefixes can be used to form new verbs : e.g. : circle– encircle, large, enlarge.
- Used to show Negation or Opposition :  
un– unable, unfair, unlock, untrue, unrest  
dis– dislike, disagree, disrespect  
a– atypical, amoral  
in– informal, inexperienced  
im (before b,m,p) – impossible, immoral  
il(before l) – illegal, illogical, illegible  
ir(before r) – irregular, irrelevant, irresponsible, irrepectable  
non– nonsmoker, nondrinker  
de– decode, deforest, devalue
- Used to show Repetition, making it possible :  
re– rebuild, reunite, recharge, remake  
en/em– enrich, enlarge, embitter, embark
- Used to show Degree, Measure or Size :  
super– superhuman, supernatural, supersonic  
semi– semisolid, semifinal, semiautomatic  
hyper– hyperactive, hypersensitive  
ultra– ultrahigh, ultrasound, ultra magnetic  
over– overtime, overpopulation, over explosion
- Used to show Time, Place, Order and Relation :  
post– postwar, post graduation, postpone  
pre– prewar, pre independence, prehistoric  
inter– international, intercontinental, intercollege  
ex– ex-president, ex-student, ex-girlfriend
- Used to show Number and Numeric Relation :  
bi– bilateral, bipolar, bifocal  
uni– unilateral, unisex, uniform  
multi– multinational, multilingual, multicoloured

- Used to show Attitude, Collaboration and Membership :  
anti– antisocial, antiwar, anticorruption  
counter– counterattack, counter revolution  
pro– pro english, pro vice chancellor  
mis– mistreat, mislead, misuse.

**Suffix** is an affix which is placed after the stem of the word. Suffixes can alter the grammatical form (Word class/Parts of speech) of the words. For e.g., bake (verb) – baker (noun), beauty (verb)– beautiful (adjective). Let us see more examples of suffixes :

- Noun Forming Suffixes :  
or– actor, director, visitor  
er– speaker, teacher, baker, farmer  
ist– scientist, cartoonist, artist  
ess– hostess, actress, waitress  
ty/ity– purity, cruelty, stupidity  
ure/ture– mixture, failure, exposure  
dom– kingdom, freedom, stardom  
ence/ance– appearance, preference  
hood– likelihood, brotherhood, neighbourhood  
ness– kindness, goodness, willingness, softness  
ship– friendship, courtship, partnership, membership  
ment– development, government, entertainment
- Adjective Forming Suffixes :  
able/ible– sensible, reasonable, portable  
ic/atic– atomic, heroic, systematic  
y– bloody, dirty, sunny, moody  
less– useless, harmless, homeless  
ive/ative/itive– active, creative, sensitive  
ant/ent– pleasant, different, excellent  
en– wooden, golden, maiden  
like– childlike, ladylike  
ing– amusing, interesting, charming  
ish– bookish, childish, foolish  
ly– friendly, manly, lovely
- Verb Forming Suffixes :  
ize– standardize, civilize, specialize  
ify/fy– simplify, glorify  
en– deepen, sharpen, shorten

- Adverb Forming Suffixes :  
ly– formally, calmly, easily  
ward/wards– homeward, afterwards, backwards  
wise/ways– likewise, otherwise, sideways.

**Difference between Derivation and Inflection :** Derivation is a part of affixation. It produces a new word by adding prefixes or suffixes. For e.g. ‘un’–usual : adding ‘un’ produces a new word, child–ish, dis–loyal–ty etc.; whereas inflection produces grammatical variants(parts of speech) of the same word by adding affixes. For e.g., Generally every English verb adds ‘s’ for third person singular present tense. run– run’s’. ‘s’ is an inflection.

When suffix ‘er’ is added to ‘smaller’ it is an inflection, but when it is added to a verb like ‘cook’ it becomes ‘cooker’ means utensil to cook which is a derivation.

### 6.3.2. Compounding :

It is the process of word formation that involves the process of joining two separate words to create a new word. For e.g. ‘street’ + ‘light’ = ‘streetlight’, ‘happy’ + ‘hour’ = ‘happy hour’. It is a unit that contains more than one stem.

- A **compound word** is a combination of two simple words. E.g., ‘bedroom’, ‘basketball’.
- The meaning of the compound may be similar or different from the meanings of its components in isolation.
- The component stems of a compound may be of the same part of speech as in the word ‘footpath’, composed of two nouns, ‘foot’ and ‘path’; or they may belong to different part of speech like in the word, ‘blackbird’ composed of an adjective ‘black’ and noun ‘bird’.
- In contrast to compound words, **Complex word** is a word consisting of a base and one or more derivational elements, like an affix or suffix. For e.g., ‘unlikely’ [un(prefix)–like(base)–ly(Suffix)], ‘vitality’ (vit–al–ity), ‘lively’ (live–ly). There are four origins that explain the formation of complex words.
  1. Greek origins– Words are formed as a result of classical Greek and neo–Latin roots. These are the words that, when read in Greek, show a very similar structure as in English. Many medical and academic terms follow this model. For e.g.– ‘narcissism’, ‘dogmatism’, ‘magnetism’.
  2. Romance origins– Words that come from Latin origin and whose structural composition is repetitive in English, Spanish and French. For e.g. the word ‘im–possible’, is the same in all three languages and only differ slightly in spelling.
  3. Germanic origins– This is the main origin of the English language upon which most English words are based. For e.g., word ‘skapiz’ means ‘ship’. It is used as a suffix in modern English in complex words such as ‘relation–ship’, ‘fellow–ship’, ‘friend–ship’ etc. This

structure is the same in English as it is in Norse, Dutch, High German and Old Saxon.

4. Vernacular words– words with mixed native principles of Latin, French and Greek.
5. Hybrid words– The combination of every origin in one same word or two different origins that keep the same structure in English like ‘un’– words (Vernacular), ‘cre’–words (Latin). The complex word ‘un–cre–ative’ is a vernacular/Latin hybrid.

### 6.3.3. Blending :

Blending is combination of two or more words to create a new one, usually by taking the beginning of one word and the end of another word. for e.g. ‘telecast’ is formed from television + broadcast. Taking ‘tele’, the beginning of the first word and ‘cast’, the ending of the second one.

- In other words a blended word is one formed from parts of two or more other words. These parts are called morphemes (the smallest grammatical unit in a language). The basic difference between a full word and a morpheme is that the morpheme(as the smallest unit) may or may not stand alone. When a morpheme stands by itself, it is considered a root because it has a meaning of its own. For e.g. the word ‘cat’ is one morpheme which can stand on its own but ‘cats’ is two morphemes, ‘cat’ and ‘s’; where ‘s’ cannot stand on its own.
- Some other examples of blending are :  
 brunch = breakfast + lunch  
 smog = smoke + fog  
 Infotainment = information + entertainment  
 sitcom = situation + comedy  
 transistor = transfer + resistor  
 motel = motor + hotel

### 6.3.4 Conversion :

This is also called zero derivation. Conversion is a kind of word formation, which involves the creation of a word(of a new word class/ grammatical category) from an existing word (of a different word class), without any change in the form. For E.g. :

#### Verb derived from Noun :

1. *Butter* the bread. ( butter is a noun used as a verb)
2. *Ship* the package.
3. *Button* the shirt.

#### Noun derived from Verb :

1. a building *permit*. (permit is a verb used as a noun)
2. a new *survey*.
3. a long *walk*.

**Verb derived from Adjective :**

1. *Dirty* a shirt. (dirty is an adjective used as a verb)
2. *Empty* the box.
3. *Dry* the clothes.

**Verb derived from Preposition :**

1. to *down* the beer. (down is a preposition used as a verb)
2. to *up* the price.

**6.3.5 Acronym :**

This method involves formation of a word as an abbreviation from the initial components of a word. For e.g. SCUBA is formed from Self Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus, LASER is formed from Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation.

In English and most other languages, such abbreviations historically had limited use but they became much more common in 20th century.

Acronym use has been popularized by text messages on mobile phones with Short Message Systems (SMS). E.g. 'LOL' for laughing out loud, 'DP' for display picture and many more.

**6.3.6 Initialism :**

Initialisms are also formed using initial components of a word. The only difference between Initialism and Acronym is initialisms are pronounced as sequence of letters. For e.g. : ELT– English Language Training.

USA– United States of America.

**6.3.7 Clipping :**

This is a method of word formation which involves shortening of a poly syllabic word. It involves various subtypes like back clipping, fore clipping, middle and complex clipping. For e.g., Facsimile – 'fax'

fanatic – 'fan'

cellular – 'cell'

examination– 'exam'

laboratory – 'lab'

gymnasium – 'gym'

influenza– 'flu'

**6.3.8 Onomatopoeia :**

This is a special type of word that depicts the sound associated with what is named. For e.g., hiss, sizzle, bang, hush, tictac.

**6.3.9 Coinage :**

This word formation process involves inventing entirely new words. This method is also known as **Neologism**, (neo means 'new' and logos means 'speech'). Words here are created from scratch. This process is common in cases where the upcoming industries look for a new and

attractive name of a product. For eg. Robotics, Xerox, nylon, Teflon, blog, internet and many more.

### 6.3.10 Eponym :

New words based on a person, place or a thing. For e.g. ‘Volt’ comes from the name of Alessandro Volta, Italian, ‘Watt’ comes from James Watt, Scot scientist, ‘boycott’ comes from the name of Charles Boycott, Irish, ‘Fahrenheit’ comes from a German scientist named Gabriel Fahrenheit.

### 6.3.11 Borrowing :

This is the process of borrowing words from foreign languages. As we have seen earlier examples of German and Latin roots, English language has also been borrowing words from many languages. Most of the borrowed words are nouns and only some of them are verbs or adjectives. To give a few examples :

Words borrowed from Latin : interim, agenda, memorandum, p.m., a.m.

Words borrowed from Greek : pneumonia, panorama, psychology

Words borrowed from French : bureau, cafe, chef, chauffeur, restaurant

Words borrowed from Sanskrit : nirvana, chakra, moksha, mahatma

Words borrowed from Hindi : pundit, verandah, cheetah, avatar

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## 6.4 LET US SUM UP

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As we have seen, there are many ways of word formation. So finally, if we take a look around, we will see a mass of new words brought to us both consciously by language trends and unconsciously by language change over a period of time. Language changes constantly and who knows if people will understand the language we are using now in a few decades.

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## 6.5 KEY WORDS

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1. **Linguistics** : Scientific study of language that involves an analysis of language form, language meaning and language in context.
2. **Morphology** : Study of words, how they are formed and their relationship to the other words in the same language.
3. **Affixes** : Adding prefix and/or suffix to a base word.
4. **Derivational affixes** : Affix added to a base which produces a new word. for e.g ‘un’ added to ‘fair’ = ‘unfair’.
5. **Inflectional affixes** : Affix added to a base which changes only the grammatical category of the word and not meaning. For e.g. ‘s’ added to ‘read’ becomes ‘reads’.
6. **Morphemes** : Smallest unit of language that carries information about the meaning or function. For E.g. ‘teacher’ has two morphemes, ‘teach’ and ‘er’ which indicates that the entire word functions as a noun with the meaning of ‘one who teaches’.



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## 6.6 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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### Dictionaries for Reference

1. *Oxford English Language Reference* (2015)
2. *Blackfoot Dictionary of Stems, Roots and Affixes* by Donald Frantz and Norma Jean, 3rd Edition(2017).
3. *Ologies and Isms : A Dictionary of Word Beginnings and Endings*. Oxford Quick Reference. (2005)

### Suggested Reading :

1. Raymond Murphy : *Essential English Grammar*, 2nd Edition, Cambridge University Press.
2. James Mitchell : *Significant Etymology : or Roots, Stems and Branches of English Language*.
3. Albert Baugh and Thomas Cable : *A History of English Language*. (2013)

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## 6.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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### 1. SUBJECTIVE QUESTIONS.

What is Word Formation and explain its process. **(Long Answer)**

### 2. WRITE SHORT NOTES.

- (a) Simple, Compound and Complex words.
- (b) Derivation and Blending.

### 3. ANSWER THE FOLLOWING IN BRIEF.

- (a) Explain the meaning of a 'word'.
- (b) Discuss the concepts of root and stem with examples.
- (c) Explain the difference between Derivation and Inflection.
- (d) Explain the difference between Acronym and Initialism.
- (e) What is Eponym ? Explain finding new examples.
- (f) Why is Conversion known as Zero derivation ?

### 4. ANSWER IN ONE OR TWO SENTENCES.

- (a) What is Morpheme ?

.....  
.....  
.....

- (b) What is Borrowing ?

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.....  
.....

(c) What is Clipping ?

.....

.....

.....

(d) Which method is known as Neologism ? Why ?

.....

.....

.....

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

#### FORM COMPOUND WORDS FROM THE GIVEN WORDS.

1. book \_\_\_\_\_ 2. bath \_\_\_\_\_ 3. dish \_\_\_\_\_ 4. match \_\_\_\_\_
5. wheel \_\_\_\_\_ 6. girl \_\_\_\_\_ 7. motor \_\_\_\_\_ 8. grand \_\_\_\_\_.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

#### CONVERT THE GIVEN NOUNS INTO ADJECTIVES.

1. liberty \_\_\_\_\_ 2. honesty \_\_\_\_\_ 3. ability \_\_\_\_\_ 4. friend \_\_\_\_\_
5. intelligence \_\_\_\_\_ 6. science \_\_\_\_\_
7. stability \_\_\_\_\_.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

#### CONVERT THE GIVEN VERBS INTO NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

1. depress (n) \_\_\_\_\_ (adj) \_\_\_\_\_
2. complete (n) \_\_\_\_\_ (adj) \_\_\_\_\_
3. help (n) \_\_\_\_\_ (adj) \_\_\_\_\_
4. astonish (n) \_\_\_\_\_ (adj) \_\_\_\_\_
5. collect (n) \_\_\_\_\_ (adj) \_\_\_\_\_
6. dramatize (n) \_\_\_\_\_ (adj) \_\_\_\_\_

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

#### SELECT THE APPROPRIATE OPTION.

1. We have known each other since our \_\_\_\_\_.  
(a) childhood (b) childish (c) childlike
2. He is a fool. He often talks \_\_\_\_\_.  
(a) sense (b) sensible (c) nonsense
3. The minister wants to \_\_\_\_\_ the capital.  
(a) beautify (b) beautiful (c) beauty
4. Parents should not \_\_\_\_\_ their children's' mistakes.  
(a) look (b) overlook (c) lookover

## CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 5

USE THE BASE WORD GIVEN IN THE BRACKET TO FORM A NEW WORD THAT FITS IN THE BLANK. THE REQUIRED WORD MAY BE A NOUN, ADVERB, VERB OR ADJECTIVE OR EVEN NEGATIVE. FIRST ONE IS DONE FOR YOU.

1. After losing her job, she was unemployed for a month. (employ)
2. I went on a diet that \_\_\_\_\_ only fresh fruits and vegetable soups. (corporate)
3. Her arguments are so \_\_\_\_\_ that it is not possible to have a discussion with her. (logical)
4. He simply \_\_\_\_\_ and nobody knew where he had gone. (appear)
5. The result was very strange. It was simply \_\_\_\_\_. (believe)

### ANSWERS

#### Check your Progress 1

1. bookstall. (bookmark, bookstand etc. are also possible)
2. bathtub
3. dishwasher
4. matchstick
5. wheelchair
6. girlfriend
7. motorcycle
8. grandfather.

#### Check Your Progress 2

1. liberating
2. honest
3. able
4. friendly
5. intelligent
6. scientific
7. stable

#### Check Your Progress 3

1. (n) depression, (adj) depressing
2. (n) completion, (adj) complete
3. (n) help, (adj) helpful
4. (n) astonishment, (adj) astonishing
5. (n) collection, (adj) collectable
6. (n) drama, (adj) dramatic

#### Check Your Progress 4

1. (a) childhood
2. (c) nonsense
3. (a) beautify
4. (b) overlook

#### Check Your Progress 5

2. incorporated
3. illogical
4. disappeared
5. unbelievable.

♦♦♦♦♦

## Introduction to English language and structure



## Message for the Students

Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University is the only state Open University, established by the Government of Gujarat by the Act No. 14 of 1994 passed by the Gujarat State Legislature; in the memory of the creator of Indian Constitution and Bharat Ratna Dr. Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar. We stand at the seventh position in terms of establishment of the Open Universities in the country. The University provides as many as 54 courses including various Certificates, Diplomas, UG, PG, as well as Doctoral degree, to strengthen Higher Education across the state.



On the occasion of the birth anniversary of Babasaheb Ambedkar, the Gujarat government secured a quiet place with the latest convenience for University, and erected a building with all the modern amenities named 'Jyotirmay' Parisar. The Board of Management of the University has greatly contributed to the making of the University and will continue to this by all the means.

Education is the perceived capital investment. Education can contribute more to improving the quality of the people. Here I remember the educational philosophy laid down by Shri. Swami Vivekananda:

*"We want the education by which, the character is formed, strength of mind is increased, the intellect is expand and by which one can stand on one's own feet".*

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Prof. (Dr.) Ami Upadhyay  
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**F.Y.B.A**

**ENGM102**

**INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH  
LANGUAGE AND STRUCTURE**

**Block**

# 2

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**Unit 7**

Grammatical Categories and Word Classes	01
---	----

---

**Unit 8**

Lexical Semantics	11
-------------------	----

---

**Unit 9**

Phrasal Structure and Verb Complementation	21
--	----

---

**Unit 10**

Adverbials and Auxiliaries	40
----------------------------	----

---

**Unit 11**

Finite-Non Finite Clauses	51
---------------------------	----

---

**Unit 12**

The Structure of English Sentence and types of English Sentence	61
---	----

---

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**7.0 Objectives****7.1 Introduction****7.2 Grammatical Categories****7.2.1 Number, Gender, Person, Case, Definiteness, Degree****7.2.2 Tense, Aspect, Mood, Voice****7.3 Word Classes****7.4 Key Words****7.5 Let Us Sum Up****7.6 Check Your Progress****7.7 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**7.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- discuss various grammatical categories,
- look at how various categories function,
- consider examples from a few other languages as example.

On completing the unit, you should be able to;

- understand different categories of grammar, and
  - differentiate between different categories of grammar.
- 

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**7.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Words can be classified by various criteria, such as phonological properties (e.g., monosyllabic vs. Polysyllabic words), social factors (e.g., general vs. technical vocabulary), and language history (e.g. Loanwords vs. native words). All of these are classes of words, but as a technical term, word class refers to the ten traditional categories below (plus perhaps a few others), most of which go back to the Greek and Roman grammarians. In addition to the terms, a few examples are given of each word class.

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**7.2 GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES**

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Grammatical categories are related to grammatical paradigm associated with words. In a word like 'write', we can attach grammatical categories to indicate different meanings. For example, writes, wrote, written, writing. The basic meaning of the word which is associated with the word 'write' remains common in all these four words but each of these words takes on a different meaning associated with its grammatical category. 'Writes' is



associated with singular in the present form and 'wrote' with the past form. Though all are forms of the same 'lexical' word and have the same core or basic meaning, yet they all have properties which distinguish one from the other and specifically allow them to be used in certain situations only. For example, when we look at 'written', which is in the past participle form of the word, it can be used only when it is preceded with a form of 'have'. Similarly, 'writing' can be used only when it is preceded by a form of 'be'. If you wish to interchange, it would not be possible to do so (\*I have writing a letter to my brother.) and would lead you to say...Oh ! It's incorrect !

A grammatical category is a linguistic category, not a real world category. But there is a relationship between a grammatical category and a linguistic category.

These grammatical categories are usually expressed through inflections on the word. For example, to express number we do not need a separate word but we inflect the linguistic word with a plural marker '-s/-es'. So we do not say \*many child is playing with several dog. Instead, we say 'children are playing with dogs'. Similarly to indicate time, we inflect the word 'playing'.

Often, these grammatical categories are universal and they are inflected universally on the same grammatical and linguistic categories. To indicate time, we usually inflect the verb and not the noun. It is so in English and it is so in several Indian languages too. So past is inflected on 'go' as 'went', and in Hindi too 'ja' becomes 'gaya'. But the noun is not used to indicate past time. What do you think ? Can you give an example where past is inflected on a noun or an adjective ?

There are several grammatical categories which get associated with words belonging to different parts of speech. Number, Gender, Person, Degree, Case, Definiteness, Tense, Aspect, Mood, Voice are such grammatical categories which we will now look at in detail.

Number, gender or noun class, and definiteness are inherently inflected on nouns and case is relational on noun classes of words. Let us first begin with Number.

### **7.2.1 Number :**

The grammatical category of number is associated with nouns and pronouns. We indicate the concept of singular and plural, which is an expression of number. Some languages have only the classes of singular (one) and plural (more than one) like English but a few other languages (like Sanskrit) have three categories expressing number, singular, dual (two) and plural expressed as *vacanso* we have *ekvacan*, *dvivacan* and *bahuvacan* in Sanskrit.

In English, the category of number is expressed in Nouns using a plural marker '-s/-es'. Its absence indicates singular. For example, girls, tables, fans, roses, boxes and cages. All these words indicate plural as they have the plural marker. The singular, without the plural form for these words are girl, table, fan, rose, box and cage, respectively.

In pronouns, the distinction is quite elaborate and we have plural forms and singular forms for all kinds of pronouns. Personal (he, she, they), Demonstrative (this, that, these, those), Indefinite (none, several, one), Possessive (ours, mine), and reflexive (yourself, yourselves) pronouns all reflect the grammatical distinction of number with a singular and a plural form.

### **Gender :**

Gender is another category which is related to and inflected on nouns. There are two kinds of gender; one is natural gender, that one which one is born with. This is normally either masculine or feminine or neuter. For example, a boy is masculine, a girl is feminine and a moon is neither masculine nor feminine, and it is neutral gender. There is another gender which is grammatically determined. There can be three genders in grammar (dependent on the language) which may have nothing to do with natural gender. Moon is considered masculine in several languages and so are several animals.

In English there are three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter. You can experience the working of gender when you replace a noun with a pronoun in its subsequent reference. For example, Viral is going to Delhi tonight. He /she is going by train. In English there is no indication from the sentence or the word whether it is a masculine noun or feminine or neuter.

But it is not necessarily so in other languages. In Hindi, there are indications in the sentence regarding the gender of a particular word. *Chaand dikh gaya hai* and *chaandani khil rahi hai*. The impact of the gender is on the verb. Here the word itself has no indication as to the gender of the word. Additionally, in Spanish for example, the sentence contains markers to indicate the gender of the word. Even the word has indication of its gender. Look at the examples given by Ling; el libro ‘the book’, el chico ‘the boy’ (both masculine) and la revista ‘the magazine’, la chica ‘the girl’ (both feminine). Hence different languages have different rules and indicators for gender but the common feature across all languages is that gender is indicated on the noun.

### **Person :**

Almost all languages have indication related to person. It is a way of referring to someone taking part in an event like a character. The person who is talking (the first person), the person being talked to (the second person), and the person being talked about (the third person). English has three persons where ‘I, we’ are the first person, ‘you’ the second person and he, she, it and they in the third person. In Hindi too, main, hum are in the first person, *tum, aap (sab)* are indicators of the second person and *voh, yeh (sab)* show the third person.

Person is normally indicated by the pronouns and does not impact the noun otherwise, at least in English. Person impacts the verb though. ‘I come’, ‘he comes’, they come’. ‘*Main aaya*’, ‘*woh aaye*’, ‘*tum aaye*’, etc. In French too the two second person pronouns, ‘tu’ and ‘vous’ impact the verbs in all the tense forms. How is it in your mother tongue ? Is the person indicated in pronoun ? And does it impact the verb in any way ?

### Case :

Case is a grammatical category which largely impacted the language. Almost all the earlier languages were analytic languages having a large bearing upon case structure. Have you studied Sanskrit ? In Sanskrit, there are eight cases like, nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, etc. It is different from your mother tongue ?

Case is a special grammatical category which though inflections show the function a word (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, determiners) performs in a sentence. Several languages in the olden day had case but in many of them the cases gradually merged and in some they disappeared largely.

Some languages have rich case systems. German has four cases Nominative, Accusative, Dative, Genitive. According to Ling, in the sentence '*Der Mann kaufte dem Vater des Jungen den Computer*'. (The man bought the boy's father the computer) the cases are indicated as :

*Der Mann kaufte* NOM man bought

*Dem Vater* DAT father

*Des Jungen* GEN boy

*Den Computer* ACC computer

In old English, there were elaborate cases in almost all the categories of words but they gradually disappeared with time. Today, English retains only a few cases in pronouns. They are simplified forms of nominative case, accusative and genitive. The subjective form (I, you, he, she, It, we, they), the objective form (me, your, him, her, us, them) and possessive form (my, mine, your, yours, his, her, our, ours, their).

Give two more examples of workings of gender using your mother tongue

.....  
.....  
.....

### Definiteness :

It is a semantic feature of the noun phrase which helps identification of the noun as either definite or specific and as indefinite or general. In several languages, there are inflectional markers

It is often apparent through the use of determiner used along with the head noun word in English. Determiners or articles such as a, an, many, some mark the noun as indefinite whereas determiners like the, both, every mark the noun as definite.

We need a chair here. (a general chair, any chair)

We need the chair which is cushioned. (a specific, particular chair which is cushioned)

Can you add two more sets of sentences to show the difference between determiners' use.

.....

.....

.....

### Degree :

Degree as a grammatical category is related to comparison when applied to adjectives and adverbs. It is demonstrated either as a suffix inflected upon the word or as an additional word showing comparison.

In English, there are three degrees of comparison in adjectives; positive (short, long, clever, beautiful) comparative (shorter, longer, more clever, more beautiful) and superlative (shortest, longest, most clever, most beautiful). As you can see here, one and two syllable words like short and long are inflected by a suffix marker '–er' in the comparative form and '–est' in the superlative form. In words with more than two syllables, there are additional marker words to indicate comparative (more) and superlative (most).

Same is applicable in the case of adverbs; soon, sooner and soonest, carefully, more carefully and most carefully.

Give examples of degree in your language using adjectives and adverbs

.....

.....

.....

So far we were looking at grammatical aspects related to noun phrases. Now we will look at the grammatical aspects associated with verb phrases. There are three grammatical aspects related to verb; tense, mood and voice. We will now look at each in some detail.

### 7.2.2. Tense :

Verbs which show action are carriers of several aspects of grammatical categories. The first, tense is related to the indication of time.

In Hindi, there are three tenses related to present, past and future. For example, to talk about go we have *ja* (present), *gaya* (past) and *jayega* (future).

How many tenses are there in English ? Look at the following sentences and write appropriately in the columns provided against each sentence

	Sentence	Time indicated	Tense
1.	He goes to college by bus.		
2.	He went to college by bus yesterday.		
3.	He will go to college by bus tomorrow.		

In English, there are two broad tenses, Present and Past which are used to indicate three time frames of present, past and future. These two tenses convey variety of meanings related to movement of time from single moment to a movement in two moments. In the sentences given above, 1, indicates present time indicated by simple present tense. In sentence 2, the time indicated is past and is expressed using simple past tense. In the third sentence however, the time indicated is future (tomorrow) but the tense used is simple present (same as in sentence no. 1).

The verb 'to be' has different forms in different tenses; is/am/are in the present and was/were in the past. 'to do' too has forms like, 'do/does' (present) and 'did' (past). Similarly other verbs too exhibit such forms like, writes, wrote, eats, ate, etc. indicating time in the present or past and hence, the corresponding tense.

### **Aspect :**

This too is a property of verbs and is also related to time structure of an activity or state of being or action. There are three aspects of verbs; simple, continuous and perfect. Here, perfect expresses an action that is complete, continuous an action that is going on and simple has no time structure.

The verb 'to be' can be expressed as is/am/are in the simple aspect, as 'being' in the continuous aspect and as 'been' in the perfect aspect. Other verbs too exhibit these three aspects; writes, writing, written, eats, eating and eaten in simple, continuous and perfect aspects respectively.

Look at the following sentences :

1. She eats an apple.	Tense Present	Aspect Simple
2. She ate an apple.	Tense Past	Aspect Simple
3. She is eating an apple.	Tense Present	Aspect Continuous
4. She was eating an apple.	Tense Past	Aspect Continuous
5. She has eaten an apple.	Tense Present	Aspect Perfect
6. She had eaten an apple before she ate banana.	Tense Past	Aspect Perfect

Continuous aspect indicates an action that is in progress and hence it is also called 'progressive' aspect. Perfect tense indicates an action taking place in one time frame with reference to another time frame. In sentence 6 for example, eating of an apple happened in a time frame which took place before the time of eating banana.

### **Mood :**

Mood reflects the speaker's attitude towards a subject. It may be possible, wished or demanded. Accordingly, the mood can be indicative, interrogative, imperative or subjunctive. The indicative mood is used to express factual or neutral situation as in 'Children are playing in the garden', where some information is conveyed. In interrogative mood, a question is asked as in 'where are you going ?' interrogative can take a yes/no form as well as a 'wh' form.

The imperative mood expresses commands and requests like in ‘Shut the door’, where the speaker expresses a wish and demands an action on that basis. The third and the last mood is subjunctive expressing doubt, possibility, necessity or desire. In English this has limited use and is usually expressed through the use of modal auxiliaries. Look at the following sentences and identify how the meaning changes with change in the modal auxiliary.

They **can** leave now.

They **may** leave now.

They **must** leave now.

They **need to** leave now.

They **have to** leave now.

### **Voice :**

Voice is the quality of verb that indicates whether its subject acts or is acted upon; that is whether it is the subject of the sentence or is it the object. There are two kinds of voice in English; Active and Passive Voice. In active voice, subject is the doer of the action where as in Passive voice subject of the sentence is acted upon. Example,

Tom chased Jerry. (**Active voice**; Tom is the subject and performs the action)

Jerry was chased by Tom. (**Passive voice**; the action of chasing is performed on Jerry, who is the subject of this sentence)

In Passive voice, the doer of the action actually becomes the agent of the action introduced by the word ‘by’. This voice also changes the emphasis of the sentence; shifting the focus on the object of action from the subject of action.

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## **7.3 DETERMINING WORD CLASSES**

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Each language has several categories in which words are classified. In English too we broadly classify eight classes of words viz., parts of speech. At the end of this unit, we expect the students to understand the eight broad classes of words and also learn various sub aspects of realising and associations of these word classes.

1. Nouns (name of a person, place or thing)
2. Pronouns (words that replace nouns subsequently)
3. Adjectives (words that qualify or describe a noun)
4. Verbs (that express action)
5. Adverbs (words that qualify or describe a verb)
6. Prepositions (which show relation or place of words with respect to one another)
7. Conjunctions (linking or joining words, connectors)
8. Interjections (express emotions or feelings)

Look at the following sentences

1. Riyana is going to a music class now.
2. She has given the book to Yatharth.
3. Ritvik has a large collection of fancy rackets and unique shuttles.
4. He came home late last night.
5. Awesome ! Bharat has done a wonderful deed !

NOUN	PRO- NOUN	ADJECTIVE	VERB	ADVERB	PRE- POSITION	CONJUN- CTION	INTER- JECTION

On basis of the definitions given above of the word classes and identify words in this set which belong to various parts of speech. List them under each class.

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#### 7.4 KEYWORDS

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- **Singular** : denoting or referring to just one person
- **Degree** : is one of the three forms used in the comparison of adjectives and adverbs
- **Tense** : Simple, continuous and perfect Aspect
- **Active** : a form of verb in which the subject is typically the person or thing performing the action and which can take direct object

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#### 7.5 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we have;

- discussed various grammatical categories,
- looked at how various categories function,
- considered examples from a few other languages as example,
- understood different categories of grammar and
- differentiated between different categories of grammar.

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#### 7.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

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##### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

1. **FROM YOUR READING OF THE UNIT, GIVE YOUR OWN EXAMPLES (AT LEAST TWO) FROM WHAT YOU HAVE UNDERSTOOD OF THE FOLLOWING.**
  - a. genitive case in nouns
  - b. passive voice in verbs
  - c. definiteness in nouns
  - d. present tense in verbs

- e. gender in nouns
- f. modal auxiliaries in verbs

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

2. **IDENTIFY AND UNDERLINE THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY MENTIONED IN COLUMN A IN THE CORRESPONDING SENTENCE GIVEN IN COLUMN B. (AN EXAMPLE IS GIVEN).**

	Column A	Column B
a.	aspect	He <u>has forgotten</u> her birthday.
b.	mood	The teacher recommended that the exercise be rewritten.
c.	gender	The audience gave the violinist a standing ovation.
d.	definiteness	Harzog had a unique experience on climbing the mountain.
e.	mood	You can postpone the date, if possible.
f.	gender	Parveen said she has a big diamond necklace.
g.	aspect	It has been raining since morning.
h.	tense	Rajul has seen the movie already.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

3. **IDENTIFY THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY EXEMPLIFIED BY THE UNDERLINED WORD AND EXPLAIN ITS MEANING. (ONE IS DONE FOR YOU AS AN EXAMPLE).**

	Sentence	category	implication
a.	The party's decoration was impressive.	case	
b.	My children love chocolate ice cream.	tense	Present tense and habit
c.	We have argued since we were children.	aspect	
d.	My parents are coming next weekend.	tense	
e.	I wonder where the remote control is.	definiteness	
f.	They are practicing singing.	number	
g.	One who tries, succeeds.	gender	
h.	The rat was chased by a cat.	voice	
i.	All's well that ends well.	tense	
j.	You should answer his calls.	case	
k.	She gave me her dress to wear in the party.	person	

### 7.7 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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### ANSWERS

#### Check Your Progress 2

	Column A	Column B
a.	aspect	He <u>has forgotten</u> her birthday.
b.	mood	The teacher <u>recommended</u> that the exercise be rewritten.
c.	gender	The audience gave the violinist a standing ovation.
d.	definiteness	Harzog had <u>a unique experience</u> on climbing the mountain.
e.	mood	You <u>can postpone</u> the date, if possible.
f.	gender	Parveen said <u>she</u> has a big diamond necklace.
g.	aspect	It <u>has been raining</u> since morning.
h.	tense	Rajul <u>has seen</u> the movie already.

#### Check Your Progress 3

	Sentence	category	implication
a.	The party's decoration was impressive.	case	Genitive case
b.	My children love chocolate ice cream.	tense	Present tense and habit
c.	We have argued since we were children.	aspect	Perfect aspect
d.	My parents are coming next weekend.	tense	
e.	I wonder where the remote control is.	definiteness	
f.	They are practicing singing.	number	
g.	One who tries, succeeds.	gender	
h.	The rat was chased by a cat.	voice	
i.	All's well that ends well.	tense	
j.	You should answer his calls.	case	
k.	She gave me her dress to wear in the party.	person	

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**8.0 Objectives****8.1 Introduction****8.2 Lexical Relations : how meanings relate to each other****8.3 Hyponymy and Hypernymy****8.4 Synonymy****8.5 Antonymy****8.6 Homonym****8.7 Extension of Meaning****8.8 Demonstrating semantic knowledge****8.9 Let Us Sum Up****8.10 Check Your Progress****8.11 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**8.0 OBJECTIVES**

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This unit discusses the definition and explanation of “Lexical Semantics”, and :

- (a) how meaning is important for the understanding or sense of a word and a sentence,
  - (b) why it is useful for anyone to use it for creating a new meaning,
  - (c) what the different types of meanings are,
  - (d) how to use and utilize them for our purpose of better communication and expression.
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**8.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Semantics is an allied field of linguistics. It is the study of meaning. The study of meaning can be at the level of words, phrases or sentences. “Lexical semantics” (also known as “Lexico-semantics”) is a subfield of linguistic semantics. The units of analysis in lexical semantics are lexical units which include not only words but also sub-words or sub-units such as affixes and even compound words and phrases. Lexical units make up the catalogue of words in a language, the lexicon. “Lexical semantics” looks at how the meaning of the lexical units correlates with the structure of the language and syntax. This is referred to as syntax-semantic

The study of lexical semantics looks at :

- (a) the classification and decomposition of lexical items

- (b) the differences and similarities in lexical semantic structure cross-linguistically
- (c) the relationship of lexical meaning to sentence meaning and syntax
- (d) Lexical units, also referred to as syntactic atoms, can stand alone such as in the case of root words or parts of compound words or they necessarily attach to other units such as prefixes and suffixes do. The former is called free morphemes and the latter bound morphemes. They fall into a narrow range of meanings (semantic fields) and can combine with each other to generate new meanings.

“Lexical semantics” is the study of the meanings of words. As well as the simple meaning of a lexical unit, lexical semantics studies how a word represents the meaning it conveys. In this sense, it studies the word's existence as a whole. While grammar is picked up as a child, an individual can expand his or her lexicography throughout his or her life. A lexical unit is a single word or run of words that creates the most basic level of a language's lexicon or vocabulary. The study of these units is called lexicology. Examination of lexical units moves beyond the meanings, as seen in lexical semantics, and moves on to structures and sub-structures of words. The study of the origin of lexical units and vocabulary in general is called etymology. These studies are distinct from lexical semantics, which concentrates on meanings alone.

Base lexical units do not take into account more complex word compounds. Two lexical units, sometimes more, can combine to form a compound with a new meaning. Sometimes this meaning is linked to both words, but other times it is metaphor. Each compound is considered one unit in lexical semantics because it provides a different meaning.

A run of lexical units that combines to provide an overall meaning is called a lexical chain. Lexical chains ignore the grammar functions of a sentence and, in fact, remove them to leave only the words that provide meaning. By removing the function words, or vocabulary, the information words can be strung together in a chain.

Classification is the process by which words are separated from one another. These classifications are usually by meaning or function. Once classified into broad categories, words are then sub-divided within the category. Of course, there are many words with multiple meanings, known as polysemy, which may fall into more than one category.

Words may also decompose. Word decomposition is the phenomenon where words lose their original meaning over time. This is a separate element of lexical semantics compared to classification, because the old word meanings have now become relics or fossils. Rather than morphing into a new meaning, true word decomposition occurs when the word has lost its recognizable meaning, such as in the case of Old English words such as “ascylfan,” meaning “to destroy”. Others are half-decomposed like an atomic half-life so people understand the meaning of “disheveled” and “ruthless,” but do not know the meaning of “sheveled” and “ruth.”

The study of lexical semantics also broadens out from the study of a single language. It is also an element of comparative and contrastive linguistics. In this sense, lexical semantics compares and contrasts the meanings of identical words between languages. There are multiple instances of words crossing languages, but having the meanings altered, and there are also instances of words forming from different origins that look on the surface to be the same, but have totally different meanings

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## 8.2 LEXICAL RELATIONS : HOW MEANINGS RELATE TO EACH OTHER

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Lexical items contain information about category (lexical and syntactic), form and meaning. The semantics related to these categories then relate to each lexical item in the lexicon. Lexical items can also be semantically classified based on whether their meanings are derived from single lexical units or from their surrounding environment. Lexical items participate in regular patterns of association with each other. Some relations between lexical items include hyponymy, hypernymy, synonymy, and antonymy, as well as homonymy.

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### 8.3 HYPONYMY AND HYPERNYMY

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Hyponymy and hypernymy refers to a relationship between a general term and the more specific terms that fall under the category of the general term. For example, the colors **red**, **green**, **blue** and **yellow** are **hyponyms**. They fall under the general term which is the hypernym.

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### 8.4 SYNONYMY

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Synonymy refers to words that are pronounced and spelled differently but contain the same meaning, for example, **Happy**, **joyful**, **glad**

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### 8.5 ANTONYMY

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Antonymy refers to words that are related by having the opposite meanings to each other. There are three types of antonyms : graded antonyms, complementary antonym, and relational antonyms, for example, **dead**, **alive**, **long**, **short**

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### 8.6 HOMONYM

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Homonymy refers to the relationship between words that are spelled or pronounced the same way but hold different meanings, for example, **bank (of river)** **bank (financial institution)**

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### 8.7 EXTENSION OF MEANING

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We are all necessarily interested in meaning. We wonder about the meaning of a new word. Sometimes we are not sure about the message we should get from something we read or hear, and we are concerned about getting our own messages across to others. We find pleasure in jokes, which

often depend for their humor on double meanings of words or ambiguities in sentences.

Commercial organizations spend a lot of effort and money on naming products, devising slogans, and creating messages that will be meaningful to the buying public. Legal scholars argue about the interpretation—that is, the meaning—of a law or a judicial decision. Literary scholars quarrel similarly over the meaning of some poem or story.

Three disciplines are concerned with the systematic study of ‘meaning’ in itself : psychology, philosophy and linguistics. Their particular interests and approaches are different, yet each borrows from and contributes to the others. Psychologists are interested in how individual humans learn, how they retain, recall, or lose information; how they classify, make judgements and solve problems—in other words, how the human mind seeks meanings and works with them.

Philosophers of language are concerned with how we know, how any particular fact that we know or accept as true is related to other possible facts—what must be antecedent to that fact and what is a likely consequence, or entailment of it; what statements are mutually contradictory, which sentences express the same meaning in different words, and which are unrelated.

Linguists want to understand how language works. Just what common knowledge do two people possess when they share a language— English, Swahili, Korean or whatever—that makes it possible for them to give and get information, to express their feelings and their intentions to one another, and to be understood with a fair degree of success ? Linguistics is concerned with identifying the meaningful elements of specific languages, for example, English words like “paint” and “happy” and affixes like the “-er” of “painter” and the “un-” of “unhappy”. It is concerned with describing how such elements go together to express more complex meanings—in phrases like “the unhappy painter” and sentences like “The painter is unhappy”—and telling how these are related to each other.

Linguistics also deals with the meanings expressed by modulations of a speaker's voice and the processes by which hearers and readers relate new information to the information they already have. Semantics is the systematic study of meaning, and linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings. Linguistic semantics is the topic, but we need to limit ourselves to the expression of meanings in a single language, English. Here, we make comparisons with other languages, but these are meant to be illustrative of language differences, not full accounts of what differences exist.

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## **8.8 DEMONSTRATING SEMANTIC KNOWLEDGE**

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How can we explain the speaker's knowledge of meanings ? Certainly, we cannot expect that speakers can clearly define all the words they know. If that were our criterion, we should also expect speakers to be able to explain the meaning of every utterance they will ever produce or comprehend, which is, for all practical purposes, an infinite number. But the obvious thing

is that speakers can make their thoughts and feelings and intentions known to other speakers of the language and can understand what others say. This ability requires possession of a vocabulary and for speakers to know how to pronounce every item in this vocabulary and how to recognize its pronunciation by other speakers. They know how to use the production vocabulary in meaningful sentences and to understand the sentences produced by others. And, of course, they know meanings—how to choose the items that express what they want to express and how to find the meanings in what other people say. If it is hard to say what meaning is, it is fairly easy to show what knowledge speakers have about meanings in their language and therefore what things must be included in an account of semantics. The next ten paragraphs demonstrate ten aspects of any speaker's semantic knowledge.

1. Speakers know, in a general way, whether something is or is not meaningful in their language. For example, speakers of English can tell which of the following are meaningful in English.

- 1a. Henry drew a picture.
- 1b. Haresh laughed.
- 1c. The picture laughed.
- 1d. Picture a Haresh drew.

It is certainly not too much to assume that 1a and 1b are meaningful to speakers of English, while 1c and 1d are anomalous (examples of anomaly). Sentence 1c has the appearance of being meaningful and it might attain meaning in some children's story or the like, while 1d is merely a sequence of words.

2. Speakers of a language generally agree as to when two sentences have essentially the same meaning and when they do not.

- 2a. Riya got home before Ramesh.
- 2b. Ramesh got home before Riya.
- 2c. Ramesh arrived at home after Riya.
- 2d. Riya got home later than Ramesh.

Sentences that make equivalent statements about the same entities, like 2a and 2c, or 2b and 2d, are paraphrases (of each other).

3. Speakers generally agree when two words have essentially the same meaning—in a given context. In each sentence below one word is underlined. Following the sentence is a group of words, one of which can replace the underlined word without changing the meaning of the sentence.

- 3a. Where did you purchase these tools ? (use, buy, release, modify, take)
- 3b. At the end of the street we saw two enormous statues, (pink, smooth, nice, huge, original)

Words that have the same sense in a given context are synonyms— they are instances of synonymy and are synonymous with each other.

4. Speakers recognize when the meaning of one sentence contradicts another sentence. The sentences below are all about the same person,

but two of them are related in such a way that if one is true the other must be false.

- 4a. Suresh is married.
- 4b. Suresh is fairly rich.
- 4c. Suresh is no longer young.
- 4d. Suresh is a bachelor.

Sentences that make opposite statements about the same subject are contradictory.

- 5. Speakers generally agree when two words have opposite meanings in a given context. For example, speakers are able to choose from the group of words following 5a and 5b the word which is contrary to the underlined word in each sentence.

- 5a. Bindu cut a thick slice of cake (bright new soft thin wet).
- 5b. The train departs at 12 : 25. (arrives leaves waits swerves).

Two words that make opposite statements about the same subject are antonyms; they are antonymous, instances of antonymy.

- 6. Synonyms and antonyms have to have some common element of meaning in order to be, respectively, the same or different. Words can have some element of meaning without being synonymous or antonymous. For example, we should all agree that in each of the following groups of words, 6a and 6b, all but one of the words have something in common. Which is the word that doesn't belong ?

- 6a. street lane road path house avenue
- 6b. buy take use steal acquire inherit

The common element of meaning, shared by all but one word in 6a and by all but one item in 6b, is a semantic feature.

- 7. Some sentences have double meanings; they can be interpreted in two ways. Speakers are aware of this fact because they appreciate jokes which depend on two-way interpretation, like the following.

- 7a. Meera doesn't care for her parakeet. (doesn't like it; doesn't take care of it)
- 7b. Meera took the sick parakeet to a small animal hospital. (small hospital for animals; hospital for small animals)

A sentence that has two meanings is ambiguous—an example of ambiguity.

- 8. Speakers know how language is used when people interact. If one person asks a question or makes a remark, there are various possible answers to the question or replies one might make to the remark. Thus, for the question in 8a some answers are suggested, of which all but one might be appropriate. Similarly, the statement in 8b is followed by several possible rejoinders, all but one of which could be appropriate.

- 8a. When did you last see my brother ? (Ten minutes ago. Last Tuesday. Very nice. Around noon. I think it was on the first of June.)

- 8b. There's a great new comedy at the Oldtown Playhouse. (So I've heard. What's it called ? When did it open ? So, do I. Are you sure it's a comedy ?)

When a question and an answer, or any two utterances, can go together in a conversation and the second is obviously related to the first, they constitute an adjacency pair. The ability to deal with adjacency pairs is part of any speaker's implicit knowledge.

9. Speakers are aware that two statements may be related in such a way that if one is true, the other must also be true.

9a. There are tulips in the garden.

9b. There are flowers in the garden.

9c. The ladder is too short to reach the roof.

9d. The ladder isn't long enough to reach the roof.

These pairs of sentences are examples of entailment. Assuming that 9a and 9b are about the same garden, the truth of 9a entails the truth of 9b, that is, if 9a is true, 9b must also be true. Likewise, assuming the same ladder and roof, the truth of 9c entails the truth of 9d.

10. Speakers know that the message conveyed in one sentence may presuppose other pieces of knowledge. For instance, if 10a is accepted as true, 10b–10e must also be accepted as true.

10a. Mahesh usually drives his Maruti car to work.

10b. There is a person named Mahesh.

10c. Mahesh works.

10d. There is a Maruti car that belongs to Mahesh.

10e. Mahesh knows how to drive a car.

The meaning of sentence 10a presupposes what is expressed in 10b, c, d and e. The latter are presuppositions of 10a. Note that a presupposition does not establish the truth of anything. Sentence 10a is meaningful as it is, but it is true only if there is a person named Mahesh, who works and owns a Maruti car, etc. The sentence is presented AS IF there is a person named Mahesh. (There probably is not since we created the sentence for demonstration, just as the writer of a child's arithmetic textbook turns out problems that begin “Kamal Singh has four apples...”)

These ten terms have been introduced to show the latent knowledge that people have about their language. We are not suggesting that the points illustrated make up a test that anyone can deal with successfully. People differ considerably, and circumstances differ considerably, so that the way individuals behave in a given situation is not necessarily an indication of what their deeper competence is. Personality factors, such as willingness to cooperate, memory, attention, recent experience, can greatly affect performance. We only want to indicate the general implicit knowledge that speakers have about meaning in their language.



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## 8.9 LET US SUM UP

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The study of meaning can be undertaken in various ways. Linguistic semantics is an attempt to explicate the knowledge of any speaker of a language which allows that speaker to communicate facts, feelings, intentions and products of the imagination to other speakers and to understand what they communicate to him or her. Language differs from the communication systems of other animals in being stimulus-free and creative. Early in life every human acquires the essentials of a language—a vocabulary and the pronunciation, use and meaning of each item in it. The speaker's knowledge is largely implicit. The linguist attempts to construct a grammar, an explicit description of the language, the categories of the language and the rules by which they interact. Semantics is one part of the grammar; phonology, syntax and morphology are other parts. Speakers of a language have an implicit knowledge about what is meaningful in their language, and it is easy to show this. In our account of what that knowledge is, we introduced ten technical terms : anomaly; paraphrase; synonymy; semantic feature; antonymy; contradiction; ambiguity; adjacency pairs; entailment and presupposition.

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## 8.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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**BELOW ARE TEN PAIRS OF SENTENCES. IN EACH PAIR ASSUME THAT THE FIRST SENTENCE IS TRUE. THEN DECIDE WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THE SECOND SENTENCE, WHICH HAS THE SAME TOPIC(S). IF THE FIRST IS TRUE, MUST THE SECOND ALSO BE TRUE (T) ? OR IF THE FIRST IS TRUE, MUST THE SECOND BE FALSE (F) ? OR DOES THE TRUTH OF THE FIRST TELL US NOTHING ABOUT THE TRUTH OF THE SECOND (X) ?**

- 1a. Radha is married to Shyam.
- 1b. Radha is Shyam's wife.
- 2a. Dilavar is an unmarried adult male.
- 2b. Dilavar is a bachelor.
- 3a. This knife is too dull to cut the rope.
- 3b. This knife isn't sharp enough to cut the rope.
- 4a. Veena likes to sing.
- 4b. Veena doesn't sing.
- 5a. Hari has been here for an hour.
- 5b. Hari is tired of waiting.
- 6a. Mr. Bose has given up smoking.
- 6b. Mr. Bose used to smoke.
- 7a. Mr. Bose still smokes.
- 7b. Mr. Bose used to smoke.
- 8a. Oil paintings are more expensive than watercolors.
- 8b. Watercolors cost more than oil paintings.

- 9a. The Taj Hotel is more than a century old.  
 9b. The Taj Hotel has operated for more than a century.  
 10a. Ayesha invited some friends to lunch.  
 10b. Ayesha has friends.

### 8.11 BOOKS SUGGESTED

General introductions to linguistic semantics are far from numerous. The following can be recommended for the beginning student who wants collateral or supplemental reading in the subject :

Allan, Keith (1986). *linguistic Meaning* (2 vols).

Dillon, George (1977). *Introduction to Contemporary Linguistic Semantics*.

Hofmann, Th. R. (1993). *Realms of Meaning : An Introduction to Semantics*.

Hurford, J.R. and Brendan Heasley (1983). *Semantics : A Coursebook*.

Leech, Geoffrey N. (1981). *Semantics*. 2nd edn.

Lyons, John (1995). *Linguistic Semantics : An Introduction*.

Nilsen, D.L.F. and Nilsen, A. (1975) *Semantic Theory : A Linguistic Perspective*.

Palmer, Frank R. (1981). *Semantics*. 2nd edn.

Saeed, John I. (1997). *Semantics*.

**The more advanced student will want to be familiar with :**

Chierchia, Gennaro and Sally McConnell-Ginet (1990). *Meaning and Grammar : An Introduction to Semantics*, as well as : Frawley, William (1992). *Linguistic Semantics*. Kempson, R.M. (1977). *Semantic Theory*. Lyons, John (1977). *Semantics* (2 vols).

The logical formulation of semantic statements is well explicated in : Cann, Ronnie (1993). *Formal Semantics : An Introduction*.

A very readable discussion of (non-human) animal communication and of the biological basis for humans' language capacity is Wardhaugh (1993), chapters 2 and 3.

**Full details of these and all other books cited in Suggested Reading lists can be found here.**

Bassac, Christian ; Mery, Bruno & Retoré, Christian (2010). Towards a type-theoretical account of lexical semantics. *\_Journal of Logic, Language and Information\_* 19 (2) : 229–245.

Wright, Cory (2007). Review Essay : Hubert Cuyckens, René Dirven, & John Taylor's (2003) 'Cognitive Approaches to Lexical Semantics'. *\_Cognitive Linguistics\_* 18 (4) : 570–579.

<b>ANSWERS</b>
1a and 1b : T
2a and 2b : T
3a is T, if 3b is T, 3a is partially T
4a is T, 4b can be T
5a is T. 5b can be T or F
6a is T, 6b is T
7a is T, 7b is T
8a is T, 8b is F
9a is T, 9b is T
10a is T, 10b is T

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

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: STRUCTURE :  
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**9.0 Objectives****9.1 Introduction****9.2 Sentence Structure****9.3 Phrasal Structure****9.3.1 Noun Phrase****9.3.2 Verb Phrase****9.3.3 Adjective Phrase****9.3.4 Adverb Phrase****9.3.5 Prepositional Phrase****9.3.6 Exercises****9.4 Verb Complementation****9.4.1 Noun Complements****9.4.2 Infinitive Complements****9.4.3 That-Clause Complements****9.4.4 Gerund Complements****9.4.5 Exercises****9.5 Key Words****9.6 Let Us Sum Up****9.7 Books Suggested****Answers**  
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**9.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- discuss syntactic structures of English language,
- study various phrases, their structures and their usage,
- discuss verb complementation with example,
- analyze different sentence structures using phrases and verbs complementation.

On completion of this unit you should be able to;

- use different phrases in correct form,
- understand different phrasal structures and different verb complementation,
- apply grammatical rules to construct sentences.

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## 9.1 INTRODUCTION

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When native speakers like us speak a language, our mother tongue, we all practice some 'mental grammar' in the form of linguistic knowledge which we practice subconsciously, not as a result of any school teaching. Secondly, we use any other language involving all the concepts of grammar, practicing the same for the 'proper' and 'best' use of language. One other view of the usage of 'grammar' involves the study and analysis of the structures found in a language. Therefore, the study of grammar is also the study of structures of different expressions deriving certain meaning to it.

Traditional grammar has taken a word independent, apart from its role in the larger structure. It is not the case in the modern grammar. There are two reasons for this –

We cannot study a word's functions without considering it in a larger setting.

Secondly, a word alone may constitute a phrase, as a noun phrase may contain only a noun and a verb phrase may contain only a verb.

Therefore, phrases are units of one or more than one word, so they can be considered the lowest syntactic unit in English grammar.

Look at the examples of the sentences given below :

1. Most of the members of the Army are brave.
2. Soldiers are brave.

In both the above mentioned sentences, underlined words are subjects. Sentence(1) contains more than one word, whereas sentence(2) contains only one. The generalization is that such grammatical items are always expressed as phrases and these phrases can consist of either a single word or a unified group of words. Sometimes pronouns are replaced by phrases i.e.

3. They are brave.

Sentence (3) can be replaced with (1) and (2).

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## 9.2 SENTENCE STRUCTURE

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Syntax is the study of ordering of different components in phrases and sentences. Syntax is the most focused item for linguists as the study of which allows us to understand different sentence patterns in English language. Some of the sentences are syntactically correct but semantically meaningless.

E.g. "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously"

This sentence, coined by renowned linguist Noam Chomsky, does not make a syntactic sense. Phrase structure enables us to understand the meaning of such sentences without ambiguity. Till now we all are practicing principles of grammar in English, we are familiar with some of the terms which we recognize as 'Lexical Categories'; in simple words 'Parts of Speech'. Examples of such lexical categories are :

Noun

Adjective

Verb

Adverb

Pronoun

Determiners—words are like articles, possessive pronouns, demonstratives, quantifiers, etc.

Adpositional verbs—words are like words indicating directions or locations, etc.

Observe the sentence given below

The modern girls appreciated the jugglers at the circus and they danced happily.

The	modern	girls	Appreciate	The	jugglers	at	the	circus	and	they	danced	happily
Det	Adj	Noun	Verb	Det	Noun	PP	Det	Noun	Con	Pro	Verb	Adv

Understanding of the syntactic structures helps us to construct correct sentences. Now we will study different Phrasal Structures.

### 9.3 PHRASAL STRUCTURE

At first, we will understand the meaning of ‘phrase’. Phrase is a small group of words standing together as a conceptual unit, typically forming a component of a clause. In other words, we can say that – “Phrase is a group of words that does not contain a verb and its subject and is used as a single part of speech.”

A single word can be a phrase when it is the head of the phrase. The head of the phrase is the phrase's central element and other words in the phrase orient to it, either by modifying it or complementing it. We have to understand it very clearly that all the rules apply to the head of the phrase and not to other words. For example, in the case of NP (Noun Phrase), if it is singular, then the head of the phrase is takes singular form; if it is plural, then the head of the phrase takes plural form of the word.

E.g. all students, each student, the student/the students

And in the case of VP (Verb Phrase), structure of tenses and other grammatical units apply to the head of the VP and not to other words.

E.g. He walks away from the dangerous condition.

The pilot flies over the clouds.

Phrase Structure Rules

Phrase structure rules enable us to use and understand different syntactic patterns of sentence correctly. Tree structure of these rules even enables us to distinguish ambiguity in sentence. Phrase structures in English language are as under.

1. S → NP VP

Sentence consists of a Noun Phrase and a Verb Phrase. This is the sentence structure of almost all the sentences in English.

E.g. All the officers are standing.

NP                  VP

2. NP    →    (Det) (Adj) N (PP)

Noun Phrase consists of noun at first of course primarily, and then the components mentioned in the bracket are not mandatory always in NP.

E.g. There are horses. – only a noun in NP

There is a red house in the corner. – this sentence contains a determiner, an adjective, a noun and a preposition in NP

3. PP    →    P   NP

A preposition phrase is always followed by the noun phrase.

E.g. The book lies in the corner.

Boys are playing near the swimming pool.

4. VP    →    V   (NP) (PP) (Adv)

Verb phrase consists of a verb at first, then followed by noun phrase, prepositional phrase and an adverb. In this structure again NP, PP and adverbs are not mandatory to use.

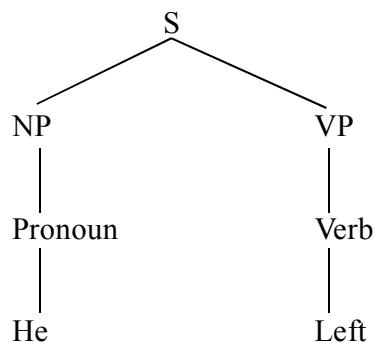
E.g. Sameer hits the ball against the wall quickly.

We can put the adverb before or after the verb also.

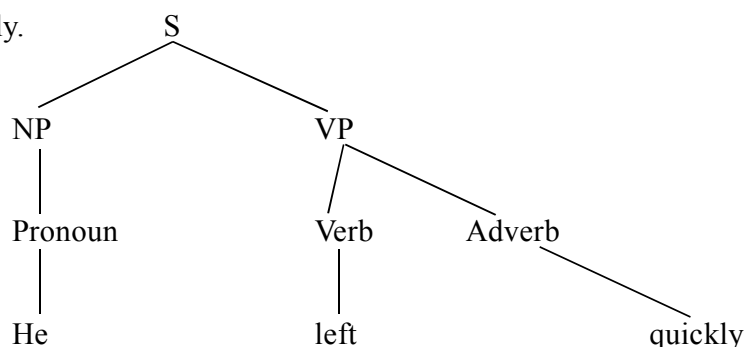
E.g. Sameer quickly hits the ball against the wall.

Now we will understand the tree of the phrasal structures accordingly. Tree structure is always explained in top down method, like Head is on the top and then the extensions are explained below. Let's examine the sentences.

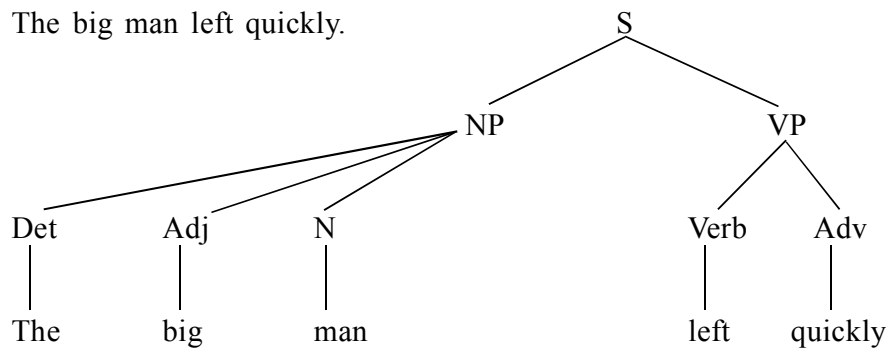
1. He left.



2. He left quickly.



3. The big man left quickly.



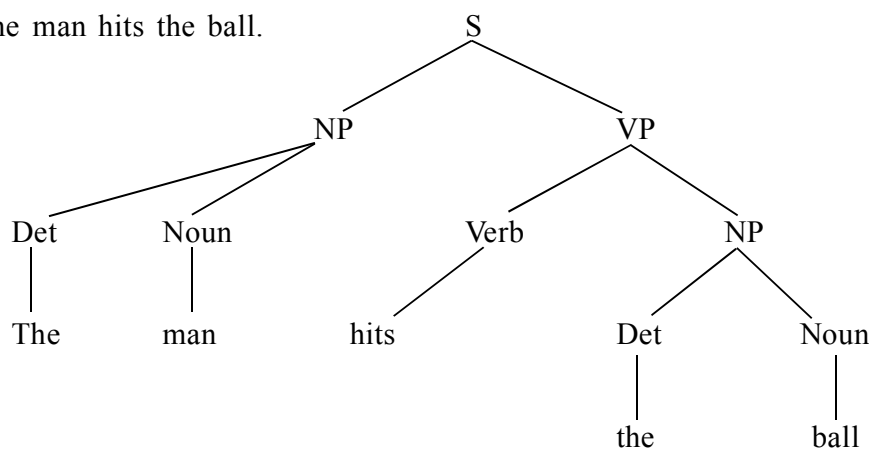
Adverb explains quality to the verbs.

E.g. How did he leave ?

He left quickly.

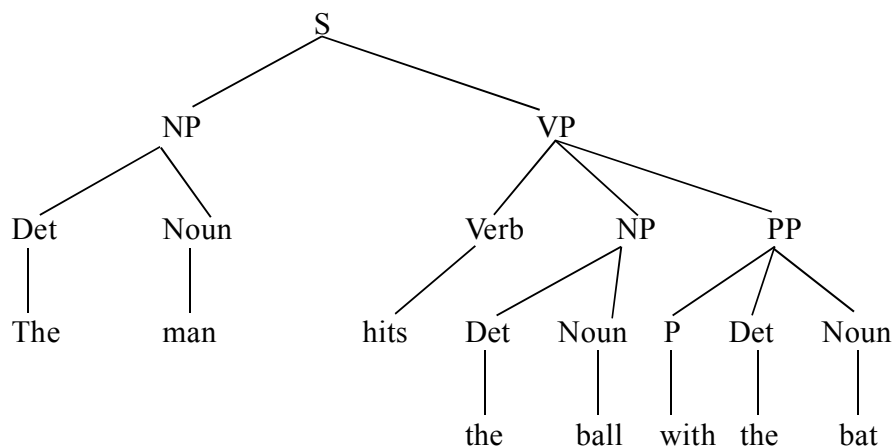
Now let's see other structures with tree explanation.

4. The man hits the ball.



So, now we will examine another sentence, having more phrasal structures.

5. The man hits the ball with the bat.

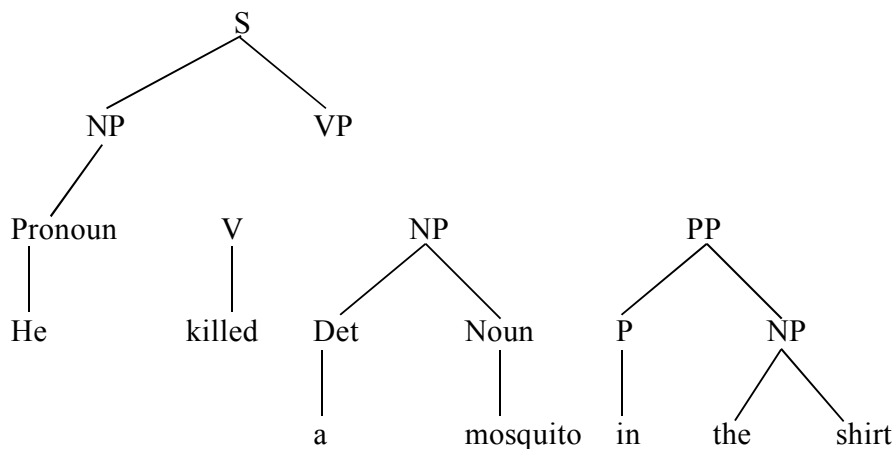


Thus, this tree structure helps us to understand the sentence structure. In the above sentence, VP consists of a verb, a noun phrase and a prepositional phrase. There are some of the sentences we use which lead to ambiguity. One can derive many meaning from the same sentence. In that case, this tree structure will help us to derive its correct meaning. By this practice we can minimize the possibility of ambiguity. Let's see such examples with tree structure.

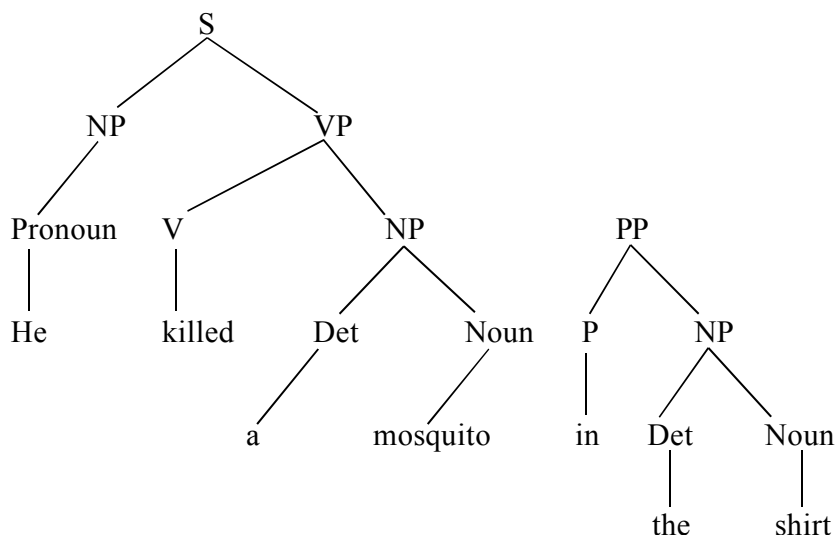


6. He killed a mosquito in his shirt.

Well, this example is a bit weird, but perfect one to understand the concept of structures. One meaning of the above mentioned sentence is that a person was wearing a shirt, a mosquito was inside his shirt and he killed that mosquito. Now we will examine this from the tree structure.



The same sentence can have different meaning as well, like a mosquito was in a shirt, the man somehow observed it and killed. Now let's see this meaning with tree structure.

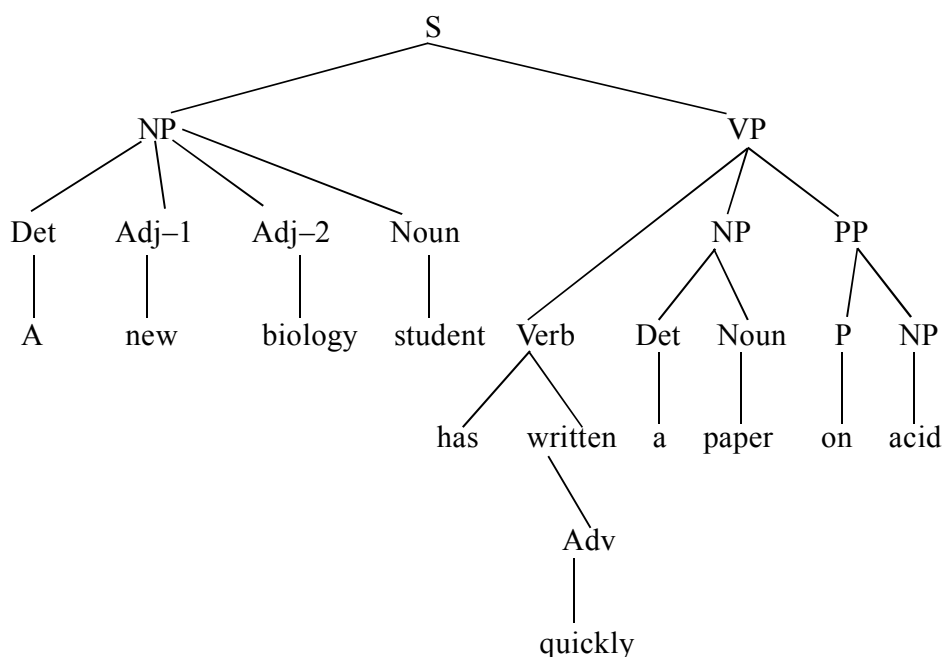


We will examine other sentence to clear the concept.

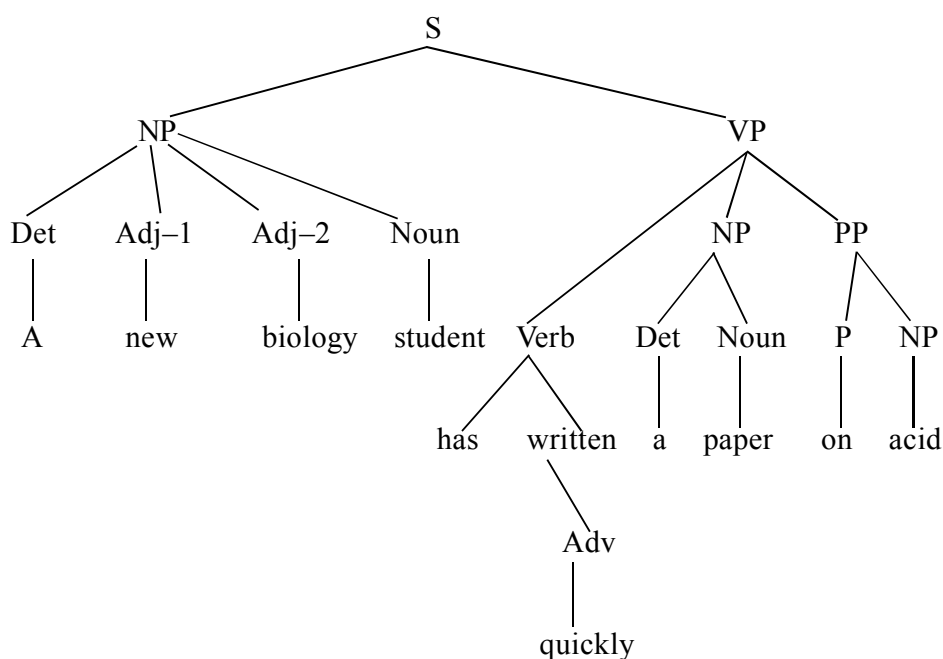
7. A new biology student has written a paper on acid quickly.

Meaning –1 a student has written his research paper on the subject acid.

Meaning–2 a student is under the influence of acid when he has written a paper. Let's see how the practice of this tree structure helps us to clear the ambiguity in a sentence.



The meaning of this tree structure is that the topic on which a biology student has written his paper is acid. Now we will see the other meaning.



This tree structure gives the meaning that a student has written a paper under the influence of some acid, or in very tough condition.

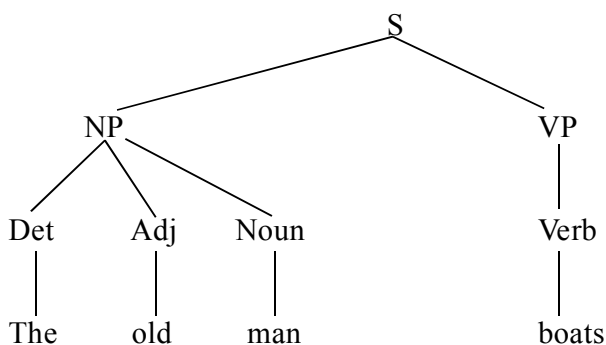
Some of the words in English are such that they perform the function of more than two lexical categories, so the ambiguity arises.

E.g. The old man boats.

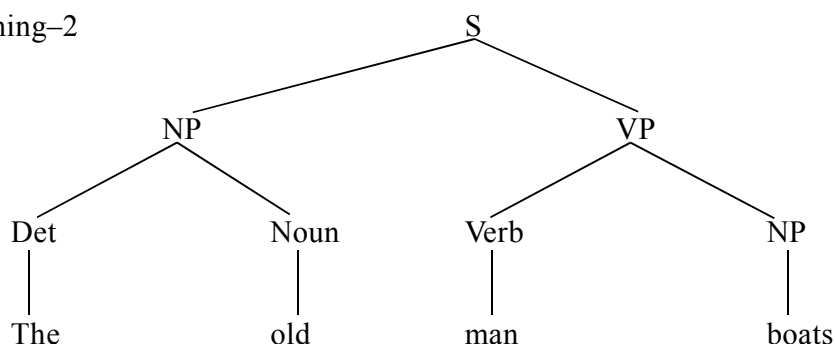
Meaning-1 – One old man boats.

Meaning-2 – ‘The old’ in a sentence is a collective noun, hence a group of old men controls/ in charge of something and that group boats.

Meaning-1



Meaning-2



Thus tree structures clarify the ambiguity of sentences and thus they help us in the correct usage of the language. Now we will study different phrases in English.

### 9.3.1 Noun Phrase (NP) :

A noun phrase is a word or a group of words which has a noun as its head. In a sentence, NP acts as a subject, an object or as a predicate expression.

E.g. The White House is on rent. – NP as a subject

I want a new cricket kit. – NP as an object

John gifted the little boy chocolates. – NP as a predicate

### 9.3.2 Verb Phrase (VP) :

Verb phrases are words that demonstrate an action like play, eat, walk, etc. They act as a link between the subject of the verb and information about the subject. A verb phrase consists of an auxiliary or helping verb and a main verb. In VP a verb acts as the head of the phrase.

E.g. Instead of our reservation, we suffered a lot in the train.

All the students will get pamphlets of the unit.

### 9.3.3 Adjective Phrase :

An adjective phrase is a group of words that describe a noun or pronoun in a sentence. It is actually a group of words describing a noun or pronoun that functions as an adjective. The adjective in an adjective phrase can be placed before or after the noun or pronoun in the sentence.

E.g. The new serial is not too terrible.

The final exams are going to be unbelievably difficult this time.

### 9.3.4 Adverb Phrase :

An Adverb phrases is a combination of two or more words that act as an adverb. It can modify a verb, adverb or adjective and can tell 'how', 'where', 'why' or 'when' of the verb. In short, adverb phrase is a collection of one or more than one words which adds meaning to the verb. Let's see examples of adverb phrase describing 'how'

- With great pleasure
- In silence
- With regret
- The teacher assessed the answer sheets very carefully.

Let's see examples of adverb phrase describing 'why'

- So that I am not lost
- To understand better
- Since they were getting married
- For making cake
- Education is necessary to end the caste-discrimination.

Let's see examples of adverb phrase describing 'when'

- In an hour
- Any time
- After the sunset/ sunrise
- Few days ago
- The train is scheduled to arrive after a few minutes.

### 9.3.5 Prepositional Phrase :

A preposition draws a relationship between a noun or pronoun and another word in a sentence. A prepositional phrase includes a preposition, its object and modifiers of the object. The preposition's object is the noun or pronoun that follows the preposition. Prepositional phrases can function as either adjective phrases or adverb phrases to modify other words in a sentence. Common examples of prepositions include about, after, at, before, behind, by, during, under, up, etc.

- ❖ Preposition Phrase functions as Adjective phrase

**Example-1 :** I saw a black cat with white paws.

In this sentence, the underlined 'white paws' is the prepositional phrase that modifies the noun 'cat'.

**Example-2 :** You can use the laptop on the table to complete your task.

In this sentence, the underlined 'on the table' is the prepositional phrase that modifies the noun phrase 'laptop'.

- ❖ Preposition Phrase functions as Adverb phrase

**Example-1 :** I get annoyed when people talk during a movie.

In this sentence, 'during' is preposition and underlined 'during a movie' is the prepositional phrase which modifies the verb 'talk'.

**Example-2 :** Sheila meets Shaily at the restaurant.

In this sentence, 'at' is preposition and underlined 'at the restaurant' is the prepositional phrase which modifies the verb 'meets'.

### **9.3.5 EXERCISES :**

**IDENTIFY THE NOUN PHRASES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES.**

1. Sakshi hopes to win the first prize.
2. I tried to solve that sum.
3. Did you enjoy reading this book ?
4. The boy wants to go to the garden.
5. Lions prefer living in dark dens.
6. The criminal refused to answer the question.
7. The small boy denied stealing the bread.
8. To write such rubbish is disgraceful.
9. I hate to punish my kids.
10. I dislike doing such a task.
11. Few of my friends have participated in cultural program.
12. Many buildings were destroyed in 2001 earthquake.
13. Both of my younger brothers are good at sports.
14. The sophisticated woman speaks English awkwardly.
15. Absolution is a beautiful feeling.

**UNDERLINE THE VERB PHRASE IN EACH SENTENCE.**

1. I will wait for the car at the corner.
2. I am becoming very tired of formal clothes.
3. The gardener is watering the plants in the garden.
4. The horse can carry too much load up to the hill.
5. Ravi had to run in order to catch the train.
6. Children will dig a deep pit to make a swimming pool.
7. The building appeared to be leaning to North side.
8. You can buy a car with this money.
9. Grandpa's umbrella was blown off of his head by a strong wind.
10. Western clothes do not suit me anymore.
11. Rakhi's baby was named Samita.
12. Arunima could climb the Mount Everest.
13. The children are playing on the ground.
14. My father is going to take all of us to the theater.
15. These gloves will protect you from cold.

**IDENTIFY THE ADJECTIVE PHRASES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES.**

1. Have you ever seen a crow with a white skin ?
2. He was wearing a chain made of gold.
3. I saw a girl with blue eyes.
4. Helpless birds in small cages are a painful sight.
5. A man with a long beard was shouting like anything.
6. We visited many islands without any inhabitants.
7. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
8. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
9. Svarit is a young boy of great promise.
10. In a low voice, he narrated the tale of his mischief.
11. The highly talented and expressive actors give an impactful performance.
12. The saree beautifully embroidered by hand is worth the cost.
13. The man in the blue suit is my boss.
14. I think the car parked on the road is stolen.
15. The extremely tired teachers could not give desired output.

**UNDERLINE THE ADVERB PHRASES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES.**

1. MukeshAmbani lives in a palatial home.
2. Is there life on the moon ?
3. Hiya rushed into her room.
4. They discussed for a while.
5. She completed the project with great skill.
6. They walked towards the north.
7. The balloon blew off with a loud noise.
8. The swimmers went swimming over the sea.
9. He sat beside the heap of wheat.
10. She whispered in his ear.
11. He performed the fight with all his might.
12. He screamed at the top of his voice.
13. It must be done at any cost.
14. Plenty of water has run under the bridge.
15. Without pausing to consider he kicked him.

**9.3.5.5 Complete The Following Sentences using Appropriate Prepositional Phrase :**

1. I would rather have ice-cream \_\_\_\_\_ tea.  
(A) Instead of                      (B) instead from                      (C) instead

2. \_\_\_\_\_ the storm, we went out.  
(A) In spite of (B) Despite of (C) In spite
3. \_\_\_\_\_ emergency, break glass to escape.  
(A) In case of (B) In case (C) In case with
4. I am signing this paper \_\_\_\_\_ my friend.  
(A) in behalf of (B) on behalf of (C) on behalf
5. We find out a solution \_\_\_\_\_ a new device developed by our engineers.  
(A) by means of (B) by means (C) by means to
6. \_\_\_\_\_ mine was the secured childhood.  
(A) On the whole (B) In the whole (C) By the whole
7. Can you help me \_\_\_\_\_ ?  
(A) by anyway (B) any way (C) in any way
8. Problems didn't stop her. \_\_\_\_\_ , she began to work twice as hard.  
(A) on the contrary (B) by the contrary (C) in the contrary
9. \_\_\_\_\_ , I was highly impressed with his skills.  
(A) In general (B) On general (C) By general
10. I have to appear for the exams in July – \_\_\_\_\_ in August.  
(A) rather (B) or rather (C) in rather

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#### 9.4 VERB COMPLEMENTATION

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Basic sentence pattern in English language is –

Subject + predicate

If we become more specific about it, then we can say that sentence pattern is –

Subject + Verb + Object

These objects are called complements. These are words that complement or complete the meaning of the verb in a sentence. We find two types of complements :

1. Direct Object
2. Indirect Object

Direct object answer to the question 'what' or 'whom'. Let's take an example.

**Example – 1 :** Kiara paints a picture.

'a picture' is an answer to the question – Kiara paints 'what' ?

We will study other examples as well.

**Example – 2 :** The boy watched a new cartoon interestingly.

The boy watched 'what' ? – a cartoon

In such sentences only S + V + O also makes a semantic sense, and other lexical items are used in the sentence to enhance the meaning of it functioning as different phrases.

**Example – 3 :** Kartik invited Karan in a farewell party.

Here, in this sentence, Kartik invited ‘whom’ ? – Karan. So, Karan is a Direct Object.

We should make a note that only noun or pronoun can perform as a direct object. Now let's see one more example.

**Example – 4 :** The pedigreed dogs thundered around street.

Dogs thundered ‘what’ ? – well, we do not find clear answer to this question, because ‘thundered’ is an intransitive verb.

Direct object occurs in the sentences with transitive verbs. In the above sentence, ‘thundered’ is an intransitive verb. Some of the verbs are complete in their meaning, hence they are known as intransitive verbs, like wait, die, appear, fall etc. Transitive verbs demand complements to complete their meaning. These verbs are known as transitive verbs, like approach, leave, enter, write, etc. Some of the verbs act as both as transitive and intransitive verbs in a sentence where the semantic connection between subject and verb is different.

E.g. The car stopped slowly.

He stopped the car slowly.

Different verbs can be followed by different kinds of words and structure. There are different ways to complete the verb. Some verbs can be followed by infinitives, some verbs can be followed by – ing forms, some by that–clause. A complement functions in a sentence to complement meaning of the verb. To identify the kind of complement in a sentence is very difficult, rather confusing. We always understand any grammatical/ syntactic structure by its rule, but ‘rule’ is a wrong parameter to understand complement. Complements can be understood by the meaning of the verb. There are mainly four kinds of complements. For example –

Sub + Verb	Complement	Type of Complement
I want	a coffee.	Noun Complement
I hope	to go to movie.	Infinitive Complement
I enjoy	going to the movie.	Gerund Complement
I suggest	that we should go to movie today.	That–Clause Complement

#### **9.4.1 Noun Complement :**

Sentence with direct object functions as Noun Complement.

E.g. I like cold drinks.

I want a new bag.

In these sentences, objects complement the verb. Generally objects are noun in this type of complements.



### 9.4.2 Infinitive Complement :

Some of the verbs target infinitive to complete their meaning. They are known as infinitive complements. They can be divided into three categories.

- (1) Intention – type verbs
- (2) Attempt – type verbs
- (3) Advise – type verbs

- (1) **Intention – type verbs** : Verbs that help people to express wishes, hopes, wants, expectations, etc trigger infinitive complement.

E.g. My father expects me to fetch gold medal.

Nainesh intends to return to India this week.

These are the verbs that express intentions or desires of doers. Other verbs in this category are plan, include, aim, promise, etc.

- (2) **Attempt – type verbs** : This category of verbs are common with intention – type verbs. The only difference with this type is that these category verbs express the degree of success of their (doer's) intention.

E.g. Soldiers attempt to catch robbers.

The birds continue to build their nest at the same place.

Other verbs in this category are try, start, proceed, etc.

- (3) **Advise – type verbs** : These types of verbs imply persuasion, manipulation and direction of others. These verbs require other noun as object.

E.g. The government forced self financed schools to reduce the fees.

My brother persuaded my father to taste pasta.

Other verbs fall in this category are induce, advice, tell, etc.

### 9.4.3 That–clause Complement :

All the verbs that are complemented with ‘that–clause’ sentences fall under this category.

E.g. The researchers admitted the fact that the experiment was delayed.

All the sentences having ‘that–clause’ are verb complements. Examples of such verbs are demand, admit, acknowledge, regret, accept, demonstrate, etc. Other emotive verbs such as like, ignore, fear, etc. Some of the belief type verbs also take ‘that–clause’ complement.

E.g. Most of the Indians believe that all the human beings have the essence of the God.

### 9.4.4 Gerund Complement :

A gerund is a noun with – ing. These words appear to be verbs in a progressive tense. Gerunds are present participles functioning as a noun in a sentence. as gerunds are actions. Verbs that require actions or activities as objects take gerundial complements.

E.g. The accountant admits filing the income tax regularly.

Vivaan cannot tolerate working with other colleagues.

#### 9.4.5 EXERCISES :

#### Phrasal Structures and Verb Complementation

<b>CHOOSE THE CORRECT FORM OF THE VERB IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES.</b>
--

1. The committee decided (accepting/to accept) the project.
2. The managers appreciated (to have/having) suggestions from the workers.
3. Dharma's mother doesn't approve of his (going/to go) to Europe.
4. The panel found it very difficult (reaching/to reach) a conclusion.
5. Sachin Tendulkar is interested in (to open/opening) a cricket academy.
6. Mr. Mukesh has no intention of (to leave/leaving) a new business now.
7. Pupils are eager (to return/returning) to school in June.
8. Mr. Joshi would be better off (to buy/buying) this house.
9. She refused (to accept/accepting) my proposal.
10. I regret (to be/being) the one to have to tell him this sad news.
11. My son pretended (to be/being) sick last Sunday.
12. Mayuri wishes (to finish/finishing) his thesis this year.
13. He agreed (to leave/leaving) this job.
14. Radha was excited (to tell/telling) her family about her promotion.
15. They are not ready (to stop/stopping) this project at this time.
16. Nirav shouldn't risk (to drive/driving) so roughly.
17. He wants (to know/knowing) what is going on at present.
18. Vidya is looking forward (to return/returning) to her native place.
19. There is no excuse for (to leave/leaving) her in such crucial situation.
20. Gautam returned to his home after (to finish/finishing) the game.

<b>JOIN THE SENTENCES WITH APPROPRIATELY TO COMPLEMENT THE VERB.</b>
--

1. He believes  
Virat is a great batsman.
2. He knew  
Something bad has happened.
3. Bimal believes  
Rajan is the tallest student in his class.
4. Henish hopes  
Henika should help the victims of flood.
5. Anuj asked  
Komal left the job.

**MATCH 'A' WITH 'B' AND THEN CONSTRUCT A MEANINGFUL SENTENCE TO COMPLEMENT WITH THE VERB.**

A		B	
a	The man laughed loudly	f	It became difficult to lift it.
b	The bell rang	g	She feels cold today
c	Punitloves food	h	His eyes filled with tears
d	Chotufalls in his arms	i	Punit cooks dinner himself
e	They found the bag so heavy	j	The dinner was being cooked

## 9.5 KEY WORDS

**Phrase :** a small group of words standing together as a conceptual unit, typically forming a component of a clause.

**Clause :** Clause is a group of words that contains both a subject and a predicate but cannot always be considered as a full grammatical sentence. Clause can be either independent/main clause or dependent/subordinate clause.

**Sentence Structure :** A sentence contains at least one independent clause. Sentence structure is the way a sentence is arranged, grammatically. The sentence structure of writing includes where the noun and verb fall within an individual sentence. Sentence structure depends on the language in which it is written or spoken.

**Complementation :** it is a process to make a sentence seem better or more attractive as well as meaningful. All the clauses constitute that are governed by a verb or adjective.

**Parts of Speech :** it is a category to which a word is assigned in accordance with syntactic functions. In English the main parts of speech are noun, pronoun, adjective, determiner, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection.

**Syntactic Structure :** in English grammar, sentence structure is the arrangement of words, phrases and clauses in a sentence. The grammatical meaning of a sentence is dependent on this structural organization which is also called syntax or syntactic structure. Most common word order in English sentence is Subject – Verb – Object. It has mainly to do with the grammatical structure of a sentence.

**Semantic Structure :** Semantic structure is a term for an organization that represents meaning. Sentence that deals with the aspect of meaning is s semantic structure.

## 9.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit you have learnt;

- to use different phrasal structures to construct a meaningful sentence,
- to apply different forms of verb complementation.

Many have spent a lot of time to understand and study various lexical categories and its usage in English language. The more we practice various structures of English sentence; we become more effective to use semantic as well as syntactic structures. With the understanding and correct usage of common structures you will be able to use better grammatical items, in a way to improve your writing skills.

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## 9.7 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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McCarthy, Michael and Felicity O'Dell. *English Phrasal Verbs in Use : Intermediate Book with Answers*. Cambridge UP, 2017.

Murphy, Raymond. *English Grammar in Use*. Cambridge UP, 1985.

Yule, George. *The Study of Language*. Cambridge UP, 2014.

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## 9.8 ANSWERS

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### Phrasal Structures :

#### 9.3.5.1 Answers :

1. Noun phrase : **to win the first prize**; it acts as the object
2. Noun phrase : **to solve that sum**; it acts as the object
3. Noun phrase : **reading this book**; it acts as the object
4. Noun phrase : **to go to the garden**; it acts as the object
5. Noun phrase : **living in dark dens**; it acts as the object
6. Noun phrase : **to answer the question**; it acts as the object
7. Noun phrase : **stealing the money**; it acts as the object
8. Noun phrase : **to write such rubbish**; it acts as the subject
9. Noun phrase : **to punish my kids**; it acts as the object
10. Noun phrase : **doing such a task**; it acts as the object
11. Noun phrase : **few of my friends**; it acts as the subject
12. Noun phrase : **many buildings**; it acts as the subject
13. Noun phrase : **both of my younger brothers**; it acts as the subject
14. Noun phrase : **the sophisticated woman**; it acts as the subject
15. Noun phrase : **absolution**; it acts as the subject

#### 9.3.5.2 Answers :

1. I **will wait** for the car at the corner.
2. I **am becoming** very tired of formal clothes.
3. The gardener **is watering** the plants in the garden.
4. The horse **can carry** too much load up to the hill.
5. Ravi **had to run** in order to catch the train.
6. Children **will dig** a deep pit to make a swimming pool.
7. The building **appeared to be leaning** to North side.
8. You **can buy** a car with this money.

9. Grandpa's umbrella was blown off of his head by a strong wind.
10. Western clothes do not suit me anymore.
11. Rakhi's baby was named Samita.
12. Arunima could climb the Mount Everest.
13. The children are playing on the ground.
14. My father is going to take all of us to the theater.
15. These gloves will protect you from cold.

#### 9.3.5.3 Answers :

1. Have you ever seen a crow with a white skin ?
2. He was wearing a chain made of gold.
3. I saw a girl with blue eyes.
4. Helpless birds in small cages are a painful sight.
5. A man with a long beard was shouting like anything.
6. We visited many islands without any inhabitants.
7. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
8. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
9. Svarit is a young boy of great promise.
10. In a low voice, he narrated the tale of his mischief.
11. The highly talented and expressive actor gave a wonderful performance.
12. The saree beautifully embroidered by hand is worth the cost.
13. The man in the blue suit is my boss.
14. I think the car parked on the road is stolen.
15. The extremely tired teachers could not give desired output.

#### 9.3.5.4 Answers :

1. Mukesh Ambani lives in a palatial home.
2. Is there life on the moon ?
3. Hiya rushed into her room.
4. They discussed for a while.
5. She completed the project with great skill.
6. They walked towards the north.
7. The balloon blew off with a loud noise.
8. The swimmers went swimming over the sea.
9. He sat beside the heap of wheat.
10. She whispered in his ear.
11. He performed the fight with all his might.
12. He screamed at the top of his voice.
13. It must be done at any cost.

14. Plenty of water has run under the bridge.
15. Without pausing to consider he kicked him.

#### 9.3.5.5 Answers :

1. I would rather have ice-cream instead of tea.
2. In spite of the storm, we went out.
3. In case of emergency, break glass to escape.
4. I am signing this paper on behalf of my friend.
5. We find out a solution by means of a new device developed by our engineers.
6. On the whole, mine was a secured childhood.
7. Can you help me in any way ?
8. Problems didn't stop her. On the contrary she began to work twice as hard.
9. In general, I was highly impressed with her performance.
10. I have to appear for the exams in July – or rather in June.

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### 9.4 VERB COMPLEMENTATION

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#### 9.4.5.1 Answers for the above exercises :

- |              |               |              |               |
|--------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| 1. to accept | 2. having     | 3. going     | 4. to reach   |
| 5. opening   | 6. leaving    | 7. to return | 8. buying     |
| 9. to accept | 10. being     | 11. to be    | 12. to finish |
| 13. to leave | 14. to tell   | 15. to stop  | 16. driving   |
| 17. to know  | 18. returning | 19. leaving  | 20. Finishing |

#### 9.4.5.2 Answers :

1. He believes that Virat is a great batsman.
2. He knew that something bad has happened.
3. Bimal believes that Rajan is the tallest student in his class.
4. Henish hopes that Henika should help the victims of flood.
5. Anuj asked why Komal left the job.

#### 9.4.5.3 Answers :

a. h    b. j    c. i    d. g    e. f

1. The man laughed loudly that his eyes filled with tears.
2. The bell rang when the dinner was being prepared.
3. Punit loves food that he cooks his dinner himself.
4. Chotu falls in his arms that she feels cold today.
5. They found the bag so heavy that it became difficult to lift it.

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

**UNIT  
10****ADVERBIALS AND AUXILIARIES**

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**10.0 Objectives****10.1 Adverbials****10.2 Introduction****10.2.1 Circumstance Adverbials****10.2.2 Semantic categories of circumstance adverbials****10.2.3 Stance Adverbials****10.2.4 Epistemic Adverbials****10.2.5 Attitude Adverbials****10.2.6 Style Adverbials****10.3 Auxiliaries****10.3.1 Primary Auxiliaries****10.3.2 Common Structures of Modal Auxiliaries****10.3.3 Uses of Primary Auxiliaries****10.3.4 Uses of Modal Auxiliaries****10.3.5 Modal Auxiliaries & Their Meanings****10.4 Let Us Sum Up****10.5 Key Words****10.6 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**10.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- discuss the meaning of adverbials and auxiliaries,
- infer the structures and apt usage of adverbials and auxiliaries.

This unit is divided into two parts; 1. Adverbials and 2. Auxiliaries.

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**10.1 ADVERBIALS**

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**10.2 INTRODUCTION**

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In this chapter, you will learn about the structures that function as adverbials. Adverbs and adverbials are similar but they are not same. The traditional grammar defines the adverb as “a word that modifies a verb, or an adjective, or another adverb.” For example

- a. He sings well.
- b. He sings very well.
- c. He is a very good singer.

In the first sentence, “well” modifies the verb “sing”. “very” in the second sentence modifies the adverb “well” whereas in the third sentence “very” modifies the adjective “good”.

**Adverbials are clause elements that serve two major functions :**

- A. They represent the circumstances which are related to the clause, such as when or where the activity happened. They are known as circumstance adverbials.
- B. They share the speaker's emotions and comments on what the clause is about. They are known as stance adverbials.

### 10.2.1 Circumstance Adverbials :

Circumstance Adverbials are the most common type of adverbials, adding something about the action or state described in the clause. They answer the questions such as ‘how ?’, ‘when ?’, ‘where ?’, ‘how much ?’, ‘how long ?’, and ‘why ?’

### 10.2.2 Semantic Categories of Circumstance Adverbials :

Circumstance Adverbials can be divided into the following categories :

Category	Subcategories	Description
place	distance	describes specific measurement & description of distance
<b>Example :</b> Women had to walk <b>20 km</b> to fetch the drinking water.		
place	direction	describes path way of the action
<b>Example :</b> They used to walk <b>from their home</b> to college.		
place	position	describes point of location
<b>Example :</b> The students of the Computer Application program would <b>be there</b> .		
time	point in time	describes time of action when it happens.
<b>Example :</b> Let's meet <b>tomorrow evening</b> and go for dinner.		
time	duration	describes lasting of action
<b>Example :</b> The Britishers ruled <b>for 200 years</b> in India.		
time	frequency	describes how often the action happens
<b>Example :</b> Mr. Sharma, the stand-up comedian, <b>very often</b> crack jokes on him.		
time	time relationship	describes relationship between two actions
<b>Example :</b> The patient had died <b>before the doctor came</b> .		
process	manner	describes the manner of action
<b>Example :</b> Robin walked <b>slowly</b> and missed his flight.		



process	Means	describes the source used for the action
<b>Example :</b> The parcel reached to my home <i>by air mail</i> .		
process	Instrument	describes the item used for the action
<b>Example :</b> The mother fed her kid <i>with a teaspoon</i> .		
contingency	cause/reason	describes the reason why the action happens
<b>Example :</b> He met with an accident, and died <i>of head injuries</i> .		
contingency	purpose	describes the purpose of the action like the reason
<b>Example :</b> I want to meet you all <i>in order to explain what we should do now</i> .		
contingency	concession	describes the ideas that has contrast with the action
<b>Example :</b> <i>Although</i> I was not well, I went to college.		
contingency	condition	describes the conditions with reference to the action
<b>Example :</b> You have to jump into the water <i>if you want to learn swimming</i> .		
contingency	result	describes the result / effect of the action
<b>Example :</b> Mitali stayed at home <i>so that she can take care of her old parents</i> .		
addition	addition	describes that one action is added to another one
<b>Example :</b> Ranbir's cousins <i>also</i> participated in the quiz.		

### 10.2.3 Stance Adverbials :

Stance Adverbials clearly depicts the speaker's or writer's attitude to a clause or comment about its content. They are mainly of three types : epistemic, attitude, and style.

### 10.2.4 Epistemic Adverbials :

Epistemic Adverbials overtly express the judgement of the speaker or the writer with reference to the information in a proposition. They are further subdivided into five parts :

- A. Certainty and doubt :** There are some adverbials which tell the speaker's level of certainty or doubt about the clause.

**Example :** India will *certainly* win the match.

There are clouds in the sky. It *might* rain today.

- B. Actuality and reality :** Actuality and reality adverbials deals with real-life facts which are usually in contrast with common supposition.

**Example :** Money is not everything, but it *actually* does make lots of difference.

- C. Source of knowledge :** Source of knowledge adverbials describes from where the information is reported.

**Example :** *According to the survey*, the youth of India spends more than 4 hours in using social media handles every day.

- D. Limitation :** Limitation stance adverbials imply when there are limits to the validity of the clause.

**Example :** People *largely* select the hill stations for spending their vacations.

- E. Viewpoint or perspective :** These adverbials mark the viewpoint which has been claimed in the clause to be true.

**Example :** *In my view*, one should wait for the right time for the right action to get the right result.

#### 10.2.5 Attitude Adverbials :

Attitude Adverbials represent the speaker's or writer's attitude for the proposition. The attitude includes an evaluation or assessment of expectations.

**Example :** My cousin *wisely* kept a copy of his project in his mobile.

#### 10.2.6 Style Adverbials :

Stance Adverbials of style state the manner of conveying the message.

**Example :** He *honestly* admitted that he did not know about the fact.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

**MATCH THE FOLLOWING COLUMNS GIVEN IN BELOW.**

Sr.	Type of adverbial	Sr.	Example of adverbial
1	Position	A	If they plan well, they can execute well too.
2	Point of time	B	To my knowledge, people are not proactive.
3	Frequency	C	The batsman literary hit the ball out of the stadium.
4	Concession	D	Mangoes are being sold here.
5	Condition	E	In most cases, people react and not respond to.
6	Result	F	Hopefully, the problem of corruption will be addressed by the government.
7	Limitation	G	We will go for picnic even though it rains.
8	Viewpoint	H	Barking dogs seldom bite.
9	Attitude	I	They ran fast so that they could catch the train.
10	Style	J	The meeting has been scheduled in the morning.

## 10.3 AUXILIARIES

### 10.3.1 Primary Auxiliaries :

	<b>Infinitive</b>	<b>Present Participle</b>	<b>Past Participle</b>	<b>Present Present</b>	<b>Past Tense Participle</b>
Be	To be	Being	been	am /is/are	was/were
Have	To have	Having	had	have/has	had
Do	To do	Doing	done	do/does	did

<b>Tense</b>	<b>Present Tense</b>			<b>Past Tense</b>		
<b>Pronouns</b>	<b>Be</b>	<b>Have</b>	<b>Do</b>	<b>Be</b>	<b>Have</b>	<b>Do</b>
I	Am	have	do	was	had	did
We	Are	have	do	were	had	did
You	Are	have	do	were	had	did
He	Is	has	does	was	had	did
She	Is	has	does	was	had	did
It	Is	has	does	was	had	did
They	Are	have	do	were	Had	did

### 10.3.2 Common Structures of Modal Auxiliaries :

<b>Affirmative</b>	Subject	<b>M.A. Verb</b>	Object	Other words.
<b>Negative</b>	Subject	<b>M.A. not Verb</b>	Object	Other words.
<b>Interrogative (A)</b>	<b>M.A. Subject</b>	<b>Verb</b>	Object	Other words ?
<b>Interrogative (N)</b>	<b>M.A. Subject</b>	<b>not Verb</b>	Object	Other words ?

**Example :**

<b>Affirmative</b>	Aum	<b>can speak</b>	English	fluently.
<b>Negative</b>	Aum	<b>cannot speak</b>	English	fluently.
<b>Interrogative (A)</b>	<b>Can Aum</b>	<b>speak</b>	English	fluently ?
<b>Interrogative (N)</b>	<b>Can Aum</b>	<b>not speak</b>	English	fluently ?

### 10.3.3 Uses of Primary Auxiliaries :

#### **BE**

BE is used to form Continuous tenses

BE is used to build Passive form

#### **HAVE**

HAVE is used to form Perfect tenses.

#### **DO**

DO is used to form Negative of Simple Present and Simple Past.

DO is used to form Interrogative of Simple Present and Simple Past.

DO is used to avoid repeating the same verb or phrase.

DO is used to make an affirmative or imperative emphasis.

### 10.3.4 Uses of Modal Auxiliaries :

### Adverbials and Auxiliaries

#### SHALL

SHALL is used in the first persons to express futurity.

SHALL is used in the first person to express permission and suggestion.

SHALL is used in the Second and Third Person to express a command.

SHALL is used in the Second and Third Person to express a promise.

SHALL is used in the Second and Third Person to express a threat or warning.

#### SHOULD

SHOULD is the past form of SHALL and is used in Indirect Speech.

SHOULD is used to express duty or obligation.

SHOULD is used to express a Possibility or Supposition in conditional clauses.

SHOULD is used to express unreal condition.

SHOULD is used after 'lest' in a clause to express purpose.

SHOULD is used to express possibility or likelihood.

SHOULD with Perfect Infinitive is used to indicate a past obligation which was not fulfilled.

#### WILL

WILL is used to express futurity in the Second and Third Person.

WILL is used to express determination in the First Person.

WILL is used to express promise in the First Person.

WILL is used to express threat in the First Person.

WILL is used to express willingness in the First Person.

#### WOULD

WOULD is the past form of WILL and is used in Indirect Speech.

WOULD is used to express a past habit of a person.

WOULD + like to + v' is used to express a wish.

WOULD is used to make a polite request.

'WOULD + rather' is used to express a preference or choice.

WOULD is used in the main clause, when preceded or followed by a subordinate clause expressing an improbable condition.

'WISH + WOULD' is used to express intention.

'WOULD You mind + V + ing' may be used to request in a natural way.

#### CAN

CAN is used to express ability.

CAN is used to express capacity.

CAN is used to express permission.

CAN is used to express possibility.

## **COULD**

COULD is the past form of CAN and is used in indirect Speech.

COULD is used to express a past ability or capacity of a person.

COULD is used to make a polite request.

COULD is used to express permission.

## **MAY**

MAY is used to express permission in an informal and polite way.

MAY is used to express probability.

MAY is used to express a wish.

MAY is used in Subordinate Clause to express purpose.

## **MIGHT**

MIGHT is the past form of MAY and is used in Indirect Speech.

MIGHT is used to express possibility or probability.

MIGHT is used to express permission.

MIGHT is used to make a gentle reproach.

## **MUST**

MUST is used to express duty or obligation. But it is much stronger than SHOULD.

MUST is used to make an order.

MUST is used to express necessity and unavoidability.

MUST is used to express a fixed or strong determination.

MUST is used to express strong likelihood or probability.

## **OUGHT (TO)**

OUGHT (TO) is used to express moral duty or obligation. It also expresses necessity.

‘OUGHT (TO) + Perfect Infinitive’ is used to express a past obligation which was not fulfilled.

OUGHT (TO) is used to express fitness.

## **USED (TO)**

USED (TO), as an auxiliary, expresses a discontinued habit or a routine in the past.

## **DARE**

DARE, as a modal, is commonly used with ‘not’ or in Interrogative sentences.

## **NEED**

NEED is used with ‘hardly’.

NEED is commonly used with ‘not’.

NEED without not may be used in questions

### 10.6.1 Modal Auxiliaries & Their Meanings :

### Adverbials and Auxiliaries

Modal Auxiliary	Meaning attached to a Modal auxiliary.
Shall	Futurity, Willingness, intention, suggestion, insistence
Will	Futurity, willingness, intention, prediction, insistence, request
Should	Obligation, advisability, necessity, expectation.
Would	Willingness, habitual action, possibility, wishes, desires.
Can	Ability, permission, request, possibility.
Could	Ability, request, possibility.
May	Permission, possibility, wishes, purpose, concession.
Might	Permission, possibility, concession, reproach.
Must	Necessity, prohibition, compulsion, obligation, certainly, probability.
Ought (to)	Moral obligation, duty, necessity, desirability.
Used (to)	Past discontinued habit.
Need (to)	Necessity, importance, desirability.
Dare	Challenge, courage, boldness disapproval.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

**FILL IN BLANKS WITH 'SHALL,' 'SHOULD', 'WILL,' OR 'WOULD'.**

1. I \_\_\_\_\_ try to come.
2. They \_\_\_\_\_ pay all their taxes.
3. She \_\_\_\_\_ be expelled from hostel if she comes late.
4. We \_\_\_\_\_ not be dishonest.
5. What time \_\_\_\_\_ I come ?
6. She wishes she \_\_\_\_\_ stay with her family.
7. I \_\_\_\_\_ like to go to a movie tonight.
8. Mr. Raja \_\_\_\_\_ be an expert in Physics.
9. We \_\_\_\_\_ do whatever we can, to help you.
10. She told me that she \_\_\_\_\_ consult a doctor.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

**FILL IN BLANKS WITH 'CAN,' 'COULD', 'MAY,' OR 'MIGHT'.**

1. She \_\_\_\_\_ speak English fluently.
2. She said that she \_\_\_\_\_ not do so.
3. My boss said that he \_\_\_\_\_ be late.
4. I told you that she \_\_\_\_\_ not chose you.
5. You \_\_\_\_\_ not be able to see him today. His is very busy.

6. \_\_\_\_\_ I go home now, sir ?
7. She was so angry, she \_\_\_\_\_ have screamed.
8. \_\_\_\_\_ God help you!
9. He \_\_\_\_\_ be a famous actor one day.
10. You \_\_\_\_\_ warn and save him earlier.

#### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4**

**FILL IN BLANKS WITH 'SHOULD,' 'OUGHT TO', 'MUST,' OR 'USED TO'.**

1. We \_\_\_\_\_ remember those who died for our country.
2. The light is on. Mina \_\_\_\_\_ be reading.
3. You \_\_\_\_\_ not misbehave in the class.
4. I \_\_\_\_\_ go there frequently but these days I can't.
5. She \_\_\_\_\_ be mad to do this.
6. You \_\_\_\_\_ be fluent in French if you go to France.
7. The doctors \_\_\_\_\_ treat the patients nicely.
8. He explains the things very well. He \_\_\_\_\_ be a teacher.
9. One \_\_\_\_\_ follow the commands in the army.
10. You \_\_\_\_\_ assure your parents of your honesty.

#### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 5**

**FILL IN BLANKS WITH 'DARE', OR 'NEED'.**

1. How \_\_\_\_\_ you go against me ?
2. \_\_\_\_\_ I go there ?
3. You \_\_\_\_\_ not worry. Your husband is recovering.
4. How \_\_\_\_\_ you open my letter ?
5. I \_\_\_\_\_ not buy this book.
6. How \_\_\_\_\_ you tell a lie ?
7. How \_\_\_\_\_ you come into my room ?
8. You \_\_\_\_\_ not go to temple every day.
9. We \_\_\_\_\_ not feel sorry for this little mistake.
10. He \_\_\_\_\_ not oppose me.

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#### **10.4 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit, we have discussed about two major aspects of English grammar i.e. adverbials and auxiliaries. Adverbials and adverbs are similar however they are not the same. There are various types of adverbials as per the functional grammar. In addition to this, the meaning and usage of auxiliaries have been discussed in detail in this unit.

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**10.5 KEY WORDS**


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1. adverb – a word that modifies something other than a noun
  2. auxiliary – furnishing added support
  3. circumstances – one's overall condition in life
  4. clause – a separate section of a legal document
  5. contingency – the state of being dependent on something
  6. depict – give a description of
  7. express – communicate beliefs or opinions
  8. fluent – expressing yourself readily, clearly, effectively
  9. imply – express or state indirectly
  10. infer – conclude by reasoning
  11. interrogative – relating to verbs that ask for a reply
  12. misbehave – act badly
  13. proactive – causing something to happen rather than waiting to respond
  14. reproach – express criticism towards
  15. seldom – not often
  16. semantic – of or relating to meaning or the study of meaning
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**10.6 BOOKS SUGGESTED**


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Teacher's Grammar of English : a course book and reference guide, Cowan, Ron, Cambridge University Press

Practical English Grammar, 4th ed., Thomson, A. J. | Martinet, A. V., Oxford University Press

Practical English Grammar Exercises 1, 3rd ed., Thomson, A. J. | Martinet, A. V., Oxford University Press

Practical English Grammar Exercises 2, 3rd ed., Thomson, A. J. | Martinet, A. V., Oxford University Press

Complete Course in English, Dixon, Robert J., PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd.

Understanding English Grammar, Kolln, Martha, Pearson Education, 7th ed.

Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English, Biber, Douglas, Longman

Objective General English, Aggarwal, R. S., S. Chand & Company Pvt. Ltd.

Grammar in Practice 1 : 40 units self study grammar exercises with tests, Gower, Roger, Oxford University Press

Grammar in Practice 2 : 40 units self study grammar exercises with tests, Gower, Roger, Oxford University Press



Grammar in Practice 3 : 40 units self study grammar exercises with tests, Gower, Roger, Oxford University Press

Grammar in Practice 4 : 40 units self study grammar exercises with tests, Gower, Roger, Oxford University Press

**ANSWERS**

**Check your progress 1**

1. D, 2. J, 3. H, 4. G, 5. A, 6. I, 7. E, 8. B, 9. F, 10. C

**Check your progress 2**

1. Shall, 2. Should, 3. Will, 4. Should, 5. Should, 6. Would, 7. Would, 8. Will, 9. Shall, 10. Would

**Check your progress 3**

1. Can, 2. Could, 3. Might, 4. Might, 5. May, 6. May, 7. Might, 8. May, 9. May, 10. Can

**Check your progress 4**

1. Should, 2. Must, 3. Should, 4. Used to, 5. Ought to, 6. Must, 7. Should, 8. Must, 9. Ought to, 10. Should

**Check your progress 5**

1. Dare, 2. Need, 3. Need, 4. Dare, 5. Need, 6. Dare, 7. Dare, 8. Need, 9. Need, 10. Dare

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**11.0 Objectives****11.1 Introduction****11.2 Clause****11.3 Finite Clause****11.3.1 Definition****11.3.2 Let's Make it Simpler****11.3.3 Types****11.3.4 Check Your Progress I****11.4 Non Finite Clause****11.4.1 Definition****11.4.2 Types****11.4.3 Check Your Progress II****11.5 Let Us Sum Up****11.6 Key Words****11.7 Self Evaluation Exercises****11.8 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**11.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- discuss the sentence structure and its main components,
- deduce the syntactic functions of finite and non finite clauses,
- show various usages of clauses and its sub categories, respectively.

On completing the unit you should be able to;

- identify and correct the sentence errors,
  - use the knowledge of clauses in speech,
  - apply the aforementioned clauses in two core areas of basic skills i.e. writing and speaking.
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**11.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Grammarians and linguists point out two basic units that combine words for use in sentences. *Phrases* are groups like noun phrases, prepositional phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, and adverbial phrases. These groups of words are used in sentences, but they do not themselves have the internal structure of sentences. A noun phrase has a noun plus all kinds of

other things—determiners, adjectives, nouns, and more. Unlike a clause, a noun phrase doesn't have a subject and predicate structure.

Traditional grammar identifies sentences based on the structure the clauses in three ways : simple, complex and compound. A clause is considered a major unit when a sentence is analysed scientifically. Clauses can be primarily divided into two : dependent and independent. The clause that can stand alone is called an independent clause and the rest are dependent clauses. *A simple sentence consists of an independent clause.*

The significance of the verb in a clause is seen not only in determining its structure in terms of the elements which constitute it, but also in identifying and defining the two types of clauses according to the form and presence of the verb in it.

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## 11.2 CLAUSE

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A clause is a string of words which expresses a proposition and it, typically, consists of at least a verb :

- *David sings.*
- *Yesterday, we visited Canterbury.*

A sentence may contain one or more clauses.

For e.g. *She retired early because she was ill.*

The aforementioned sentence contains two clauses : a matrix (main) clause *she retired early*; and a subordinate clause *because she was ill*.

In Linguistics, clauses are divided into two : finite and nonfinite. A Finite Clause usually contains a subject and a finite verb (marked for tense, person, and number). It can be either dependent or independent. In contrast, nonfinite clause is formed with a nonfinite verb, a verbal element which is not marked for tense, person, or number. Nonfinite clauses are always dependent or embedded, since a main clause must have a finite verb. A finite verb is a verb that's marked for tense, person or number while a nonfinite verb doesn't indicate any of these.

**For e.g.** *Before sleeping, you have to brush your teeth.*

**Explanation :** “**Have**” here indicates the present tense, so it is a finite verb.

In the same sentence, *sleeping*, doesn't indicate any tense, so it's considered as a nonfinite verb.

So, “*before sleeping*” is a nonfinite (subordinate) clause while “*you have to brush your teeth*” is a main clause (always finite).

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## 11.3 FINITE CLAUSE

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### 11.3.1 Definition :

“The general term ‘finite’ is related to its everyday sense of ‘limited’, a finite verb is characteristically limited with respect to person and number [marked for person and tense]. A finite clause includes a primary verb – a verb that can be inflected for tense, person and sometimes number – and

includes a subject. Finite clauses must contain a verb which shows tense. They can be main clauses or subordinate clauses. A finite clause is an independent clause, which can serve as a

- stand-alone clause (sentence),  
*e.g. Ruskin raises his hand constantly.*  
This is called the “**main clause**” or “**matrix clause**”.
- a coordinate clause,  
*e.g. He raises his hand constantly and he talks in class.*  
(underlined above is a coordinate clause)
- a subordinate clause, or  
*e.g. Ruskin raised his hand so that he could ask a question.*  
(underlined above is a subordinate finite clause)
- a supplementary clause.  
*e.g. Ruskin likes the teacher's attention, so he raises his hand constantly.*  
(underlined above is a supplementary finite clause)

### 11.3.2 Let's Make It Simpler :

Look at each of the examples given below and identify the tense :

Sentences	Examples	Explanation
I	Roger plays Tennis.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Present tense verb form is <i>plays</i>.</li> <li>• It can also be changed to past tense as in <i>Roger played Tennis</i>.</li> </ul>
II	I was doing my assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The verb phrase was doing contains the past tense form <i>was</i>.</li> <li>• It can also be changed to the present tense as in <i>I am doing my assignment</i>.</li> </ul>

Aforementioned are called finite clauses because they contain finite verbs i.e. verbs in the present tense or past tense form.

### 11.3.3 Types :

A finite clause is one which has a Finite verb (which agrees with the Subject) and usually a Subject.

There are five types of finite clauses :

#### I. Simple Finite Clause :

Simple finite-clauses are most common clauses. A plain sentence consists of a single simple finite-clause.

**For e.g.** *The cricket team is travelling to India. I like desserts.*

## II. Simple Finite with Connector :

Finite clauses often function as Adjunct (a word or phrase that constitutes an optional element or is considered of secondary importance in a sentence, for example *on the table* in *we left some flowers on the table*) in a clause, specifying some circumstance of the clause. They usually have a connector at front, signalling the relation to the main clause :

For e.g. *I left because she cooks badly.*

*I like desserts because it tastes sweet.*

## III. Relative-Clause :

A relative clause appears as a post-modifier to a noun phrase (in the Qualifier slot).

For e.g. *The man that I saw*

*The car that Mary likes.*

However relative clauses differ from wh-clauses :

- They function only as a post-modifier of noun phrase, while a wh-nominal clause cannot.
- In most cases, *that* can be used instead of a wh-pronoun : *the man that came to dinner; the man who came to dinner.*

## IV. Wh-Nominal Clause :

Wh-nominal clauses generally function as Subject, Object or Complement, usually replacing reported speech or thought without explicit detail. For e.g. *What you told is wrong.* (Subject)

*I know what you told.* (Object)

*It is what he told.* (Complement)

## V. That-Clause :

A that-clause is a finite clause fronted by “that”, and which represents a fact being presented to the addressee. Most typically, they appear as Subject or Object in a verbal or mental process :

For e.g. *That she is bold is known by many.* (Subject)

*Mory told him that he was not going.* (Object)

### 11.3.4 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS I :

**STATE WHETHER THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES ARE FINITE OR NON FINITE CLAUSES.**

**Respective blanks :**

1. [Everybody left just after the ceremony.] \_\_\_\_\_
2. [Inviting your sister] was not a great decision. \_\_\_\_\_
3. I'll be home around ten [if my train is on time.] \_\_\_\_\_
4. [They expect Susan to do all the work.] \_\_\_\_\_
5. [Deprived of oxygen,] plants will quickly die. \_\_\_\_\_

**11.4.1 Definition :**

A non-finite clause contains a verb which does not show tense which means it does not show the time at which something happened. We usually understand the time referred to from the context of the main clause. A nonfinite clause includes a secondary verb – a verb not inflected for tense, person or number (e.g., infinitival, gerundial or past participial verb form) – and occasionally a subject (e.g., his, him for).

A nonfinite clause is a dependent clause formed with a nonfinite verb, which can serve as a

- subject,  
*e.g. Discussing in class is encouraged.*  
(underlined above is a subject)
- a verbal complement,  
*e.g. Bond likes discussing current affairs.*  
(underlined above is a verbal complement)
- a prepositional complement, or  
*e.g. Bond is used to discussing current affairs.*  
(underlined above is a prepositional complement)
- a noun complement  
*e.g. Ruskin encouraged by his friends discussed well.*  
(underlined above is a noun complement)

**11.4.2 Types :**

There are three types of nonfinite clauses.

**I. To-Infinitive Clause :**

In this clause, the verb comes after the word *to*. The to-infinitive is the base form of the verb which is preceded by to. It may also include the perfect, progressive, and passive. To-infinitive clauses are easy to recognise because they have an infinitive verb form following to.

**For e.g.** *I want to give you a present.* (Simple and Active)

*He seems to have left.* (Perfect)

*Sally appears to be doing well.* (Progressive)

*She wants to be given more responsibility.* (Passive)

**II. Present Participle Clause (–ing Clause)**

In this clause, the verb ending – *ing* is used. A nonfinite gerund clause has an –*ing* verb form (secondary verb). This structure is called a “**gerund phrase**” in traditional grammar. Gerund participle is a merged term for the –*ing* form that has multiple functions (uses).

**For e.g.** *Before becoming a bank robber, he was a police officer.*  
*Sitting quietly, Tina read the fictional trilogy.*  
*Kate remembers breaking the dish.*

### III. Past Participle Clause :

In this clause, the past participle form of the verb is used. A nonfinite participle clause usually has a –ed or –en verb form (secondary verb). Participle clauses mostly occur as noun complements. To recognise –ed participle clauses, we need to remember that an –ed participle form does not always end in –ed. This is because some verbs are irregular.

**For e.g.** *The book given to him was very valuable.*  
*The children annoyed with Bond complained to the teacher.*  
*They will replace the dish broken by Kate.*

#### 11.4.3 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS II :

**IDENTIFY THE NONFINITE CLAUSE FROM THE PASSAGE GIVEN BELOW.**

Several couples hoped to marry this weekend. A hurricane pounding the East Coast changed their plans. It was impossible to hold their weddings as planned. Three couples not wanting to delay decided to marry in Central Park. They said their vows standing in the rain and undisturbed by barely anyone.

1. Several couples hoped to marry this weekend.  
The nonfinite clause is \_\_\_\_\_
3. A hurricane pounding the East Coast changed their plans.  
The nonfinite clause is \_\_\_\_\_
3. It was impossible to hold their weddings as planned.  
The nonfinite clause is \_\_\_\_\_
4. Three couples not wanting to delay decided to marry in Central Park.  
The nonfinite clause is \_\_\_\_\_
5. They said their vows standing in the rain and undisturbed by barely anyone.  
The nonfinite clause is \_\_\_\_\_

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#### 11.5 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit you have learnt :

- the functions of and difference between finite and nonfinite clauses
- types of finite clauses i.e. simple finite clause, with connector, Wh-clause, that clause and relative clause.
- types of nonfinite clauses i.e. to–infinitive, –ing participle, –ed participle (gerund phrase)
- identification and application in speech.

## 11.6 KEY WORDS

**Phrase** : a grammatical term refereeing to a group of words that does not include a subject and verb.

**Finite Clause** : a main clause or a subordinate clause that must have a verb to show tense.

**Non-finite Clause** : subordinate clause that is based on a to-infinitive or a participle

## 11.7 SELF EVALUATION EXERCISES

### PRACTICE SESSION I :

**IDENTIFY THE VERB FORM TYPE IN BOLD IN THE SENTENCES GIVEN BELOW.**

(Check your answers with that given at the end of the unit)

1. Rain, rain go away. **Come** again another day. \_\_\_\_\_
2. Weather **seen** from inside a window is always worse. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Rain **falling** down makes puddles on the ground. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Everyone wants to **talk** about the weather, but nobody is willing to do anything about it. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Weather is a great metaphor for life – sometimes it's good, sometimes it's bad, and there's nothing much you can **do** about it but carry an umbrella. \_\_\_\_\_

### PRACTICE SESSION II :

**IDENTIFY THE CLAUSE (FINITE OR NONFINITE) IN THE SENTENCES GIVEN BELOW.**

(Check your answers with that given at the end of the unit)

1. Bobby believes [Bless to be beautiful].
2. Tom tried [to travel to Toronto].
3. Thomas thinks [that Ron walks too fast].
4. Hamilton hopes [for Victoria to hug him].
5. Alan asked [if Pam could play longer].
6. Sammy answered [that she had to leave].

### PRACTICE SESSION III :

**IDENTIFY THE TO-INFINITIVE FROM THE NONFINITE CLAUSES GIVEN BELOW.**

(Check your answers with that given at the end of the unit)

1. It only took us about twenty minutes to get here.
2. I'd be quite keen to try anything like that.
3. Does anyone else want to be nominated ?



4. To reach it on foot, you must navigate hundreds of miles across a perishing sub-zero landscape.
5. The person to make the report to at the police station was the Sergeant.

**PRACTICE SESSION IV :**

**IDENTIFY THE -ING PARTICIPLE FROM THE NONFINITE CLAUSES GIVEN BELOW.**

**(Check your answers with that given at the end of the unit)**

1. Thank you for your letter enquiring about vacancies at the Museum shop.
2. I remember being 3-2 down to Liverpool in the semi-final.
3. I hope you don't mind sleeping on the floor.
4. Overtaking a moving vehicle is more dangerous.
5. You are the only one capable of solving the problem

**PRACTICE SESSION V :**

**IDENTIFY THE -ING PARTICIPLE FROM THE NONFINITE CLAUSES GIVEN BELOW.**

**(Check your answers with that given at the end of the unit)**

1. This is a diagram of the respiratory system taken from front to back.
2. Compared with London, travel around Brussels is so amazingly hassle-free.
3. The evidence given to Cullen was monitored closely.
4. First across the line was East Germany in 1969, followed by West Germany in 1972.
5. A woman recognized as one of the hostages was found unharmed in the building.

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## **11.8 BOOKS SUGGESTED**

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### **Dictionaries for reference**

- *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*
- *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* by Bas Aarts, Sylvia Chalker, Edmund Weiner. 2nd edition.

### **Suggested Reading**

- *A Student's Introduction to English Grammar* by Rodney Huddleston, Geoffrey K. Pullum
- *The Structure of Modern English : A Linguistic Introduction, Volume I* by Laurel J. Brinton
- *English Grammar for Today : A new introduction* by Geoffrey N. Leech, Margaret Deuchar, Robert Hoogenraad.

## ANSWERS

## Finite – Non Finite Clause

### Check Your Progress I :

1. The bracketed clause is a matrix clause, so it must be finite. The verb left is a past tense form.
2. The bracketed clause is nonfinite, since the verb inviting is an –ing form.
3. The bracketed clause is a finite subordinate clause. The verb is in a present tense form.
4. The bracketed clause is a matrix clause, so like 1, it must be finite. It has a finite verb expect (present tense), though it does have a nonfinite subordinate clause within it (Susan to do all the work).
5. The bracketed clause is nonfinite, since the verb deprived is an –ed form.

### Check Your Progress II :

1. “marry this weekend” (The marker “to” is analyzed as a subordinator and not an actual part of the nonfinite clause.)
2. “pounding the East Coast”
3. “hold their weddings as planned” (The marker “to” is analyzed as a subordinator and not an actual part of the nonfinite clause.)
4. “not wanting to delay”
5. “standing in the rain” and “undisturbed by barely anyone”

### Practice Session I :

1. Plain form – “Come” is an imperative : its subject is understood, it uses “do” support, and it can be the main verb of the clause.
2. Past participle form – “seen” is the head of the nonfinite clause that modifies “weather”.
3. Gerund–participle form– “falling” is the head of the nonfinite clause that modifies “rain”.
4. Plain form (infinitival) – “talk” is the head of the nonfinite clause “talk about the weather”. The clause complements the verb “want”.
5. Plain form – “do” is the head of the nonfinite clause “do about it”. The clause complements the modal “can”. (It is also called a “bare infinitive”).

### Practice Session II :

- |                      |                      |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. non-finite clause | 2. non-finite clause |
| 3. finite clause     | 4. non-finite clause |
| 5. finite clause     | 6. finite clause     |

### Practice Session III :

1. to get here.
2. to try anything like that.
3. to be nominated ?

4. To reach it on foot
5. to make the report to at the police station

<b>Practice Session IV :</b>
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1. enquiring about vacancies at the Museum shop.
2. being 3–2 down to Liverpool in the semi–final.
3. sleeping on the floor.
4. Overtaking a moving vehicle
5. solving the problem

<b>Practice Session V :</b>
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1. taken from front to back.
2. Compared with London
3. given to Cullen
4. followed by West Germany in 1972.
5. Recognized as one of the hostag

♦ ♦ ♦ ♦ ♦ ♦ ♦

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**: STRUCTURE :**  
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**12.0 Objectives****12.1 Introduction****12.2 Sentence and Non-sentence****12.3 Sentence and Its Parts****12.3.1 Object****12.3.2 Subject Complement****12.3.3 Object Complement****12.3.4 Adverb Complement and Adjuncts****12.4 Subject and Verb Agreement****12.5 Word Order****12.6 Types of English Sentence****12.7 Let Us Sum Up****12.8 Key Words****12.9 Suggested Books****Answers**  
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**12.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall have the following Objectives;

- what is a sentence and what is not a sentence,
- the constituents of the sentence – subject and predicate,
- formal and functional categories in the predicate phrase,
- subject and verb agreement,
- word order in the English sentences.

On completion of this unit, you should be able to;

- distinguish between sentences and non-sentences,
- learn a sentence and its parts,
- understand the basic elements in the predicate phrase,
- identify Formal and functional categories in the predicate phrase,
- make correct use of subject and verb agreement.

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**12.1 INTRODUCTION**

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A sentence is the largest grammatical unit of language. Therefore, we must differentiate a sentence from what is not a sentence. In this unit we are going to understand in detail the organization of a sentence from a formal as well as a functional point of view.

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## 12.2 SENTENCES AND NON-SENTENCES

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Read the following expressions.

Which of them are sentences and which are not ?

1. The blue pen
2. When he came college
3. Ravi reads a book.
4. At the bus stop
5. The principal meeting at 11 o'clock in the morning.
6. She going tomorrow
7. What a beautiful flower it is !
8. Will he come for the party ?
9. Mango eats Arnav.
10. Children was playing on the ground.

Let us now discuss why some of these are sentences but others are non-sentences.

When we read expression (1) we understand that 'the pen is blue', but we cannot say that 'the blue pen' is a sentence, because we know that a sentence requires a subject and predicate, 'the blue pen' can be a subject but there is no verb.

The expression (2) has a subject 'he' and it has also predicate 'came college.' But we do not call it a sentence because

(a) There is a comma after it, and

(b) It begins with 'when', which needs a main clause to complete its meaning

The expression at (3) is a sentence because it has a subject 'Ravi' and predicate 'reads a book' and the meaning here in this sentence is complete.

The expression at (4) 'at the bus stop' has neither subject nor predicate. It is therefore a non-sentence.

The expression at (5) tells us that there is meeting at 11 o'clock, but the expression 'is' without any verb which is the main part of predicate.

The expression (6) 'She going tomorrow' has a subject and a predicate, but the predicate 'going tomorrow' does not carry tense.

The expression (7) is a sentence it has a subject 'it' and also a predicate 'a beautiful flower' the verb 'is' indicates present tense and there is an exclamation mark (!) at the end of it.

Similarly, the expression (8) can be a sentence because it has a subject 'he', a predicate 'come for the party', and there is a question mark at the end of it.

The expression at (9) is not a sentence because the subject, verb and other words are not in proper order. It is therefore ungrammatical.

The expression at (10) has subject and predicate, and its verb ‘was’ indicates tense but its subject ‘children’ is plural and the verb ‘was’ is singular, so it is not a grammatical sentence.

What we understood from the above examples is as follows :

1. A sentence must have a subject and predicate.
2. It starts with a capital letter.
3. It must convey a complete thought.
4. It ends with a full stop (.), a question mark (?) or an exclamation mark (!).
5. If there are expressions like when, if, while, where etc., it needs a main clause to complete its meaning.
6. There should be a proper word order and subject – verb agreement, for the sentence to be grammatical.

### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS – 1**

**Which of the following are non-sentences and why ?**

1. Because Merry pulled my hair.
2. It is raining outside.

## **12.3 SENTENCE AND ITS PARTS**

A sentence is made up of two parts : subject and predicate. The subject of a sentence is the theme of the sentence and a predicate tells us new information about the subject.

### **Subject :**

The subject refers to the part of the sentence that tells whom or what the sentence is addressing.

**See for example :**

Kiran is crying	Who is crying ?	Kiran
Neeta likes chocolate	What does Neeta like ?	Neeta
The parade was exciting	What was exciting ?	The parade

The subject is a noun, pronoun or a noun phrase.

1. John is a student. (noun as a subject)
2. The postman has posted a letter. (noun phrase as a subject)
3. What you say is untrue. (noun clause as a subject)

### **Predicate :**

The predicate can be considered as one of the most important parts of a sentence. It is basically the part which says something about the subject and always contains a verb. A predicate can be one word or several words. In the predicate part there are other basic elements, which we are going to study now. Let us see what these basic elements are. Study the following sentence :

My father   gave   me   a new bicycle   yesterday.  
S                    V            Oi                    Od                    A

### 12.3.1 Object :

An object is a noun or pronoun that gives meaning to the subject and verb of a sentence. Some verbs are followed by a single object, while many verbs are followed by two objects– a direct object and an indirect object. Study the following sentences :

- a. **Rohit** *wrote* a novel.
- b. **She** *read* a book.
- c. **Dhoni** *hits* a six.
- d. **The dog** *chases* the cat.

In these sentences the verbs *wrote*, *read*, *hits*, *chases* indicate actions and the subjects **Rohit**, **She**, **Dhoni** etc. are the agents of action. These actions are performed on the Noun phrases a novel, a book, a six and the cat. In other words the Noun Phrases are affected by these actions. They are the Direct Objects of the verbs : write, read, hit and chase. All these verbs, which take objects, are called Transitive verbs. The verbs which do not take objects (verbs such as laugh, cry sleep, run etc.) are called Intransitive verbs.

The principal   gave   him   a medal.  
S                    V            OI                    OD

In this sentence the action of giving is directly performed on ‘a medal’ so it is the Direct Object. But the other Noun Phrase/ pronoun ‘him’ has the role of a receiver – a recipient. It is the Indirect Object (IO) of the verb ‘give’. Other verbs which take two objects are : sell, show, send, offer, tell, find, leave, find, leave, bring etc.

However, we also put the indirect object after the direct object by using ‘to’ or ‘for’.

The doctor gave medicine **to** *her*.

Shyam bought a toy for **his** *son*.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 2

- A. Identify the Direct and Indirect Objects in the following sentences.
  1. Teacher showed her the result.
  2. Krishna sent him a gift.
  3. We wish you Happy Birthday.
- B. Change the Indirect objects in the sentences below into the objects of preposition and rewrite the sentences.
  1. Rashmi sold him a car.
  2. Premal bought me a pen.

### 12.3.2 Subject Complement :

A word or word group that completes the meaning of a subject/an object.

Study the following sentences :

1. John is an engineer.
2. Snehal is a very beautiful.

In these sentences the verb 'is' is a form of the verb 'BE', and the verb in (1) there is a Noun Phrase 'an engineer' and in (2) an adjective phrase 'very beautiful'. If we simply say : 'John is' or 'Snehal is', these will be non-sentences because their meaning is not complete. The phrases 'an engineer' and 'very beautiful' complete their meaning. They are therefore called subject complement.

The verb is (Be form of the verb) is a linking verb. It is followed by a Noun Phrase or an Adjective Phrase, which functions as subject complement. There are other linking verbs like Be, Have, Do forms. These are become, feel, appear, remain, seem etc. which take Noun Phrases or Adjective Phrases as Subject Complement. **For example :**

- a. The boy appeared confident.

### 12.3.3 Object Complement :

Study the following sentences :

1. The committee appointed Patil President.

If you ask 'Who is the President' ?, the answer will be 'Patil'. It means that the Noun Phrase 'President' is related to the object 'Patil' and complements its meaning. Therefore, 'President' is object complement. The object complement is either a Noun Phrase or an Adjective Phrase. It gives more information about the object, and it occurs after the object. The verbs such as point, call, think, choose, drive, elect, and consider etc. give us sentences with object and object complement.

### 12.3.4 Adverbial Complement and Adjuncts :

An adverbial complement is an essential part of the sentence. It is a necessary element in the sentence structure. An adverb functions as a complement for a Verb Phrase. For example, study the following sentences :

1. She put the purse in the cupboard.

In this sentence, we omit the prepositional phrase 'in the cupboard' the sentence will be ungrammatical. You cannot say : She put the purse.

The phrase 'in the cupboard' is an adverb (of location). Look at the following example :

2. Mahatma Gandhi lived here.
3. All the students are in the seminar hall.

An adverbial complement can be a single adverb like here, there or a Prepositional Phrase as in the sentences no. 2 & 3. In all these sentences we cannot drop the underlined adverbial, because the remaining sentences will be ungrammatical.

Adjuncts provide information about time, place and manner of action of the verb. But they are not obligatory like Adverbial Complement. We can omit them and yet we can have an acceptable sentence. An adjunct can be a single word adverb, a prepositional phrase, a noun phrase or even a clause.



4. (Adverb)  
Satish left the party quickly.
5. (Prep. Phrase)  
Teachers went for swimming at the beach.
6. (A Noun Phrase)  
Grandmother will give you your birthday present next month.
7. (Adverb Clause)  
The swimmer seemed calm, even though the wave looked huge.

The adverbial complement occurs after the verb and the object, but the adjuncts can occur at the beginning of a sentence, in the middle or at the end. It is possible to have two or more adjuncts in a single sentence.

<b>CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 3</b>
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**Identify Adverbial Complement and Adjunct in the following sentences :**

1. I put the book on the shelf.
2. She told me the story quickly.
3. These shirts come in three sizes.
4. I kept a copy of the letter in my desk.
5. The rain lasted all night.
6. She visited her family yesterday.

---

## 12.4 SUBJECT AND VERB AGREEMENT

---

In English, the agreement relation mainly holds between the subject and the verb.

1. A singular subject requires a singular verb. The rule is restricted to the Present Tense only. The singular verb takes the inflection – s or –es.

**For example :**

The cat *chases* the mouse.

The cats *chase* the mouse.

2. First person, second person and plural subjects do not change the form of the verb.

*I* go to school. (First Person Subject)

*You* look tired. (Second Person Subject)

*Our* friends gather together every Sunday. (Third Person Plural Subject)

3. There are forms of BE & HAVE according to number and person

BE			HAVE	
I am...	We are...	Present	I have...	We have...
I was...	We were...	Past	I had...	We had...
You are...	You are...	Present	You have...	You have...
You were...	You were...	Past	You had...	You had...
He/She/It is...	They are...	Present	He/She/It has...	They have...
He/She/It was...	They were...	Past	He/She/It had...	They had...

4. Some collective nouns such as group, jury, crowd, team, committee, cabinet, government, crowd, etc. may be singular or plural, depending on the meaning.

1. **The committee** was divided in their opinion.

In this sentence, 'the committee' is taken as single unit but their opinions as plural.

2. The team was formed after the meeting.

Here, 'the team' is taken as one body, so it is singular.

5. The names of some countries and the noun phrases indicating money have a plural form. But they represent one nation and one single amount. So they are singular subjects. See for example :

The United States of America has decided to attack on Iran.

6. The plural form of subjects such as politics, economics etc. appears to plural, but they are singular, subjects. See for example :

Politics is my favorite subject.

7. The subject noun connected with another one with the phrase 'as well as' is a singular subject. See for example :

Manisha as well as Sarita helps him

8. If the subjects are both singular and are connected by the words or, nor, neither/nor, either/or, and not only /but also, the verb is singular. If the subjects are both plural and are connected by the words or, nor, neither/nor, either/or, and not only /but also, the verb is plural. See for example :

Kiran or Sonali is to blame for the incident.

Lions and Elephants are both available at the circus.

## 12.5 WORD ORDER

Word order refers to the way words re- arranged in a sentence. In English sentences, word order is fixed. The standard word order in English is = Subject + Verb + Object

Raju is reading a novel.

S                  V                  O

If there is no Object, it is just.

They cried.

S V

Some verbs need an adverb to complete the meaning of the sentence.

Flowers are everywhere.

S V Adv.

Sarita sleeps soundly.

S V Adv.

Some verbs (linking verbs) behave like the verb to be. Instead of an object the verb is followed by something called a complement. The complement may be a noun or an adjective, so there are two types of S-V-C sentences : S-V-C(noun) and S-V-C(adj). In either case, the complement describes the subject.

My cousin Rudrali is a police officer.

S V C

Those girls look very happy.

S V C

Some verbs in English take two objects—direct object and indirect object. The indirect object occurs first and then the direct object.

Ramesh bought him a car.

S V OI OD

Sometimes an S + V + O + C sentence is imbedded in a longer, more complex sentence in such a way that its verb drops out and the subject becomes the object of the new, longer sentence.

Prof. Kamble found the book interesting.

S V O C

Sometimes an S + V + O + C + A sentence is imbedded in a longer

The company / appointed / him / clerk / last week.

S V O C A

She / made / his intentions / clear / now.

S V O C A

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 4

1. Paul / gave / his wife / a gift
2. They / elected / him / president
3. Lions exist.
4. The tea / is getting / cold
5. He / reads / slowly
6. Many students / witnessed / the play
7. The college/ appointed / him / Principal / last week.

---

## 12.6 TYPES OF ENGLISH SENTENCE

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### The Structure of English Sentence and Types of English Sentences

A sentence is a grammatical structure. There are five basic sentence types and they have different functions. These basic types are :

1. **Declarative Sentence :** A declarative sentence is a mere statement that relays information. It has a normal word order and it ends with a full stop. Such sentences are the most common type in the English language; it's easy to identify them as complete sentences.

**For example :** Santosh went for shopping.

2. **Interrogative Sentence :** Interrogative sentences come in the form of a question, which means it typically ends with a question mark. There is inversion of the auxiliary verb with the subject noun phrase.

**For example :**

1. Have you received your gift ?
2. Will you be leaving city tomorrow ?

Questions ask things like who, which, what, whose, where, when, why, how etc. Here are some examples :

1. Who are you ?
2. Which city is your favourite ?
3. What is your name ?
4. Whose dog is that ?
5. Where can I buy fresh popcorn
6. When will she come ?
7. Why do you come here ?
8. How are you ?

3. **Imperative Sentence :** An imperative sentence is a lot similar to a declarative sentence in form but is easily distinguished through the message being conveyed. It deletes the subject 'you', and the verb in the imperative sentence is in its basic form. It ends with a full stop or exclamation mark. It consists of requests and commands.

**For example :**

1. Open the window.
2. Get out!
3. Clean your room.

4. **Exclamatory Sentence :** An exclamatory sentence portrays a feeling of excitement or intensity that the speaker wishes to express. It ends with an examination mark (!) and it begins with 'what' and 'how'.

**For example :**

1. What a beautiful flower it is !
2. How exciting the story is !

<b>CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : 5</b>
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**True or False :**

1. The purpose of a declarative sentence is to give demands.
2. An imperative sentence ends with a/an full stop or exclamation mark.
3. An interrogative sentence ends with a/an full stop.

**Convert the following sentences :**

1. New York is a very big city. [Convert into **Exclamatory Sentence**]
2. It was a great sight. [Convert into **Interrogative Sentence**]
3. Did she clean up your room ? [Convert into **Declarative Sentence**]

**Name the following sentences :**

1. Is basketball Mahesh's favorite sport ?
2. Close the door.
3. The popcorn was hot.
4. How is it ?
5. How nicely they are dancing!

**Simple /Compound/ Complex/Compound–Complex Sentence**

**Different types of sentences are made up of different combinations of these two types of clauses.**

**Sentences are made up of clauses :** groups of words that express a single idea. There are two types of clauses : independent clauses and dependent clauses. Independent clauses can stand alone as complete sentences. A dependent clause needs an independent clause to complete its meaning.

**Simple sentences** consist of just one independent clause; it requires only one punctuation mark at the end (a full stop, exclamation or question mark). It has a subject and only one verb.

e.g. Sony reads novel.

**Compound sentences** are made by joining simple sentences. It may also have one or more subordinate clauses. In a compound sentence the clauses are linked by coordinating conjunctions / connectives such as : and, but, so, yet.

1. Sony reads novel but Sanika reads comics.
2. I like bananas and I like grapes.
3. The essay was late, so he lost marks.
4. We can also join simple sentences with a semi-colon.
5. The essay was late; he lost marks.
6. Sony reads novel ; her friend reads comics.

**Complex sentences** are made when we combine one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The dependent clause in the following example is in italics.

1. *Because his essay was late*, he lost marks.
2. *Although Sony reads novel*, Sanika reads comics.

**Compound–Complex Sentence** has two independent clauses joined to one or more dependent clauses. In the example below, the central independent clause combines two sentence types. It serves as both the ending of the complex sentence and the beginning of the compound sentence.

1. While Sony reads novels, Jack reads comics, but Samir reads only newspaper.

When punctuating a compound–complex sentence, apply the rules for both compound and complex sentences. The example above begins with a dependent clause separated from the central clause by a comma, as in the rule for complex sentences. At the end of the sentence the independent clause is joined by a comma and the word ‘but’, as in the rule for the compound sentences.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS – 6

**Name the following sentences :**

1. It was raining cats and dogs so I closed the doors.
2. Swimming is my favorite exercise.
3. I feel sleepy whenever I read a book.
4. Chetan doesn't like cartoons because they are loud, so he doesn't watch them.

---

### 12.7 LET US SUM UP

---

In this unit you have learnt how a sentence is different from what is not a sentence. A simple sentence has parts like subject and predicate. The predicate phrase in a simple sentence is made up of a variety of functions such as direct and indirect object, complement and an adjunct. In this unit you have also learnt subject and verb agreement, the word order in English Sentence and types of sentences.

---

### 12.8 KEY WORDS

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1. **Subject** : the part of the sentence that tells whom or what the sentence is addressing.
2. **Predicate** : the part which says something about the subject and always contains a verb.
3. **Verb** : to indicate the actions, processes, conditions, or states of beings of people or things.
4. **Object** : a noun or pronoun that gives meaning to the subject and verb of a sentence.
5. **Complement** : A word or word group that completes the meaning of a subject/an object.
6. **Adjuncts** : information about time, place and manner of action of the verb.
7. **Sentence** : the largest grammatical unit of language

## 12.9 SUGGESTED BOOKS

1. Geoffrey Leech, Margaret Deuchar et al. *English Grammar for Today : A New Introduction*. 2nd Edition. Basingstoke : Palgrave Macmillan. New York. 1982.
2. Quirk R. & Greenbaum S.A. *University Grammar of English*. Abridged Edition Longman, London. 1973.

### ANSWERS

#### Check your progress – 1

Which of the following are non-sentences and why ?

1. **Because Merry pulled my hair.**  
It is non-sentence as it begins with 'because' & it needs a main clause to complete its meaning
2. **It is raining outside.**  
It is sentence because it has a subject '**It**' and predicate '**is raining outside**' and the meaning here in this sentence is complete.

#### Check your progress – 2

1. **Identify the Direct and Indirect Objects in the following sentences.**

1. Teacher showed her the result.

S + V + Oi + Od

2. Krishna sent him a gift.

S + V + Oi + Od

3. We wish you Happy Birthday.

S + V + Oi + Od

- C. **Change the Indirect objects in the sentences below into the objects of preposition and rewrite the sentences.**

1. Rashmi sold him a car.

**Ans : Rashmi sold a car to him.**

2. Premal bought me a pen.

**Ans : Premal bought a pen for me.**

#### Check your progress – 3

**Identify Adverbial Complement and Adjunct in the following sentences :**

1. I put the book on the shelf. **the adverbial is a complement**
2. She told me the story quickly– **The adverbial is an adjunct.**
3. These shirts come in three sizes.– **the adverbial is a complement**
4. I kept a copy of the letter in my desk. – **The adverbial is an adjunct**
5. The rain lasted all night.– **the adverbial is a complement**
6. She visited her family yesterday. **The adverbial is an adjunct**

**Check your progress – 4**

1. Paul / gave / his wife / a gift  
S + V + Oi + Od
2. They / elected / him / president  
S + V + O + C
3. Lions exist.  
S + V
4. The tea / is getting / cold  
S + V + C
5. He / reads / slowly  
S + V + A
6. Many students / witnessed / the play  
S + V + O
7. The college / appointed / him / Principal / last week.  
S + V + O + C + A

**Check your progress – 5**

**True or False :**

1. **False :** The purpose of a declarative sentence is to give demands.
2. **True :** An imperative sentence ends with a/an full stop or exclamation mark.
3. **False :** An interrogative sentence ends with a/an full stop.

**Convert the following sentences :**

1. New York is a very big city. [Convert into **Exclamatory Sentence**]  
**What a big city New York is !**
2. It was a great sight. [Convert into **Interrogative Sentence**]  
**Was it a great sight ?**
3. Did she clean up your room ? [Convert into **Declarative Sentence**]  
**She cleaned up your room.**

**Name the following sentences :**

1. Is basketball Mahesh's favorite sport ? – **Interrogative Sentence**
2. Close the door. – **Imperative Sentence**
3. The popcorn was hot. – **Declarative Sentence**
4. How is it ? – **Interrogative Sentence**
5. How nicely they are dancing ! – **Exclamatory Sentence**



<b>Check your progress – 6</b>
--------------------------------

**Name the following sentences :**

1. It was raining cats and dogs so I closed the doors.– **Compound Sentence**
2. Swimming is my favorite exercise.– **Simple Sentence**
3. I feel sleepy whenever I read a book.– **Complex Sentence**
4. Chetan doesn't like cartoons because they are loud, so he doesn't watch them.– **Compound–Complex Sentence**

♦♦♦♦♦♦

## Message for the Students

Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University is the only state Open University, established by the Government of Gujarat by the Act No. 14 of 1994 passed by the Gujarat State Legislature; in the memory of the creator of Indian Constitution and Bharat Ratna Dr. Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar. We stand at the seventh position in terms of establishment of the Open Universities in the country. The University provides as many as 54 courses including various Certificates, Diplomas, UG, PG, as well as Doctoral degree, to strengthen Higher Education across the state.



On the occasion of the birth anniversary of Babasaheb Ambedkar, the Gujarat government secured a quiet place with the latest convenience for University, and erected a building with all the modern amenities named 'Jyotirmay' Parisar. The Board of Management of the University has greatly contributed to the making of the University and will continue to this by all the means.

Education is the perceived capital investment. Education can contribute more to improving the quality of the people. Here I remember the educational philosophy laid down by Shri. Swami Vivekananda:

*"We want the education by which, the character is formed, strength of mind is increased, the intellect is expand and by which one can stand on one's own feet".*

In order to provide students with qualitative, skill and life oriented education at their threshold, Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University is dedicated to this very manifestation of education. The university is incessantly working to provide higher education to the wider mass across the state of Gujarat and prepare them to face day to day challenges and lead their lives with all the capacity for the upliftment of the society in general and the nation in particular.

The university, following the core motto 'स्वध्यायः परमम् तपः' does believe in offering enriched curriculum to the student. The university has come up with lucid material for the better understanding of the students in their concerned subjects. With this, the university has widened scope for those students who are not able to continue with their education in regular/conventional mode. In every subject a dedicated team for Self Learning Material, comprising of Programme advisory committee members, content writers and content and language reviewers, has been formed to cater the needs of the students.

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With all these efforts, Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University is in the process of being core centre of Knowledge and Education and we invite you to join hands to this pious *Yajna* and bring the dreams of Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar of Harmonious Society come true.

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**F.Y.B.A**

**ENGM102/ENGS102**

**INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH  
LANGUAGE AND STRUCTURE**

**Block**

**3**

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**Unit 13**

Phonology, Morphology	01
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**Unit 14**

Syntax, Pragmatics	16
--------------------	----

---

**Unit 15**

The Spread and Rise of Englishes	31
----------------------------------	----

---

**Unit 16**

Varities of Englishes	41
-----------------------	----

---

**Unit 17**

Parts of Speech	53
-----------------	----

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**: STRUCTURE :**  
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**13.0 Objectives****13.1 Introduction****13.2 Extension of the Meaning****13.2.1 Word, Morpheme and Allomorph****13.2.2 Word Classes****13.2.3 Inflectional Morphology****13.2.4 Derivational Morphology****13.2.5 Types Of Word Formation****13.2.6 Articulatory Phonetics****13.2.7 Nasality****13.2.8 Manner of Articulation****13.2.9 Place of Articulation****13.2.10 Approximants****13.2.11 Vowels****13.2.11.1 Front and Back Vowels****13.2.11.2 Lip Rounding****13.2.11.3 Diphthongs****13.3 Let Us Sum Up****13.4 Key Words****13.5 Books Suggested****Answers**  
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**13.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- to introduce the students with Morphology and its types,
- to recognize the features and functions of derivational and inflectional affixes,
- to make students familiar with the word formation,
- to learn the phoneme of English Language,
- to get acquaint with the pronunciation of the words.

---

**13.1 INTRODUCTION**

---

Morphology is the study of words, their internal structure and the changes they undergo when altered to form new words (word formation) or when they have different roles within a sentence (grammatical inflection).

Morphology is often referred to as grammar, the set of rules governing words in a language. Traditionally, grammars were based on the models of classical Latin and Greek, languages which contained a large number of endings. It is thus not surprising that classical authors were concerned with the structure of words. However, for later European languages, and certainly for modern English, the categories which were first devised for Latin and Greek are not usually applicable and can be a genuine hindrance in understanding the grammatical structure of modern languages. Grammar is a part of language which is relatively autonomous. By this it meant that it has its own internal rules and is not necessarily affected by the organization of reality outside of language.

Morphology arises basically through words merging with each other. A word becomes semantically bleached, i.e. it loses clear meaning, and becomes attached to another word – this is the stage of a clitic. After some time a clitic may further lose semantic contours and become inseparable from the lexical word it co-occurs with. Then one speaks of an inflection. This process can be carried further and this inflection may later be lost – usually through phonetic blurring – in which case there is a reduction in morphology and the language as a whole becomes analytic in type (this has happened to English in its history).

Phonology is concerned with the regularities that govern the phonetic realisations of sounds in words of a language. It looks at and tries to establish a system of sound distinctions relevant to a particular language. It then seeks to determine how the elements of this abstract system behave in actual speech. Phonology actually delineates the functioning of sounds in particular contexts. Phonetics is thus concerned with sound production while phonology studies sound behavior in realization. Adeyanju (2003) expatiates on the difference. This is in terms of phonetics being concerned with providing the set of features which can describe the sounds of a language while phonology provides the information that has to do with the functional patterning of the sounds in the language. He thus views phonetics as providing the raw materials for the description of the speech sounds production while phonology is about the organization of the sound patterns in the language. Essentially then, we could safely say that phonetics describes the production process involved in physical sounds while phonology describes the environmental factors that shape these sounds in particular points of occurrence.

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## **13.2 EXTENSION OF THE MEANING**

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### **13.2.1 Word, Morpheme and Allomorph :**

Morphology is the level of linguistics which is concerned with the internal structure of words, whether these be simple or complex, whether they contain grammatical information or have a purely lexical status. There are various units which are used on this level and they can be seen as parallel to the distinctions which have already been introduced in connection with phonology. To begin with, however, one has to deal with the word, as lay speakers have a strong awareness of this. It is a fairly imprecise notion

whose definition, if any, is chiefly derived by non-linguists from orthography. A word can be defined linguistically as an element which exhibits both internal stability and external mobility. To take an example the word *pack* is internally stable inasmuch as it cannot be broken down into further elements, i.e. *pack* does not consist of *pa* + *ck* or *p* + *ack*. It is externally mobile in as much as it can occupy various positions in a sentence, i.e. it is moved as a unit within a syntactic construction. They left the *pack* on the table and the *pack* has to be mixed again. Largely because of the imprecision of the term ‘word’ linguists frequently prefer to use another term, *morpheme*. This is the system unit on the level of morphology much as the phoneme is on that of phonology. By definition a morpheme is the smallest unit which carries meaning. It is kept apart from the phoneme in that the latter distinguishes, but does not itself carry meaning. Normally the morpheme is transcribed in curly brackets : { }, for instance in English there is a plural morpheme {S}. This morpheme naturally has a number of realizations, just consider the words *cat*, *dog* and *horse* which in the plural are *cats* /kæt+s/, *dogs* /d>g+z/ and *horses* /ho :s+iz/ respectively. In order to capture this fact, one speaks of allomorphs which are non-distinctive realizations of a morpheme just as allophones are non-distinctive realizations of phonemes. Allomorphs are a feature of the morphology of all languages.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

1. Define terms like Allomorph, Morpheme, and Phoneme.
2. What is Phonology ?

#### 13.2.2 Word classes :

Word classes are types of words grouped on the basis of their functions in sentences. They differ in their status and in the relations they may have with other words. Basically there are two categories of classes, the first carries lexical meaning and the second carries grammatical meaning. Those word classes with lexical meaning refer to concepts outside of language. Nouns exist because we conceptualize entities in the world as discrete objects and name them individually. Verbs exist because we live in time and have a clear perception of action and change on a time axis. The attributes of lexical word classes reflect those in the extra linguistic world, e.g. number and natural gender with nouns or person, number and tense with verbs. Case relations (as noted above) must be distinguished on a formal level, for instance with regard to the inflections used to mark them, and on a semantic level in respect of the notions conveyed by cases. Grammatical word classes have a language internal function and typically serve to indicate relations between lexical elements in a sentence. For instance, prepositions can express a spatial or temporal relation, e.g. *Fiona is lying on the couch*. *Fergal is under the car*. Other grammatical word classes offer information about a lexical element, e.g. the definite article shows that the noun it qualifies is a certain member of a set, e.g. *The book Fiona published last year*.

#### 13.2.3 Inflectional morphology :

In the remaining two sections of the current chapter a closer look will be taken at the two subdivisions of morphology mentioned at the outset.



Recall that inflectional morphology comprises the endings in the grammar of a language, mainly the declensions of nouns and the conjugations of verbs but also changes made to other word classes under certain grammatical conditions. The addition of the –e in the genitive case of an Irish noun like súil ‘eye’ – dath na súile ‘colour of the eye’ – is a matter of inflectional morphology. The various conjugational forms of a verb are also instances of inflectional morphology, e.g. walk, walks, walking, walked are all forms of the verb WALK with an additional inflectional morpheme (note that the abstract form of a word, the lexeme, is written in capitals to distinguish it from actual forms which are found in italics). Inflectional morphology also encompasses the formation of noun plurals. Languages like English, which are analytic in type (see section on typology below) have very regular plurals, though languages with many grammatical endings, e.g. German and Russian, have many more plural types. In English /-s/ is the most common plural ending, but a small residue of common words have irregular plurals, e.g. man : men, mouse : mice, tooth : teeth, ox : oxen. The word child has a double plural – children < child + er + en – although neither –er nor –en are used productively in modern English. With less commonly used words, especially borrowings from Latin or Greek, there may be uncertainty about how the plural is formed, e.g. in a recent discussion about holding a referendum, this word appeared variously as referendums and referenda in the plural. The process of attaching inflections to a lexical base is called affixation and there are three main types depending on the position relative to the base as outlined below.

### **PREFIX**

Any inflection which is attached to the beginning of a base is termed a prefix. Examples abound from the vocabulary of English where such elements are derivational (see next section), i.e. they form new words.

re–make un–kind in–decent re–read un–tidy in–accurate

### **SUFFIX**

An inflection which is placed at the end of a word is a suffix. Grammatical inflections in English and in most other languages tend to occur as suffixes but many the latter also fulfill word formational functions are can be seen from the following brief selection.

kind–ly wait–er book–s walk–ed quick–ly play–er mat–s jump–ed

Raymond Hickey Morphology

### **INFIX**

There exists a further option, namely that of putting the affix somewhere in the middle of the word. This is a characteristic of languages from other families outside of Indo–European, for instance of Semitic : Arabic and Hebrew make much use of this possibility. In English there are practically no instances of infixation. Historically the /n/ in the verb stand ~ stood ~ stood may be an infix but this has never had a recognizable function in the development of the language.

### 13.2.4 Derivational morphology :

This area of morphology is concerned with all types of word formation, something which involves (1) the addition of affixes to bases or (2) the linking of two bases together. These processes can be divided into two basic types, those which maintain the word-class of the input base and those which change it, often called class-maintaining and class-changing respectively. For instance, a word like *super thin* consists of two adjectives, *super* and *thin*, linked to give yet another adjective. In the case of *brainy* the noun base has an ending suffixed to it to yield an adjective, a different word class. Examples of class-maintaining derivation from English would be negation prefixing or productive verbal prefixes like that indicating repetition : *un-* in *unfriendly* and *re-* in *redo* for example. The other major area where class-maintaining derivations are found is that of nouns. Here the process of compounding is the major type, take a simple example like Irish *gearrscéal* ‘short story’ which consists of the adjective *gear* ‘short’ and the nouns *scéal* ‘story’. Another example would be *leathscéal* ‘excuse’ from *leath* ‘half’ and *scéal* again. Instances of word-class changing suffixation abound and can be quoted at random, e.g. *-ly* in *kingly*, *womanly*; *-ish* in *sheepish*, *foolish*. The change is not compulsory, this depends on the input form. Thus with *pink* : *pinkish* there is no change. There may also be an alternation in the stem on suffixation. For instance with adjectives deriving from country names this is common : *Spain* : *Spanish*; *Denmark* : *Danish*. The input word-classes for word formation vary greatly and will be discussed in more detail below. Derivations in a language can be either transparent or opaque. They are transparent when the speaker immediately recognizes the elements of which they are composed, e.g. *undoable* obviously consists of *un* + *do* + *able*. However, where the derivational process is not productive the matter becomes more difficult. Native speakers of English recognize that *warmth* is derived from *warm* + *th*. But when the vowel of the derived form is different from that of the base the case becomes less clear : *health* is derived from *heal* and would probably be recognized as such after a little reflection on the part of the native speaker. But if there is a change in vowel quality and if the meanings of the input and derived forms are different then the derivation can be justifiably termed opaque, that is the native speaker cannot recognize it intuitively.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

1. Define Inflectional Morphology.
2. Explain Derivational Morphology with examples.
3. Define word class.

### 13.2.5 Types of word formation :

Word formation in the broadest sense refers to the techniques employed in a given language to create new, complex lexical items from existing simple ones. These processes can be subdivided into a number of types. The first distinction is between those processes which are active in the present-day language and those which are fossilized. The former are termed productive while the latter are lexicalized, i.e. are no longer transparent to

native speakers of the given language. Consider the ending –wise in present-day English which is productive.

Flatwise Dublin is not the best of places to be in. Moneywise he seems to be managing quite well.

Lexicalized endings are those which cannot be used in new formations. The ending –th, as in warmth, breadth, etc. was mentioned above. Another instance is –dom as in freedom, kingdom wisdom. This class is limited and no new members occur. In the discussion of morphology so far the general term base has been used without further discussion. But in fact this requires a few further distinctions to be useful and accurate in an examination of word formation. Strictly speaking, a base refers to any unit to which any affix can be added (and in this meaning it has been employed in previous paragraphs of this chapter). Hence in derivational morphology one speaks of bases as these can take prefixes and suffixes used for word-formational purposes. You can view stems as a subgroup of the class of bases in a language.

Base : big ~ bigger (comparative : inflection) Base : big ~ biggish (new adjective : derivation)

If the internal structure of bases are considered then one can recognize a subdivision into two main types. A root is the irreducible core of a word, that part which cannot be broken down further. There are many roots in English which are also bound morphemes as seen in the following examples (all of these are ultimately words borrowed from Romance languages, chiefly French or Latin).

–mit permit, remit, commit, admit –ceive perceive, receive, conceive  
pred– predator, predatory, predate sed– sedate, sedentary, sediment

A stem is the part of a word which exists before any inflectional material is added to it. A stem may be a root as in house, dog, girl but may already be complex, for instance where an element has been added to a root for some word formational reason. Consider the following examples where the stem is the result of deriving a noun from a verb. The inflection is then added to the result by suffixation.

worker (E work + er) worker–s drinker (E drink + er) drinker–s

Not every instance of a stem, however, can be analysed as a root and a transparent ending. For instance, butter does not consist of butt + er.

### **13.2.6 Articulatory phonetics :**

First, we introduce you to the ways in which the sounds of English are produced. Second, we develop a system for classifying speech sounds on the basis of how they are produced. Simultaneously we introduce an alphabet approximating that developed by the International Phonetics Association (IPA), which will allow us to refer to sounds quite precisely. When we want to indicate that letters are to be interpreted as phonetic symbols, we enclose them in square brackets, / /, and when we want to indicate that letters are to be interpreted as letters from an ordinary spelling system, we enclose them in angled brackets, < >.

The phonetic alphabet uses many of the letters of the English alphabet, but their pronunciations are very restricted and are not always the ones you might expect. In this system, there are no “silent” letters—every phonetic symbol represents an actual sound. Every letter always has the same pronunciation regardless of its context, no letter has more than one pronunciation, and no sounds are represented by more than one letter. To make fine distinctions, phoneticians add special symbols, called diacritics, to the basic letters. For some English sounds and for languages other than English, symbols not from the English alphabet have been devised. (You might visit the IPA web site for a full listing of the symbols.) In the sections to follow, we describe the sounds represented by these symbols and how these sounds are made. As we go through these sections, pay attention to the ways in which individual sounds are ordinarily spelled in English, as well as to the phonetic spellings. To produce speech, air must flow from the lungs through the vocal tract, which includes the vocal folds (popularly called the vocal cords, though they are more like thick elastic bands than strings), the nose or nasal cavity, and the mouth or oral cavity. The vocal folds vibrate for some sounds but not for others. Air flows through the nose for certain sounds but not others. But the main creator of speech sounds is the mouth.

Consonants include the sounds we represent as <p, b, t, d, m, n, f, v, s, z, l, r, h> in the ordinary alphabet. All consonants are produced by entirely or almost entirely stopping the airstream coming from the lungs. When we almost entirely stop the airstream we force it through such a narrow opening that the airflow at that point is turbulent and noisy. We classify consonants according to the following characteristics : (a) whether or not the vocal folds are vibrating (voicing); (b) whether the sound is made with a fully stopped or merely constricted airstream (its manner of articulation); (c) where in the mouth the stoppage or constriction is made (its place of articulation); (d) whether or not air is flowing through the nasal cavity (nasality); and (e) whether or not the lips are pursed (lip rounding).

Voicing As a warm-up exercise, makes the sound fffff, and keeps it going for a count of five. Now make the sound vvvvv, and keep it going for a count of five. Now alternate these two : fffffvvvvvffffvvvvv. You probably noticed that vvvvv had a “buzz” that fffff did not have. That “buzz” is caused by the vibrating of your vocal folds—which you can check by putting your fingers on your throat or by covering your ears as you alternate fffff and vvvvv. Now try the same exercises with the first sounds of the following words : thigh, thy; sip, zip. You should be able to feel the vocal folds vibrate as you make the second sound of each pair.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

Collect a set of words in which each of the voiced and voiceless sounds listed in the two columns above occurs as the first sound of a word, in the middle of a word (specifically between two vowels), and at the end of a word, as in : /b/ bird, rubbing, rub; /p/ pan, tapping, tap. How are each of these sounds ordinarily spelled ? (Note : English single and double consonants, as in rub and rubbing, tap and tapping, represent the same

sound. The doubled consonants tell us how the vowel before them is to be pronounced; cf. tapping, taping.)

### 13.2.7 Nasality :

Make the sound represented by <m> in the word Pam and continue it for some seconds. As you continue it, pinch your nose and observe what happens to the sound. It should stop immediately. This shows that air was flowing through your nose as you produced this sound. Now try the same little experiment with the <n> of pan and the <ng> of pang. You should find that the air flows through the nose in these two cases also. Sounds in which air flows through the nose are called nasal sounds. The air is allowed into the nose by lowering the velum, the soft palate at the back of the mouth. English has three main nasal sounds :

/m/ Pam	clammy	mat
/n/ pan	clannish	Nat
/ŋ/ pang	clingy	—

### 13.2.8 Manner of articulation :

By manner of articulation we mean the kind of closure or constriction used in making the sound. We classify English consonants according to three manners of articulation : stops (full stoppage of the airstream somewhere in the oral cavity between the vocal folds and the lips, as in /p/, /b/, /m/); fricatives (constriction of the airstream in the oral cavity producing turbulence and noise, as in /f/, /v/); affricates (full stoppage of the airstream followed immediately by constriction, as in /ʧ /, / ɟʒ /).

#### Stops

/p/ pad	/b/ bad	/m/ mat
/t/ tad	/d/ dad	/n/ Nat
/k/ cad	/g/ gad	/ŋ/ tang

#### Fricatives

/f/ fie	/v/ vie	/θ/ thigh
/ð/ thy	/s/ Sue	/z/ zoo
/ʃ/ shoe	/ʒ/ jus (au jus)	/h/ how

#### Affricates

/tʃ/ chin	/dʒ/ gin
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### 13.2.9 Place of articulation :

By place of articulation we mean the area in the mouth at which the consonantal closure or constriction occurs. English uses only seven places of articulation which we describe and illustrate below. Bilabial sounds are made by bringing both lips together to stop the airstream :

/p/	pie	cupping	cup
/b/	by	clubbing	cub
/m/	my	coming	come

Labiodental sounds are made by bringing the top teeth into contact with the bottom lip and forcing air between the two to create the fricatives :

/f/	feel	raffle	tough
/v/	veal	ravel	dove

Interdental sounds are made by placing the tip of the tongue between the top and bottom teeth and forcing air through. Again, these are both fricatives :

/θ/	thigh	ether	mouth bath (noun)
/ð/	thy	either	mouth bathe (verb)

Alveolar sounds are made by bringing the tongue and the alveolar ridge (the bony ridge just behind the top teeth) together to create either a stop or fricative :

/t/	tub	boating	boat
/s/	sip	fussy	grace
/d/	dub	boding	bode
/z/	zip	fuzzy	graze
/n/	knit	boning	bone
/r/	rip	terror	tear

(Alveo-) palatal sounds are made by bringing the blade of the tongue to, or close to, the alveo-palatal area of the roof of the mouth to create fricatives and affricates :

/ʃ/	sure	vicious	rush
/ʒ/	genre	vision	rouge
/tʃ/	chin	catcher	etch
/dʒ/	gin	edger	edge

Velar sounds are created by stopping the airstream by bringing the back of the tongue into contact with the velum :

/k/	could	backer	tuck
/g/	good	bagger	tug
/ŋ/	—	banger	tongue

Glottal sounds are created by either narrowing the vocal folds sufficiently to create a fricative or closing them to create a stop :

/h/	hat	cahoots	butter (some varieties of English)
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#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

#### 1. Transcribe the following words.

- |          |           |                |
|----------|-----------|----------------|
| a. Chin  | b. Vision | c. Examination |
| d. Judge | e. Air    | f. Mistake     |
| g. Three | h. Bring  | i. Teeth       |
| j. Face  |           |                |

## 2. Write the three term label of the following sounds :

- a. /z/      b. /v/      c. /w/      d. /p/      e. /l/

### 13.2.10 Approximants :

Approximants are sounds made by narrowing the oral cavity but not enough to cause turbulence in the airstream; the airstream is said to be smooth. The beginning sounds of lye and rye are approximants. The narrowest point in the airstream is wider in approximants than in fricatives, but is not as wide as it is in vowels. Approximants are more sonorant (resonant, i.e., naturally loud) than consonants, but less so than vowels. They are like consonants in that they typically occur before or after the vowels of syllables. English has three kinds of approximants. Lateral approximants are made by touching the tongue to the alveolar ridge while allowing the air to pass along one or both sides, as in /l/—in lack, call, and callow. Central approximants are made by raising the sides of the tongue so that the air flows along the center of the tongue, as in /r/—in rock, roll, and Rory. /r/ is regarded as an alveolar sound. Glides (semivowels) come in two kinds : palatal and labio-velar. Palatal glides are made by raising the tongue toward the hard palate, close to where the vowel in eat is made. The first sound of yet, yolk, and y'all is a palatal glide, represented phonetically as /j/. Labio-velar glides are made by rounding the lips and simultaneously raising the back of the tongue toward the velum, close to where the vowel sound of ooze is made. Labio-velar glides thus have two places of articulation—they are both labial and velar. The first sound of wet, wall, and wink is a labio-velar glide, represented phonetically as /w/.

Lateral	/l/	let
Central	/r/	Rhett
Glides Labio-velar	/w/	wet
Palatal	/j/	yet

### Articulatory descriptions

An articulatory description of any consonant or approximant must specify (at least) its place and manner of articulation, whether it is voiced or voiceless, and whether it is nasal or oral. For example, /m/ is made at the lips by stopping the airstream, is voiced, and is nasal.

Voicing	voiced	voiced	voiced
Place	bilabial	labio-velar	alveolar
Manner	stop	glide lateral	approximant
Nasality	nasal	oral	oral
Example word	mime	wow	low

### 13.2.11 Vowels :

Vowels include the sounds we ordinarily represent as the letters <a, e, i, o, u>, as well as a number of other sounds for which the ordinary alphabet has no unique symbols. Vowels are distinguished from consonants in several ways. As we have seen, consonants are produced by constricting the airstream to various degrees as it flows through the oral tract. Vowels

are produced with a smooth, unobstructed airflow through the oral tract. Differences in vowel quality are produced by different shapes of the oral cavity. Characteristic vowel qualities are determined by (a) the height of the tongue in the mouth; (b) the part of the tongue raised (front, middle, or back); (c) the configuration of the lips; and (d) the tension of the muscles of the oral tract. An articulatory description of a vowel must include all of these features.

**Tongue height** Pronounce the words eat and at. Now pronounce just the vowels of these two words. Notice that as you go from the vowel of eats to the vowel of at, your mouth opens. If this is not obvious to you just by playing with these two vowels, look in a mirror as you produce them. Alternate the words, and then just the two vowels. Once you've become accustomed to the different degrees of openness of these two vowels, pronounce ate between eat and at. The degree of openness of its vowel falls between those of eat and at, so there is a continuous increase in mouth openness as you go from one vowel to another. These degrees distinguish high, mid, and low vowels. We will use the following symbols for this sequence of vowels :

eat	/i/	High
ate	/e/	Mid
at	/æ/	Low

### 13.2.11.1 Front and back vowels :

Now compare the vowel of beat with that of boot. Alternate the words, and then just the vowels. It will be more difficult this time to monitor the activities of your tongue as you shift from one of these to the other, but try anyway. You produce the /i/ of beat with the front (blade) of your tongue raised toward your palate. If you draw in your breath as you make this vowel, you will feel the cold air against your palate. As you shift from /i/ to /u/, the vowel of boot, you will find yourself raising the back of your tongue. (You will also find yourself pursing (rounding) your lips, but disregard this for the moment.) Because of the relative positions at which these vowels are made in the mouth, phoneticians call /i/ and the other vowels in (1) front vowels, and /u/ a back vowel. The back vowels, like the front ones, descend from high, through mid, to low, in a continuous sequence. You can observe this by pronouncing the words coot, coat, and cot, and then just their vowels. As you produce this series of vowels you'll find your mouth opening (monitor your lower jaw) as you go from coot to coat to cot. We use the following symbols for these back vowels :

coot	/u:/	High
coat	/ɒ:/	Mid
cot	/ɑ:/	Low

### 13.2.11.2 Lip rounding :

As we compared /i/ and /u/ you probably noticed that your lips changed shape as you shifted from the front vowel to the back one. Your lips were rounded as you produced /u/. They were unrounded (spread or



neutral) as you produced /i/. As you moved through the series of back vowels you may also have noticed that lip rounding decreased as you moved from high to low. In fact the lips are unrounded during the pronunciation of /A/. In English, the only rounded vowels are back, though many languages, such as French and German, have rounded front vowels.

### Vowels

	← Mouth wider horizontally		Mouth narrower horizontally →	
Mouth narrower vertically	i: [sleep] /sli:p/	I [slip] /sIɪp/	ʊ [book] /bʊk/	u: [boot] /bu:t/
Mouth wider vertically	e [ten] /ten/ æ [cat] /kæt/	ə [after] /a:ftə/ ^ [cup] /kʌp/	ɜ: [bird] /bɜ:d/ ɑ: [car] /kɑ:r/	ɔ: [bored] /bɔ:d/ ɒ [hot] /hɒt/

### 13.2.11.3 Diphthongs :

We have approached vowels as if they were articulated by a specific configuration of the tongue, lips, and oral cavity, which is held constant throughout their pronunciation. Vowels made like this are called monophthongs; others, called diphthongs, involve a change in the configuration of the mouth. The vowel sounds in the words like boy, by, and how involves a change in the shape of the mouth as the vowel is being produced. The vowel of boy begins with approximately the mid back vowel / ɔ: / and finishes with approximately the high front lax vowel /I/ (or the palatal glide /j/). The vowel of by begins with approximately the low back vowel /a/ (a low back vowel slightly more forward than / ɒ: /, but not as forward as / ɒ /) and also finishes with approximately /I/ (or /j/). The vowel of how begins with approximately /a/ and finishes with approximately the high lax rounded vowel /U/ (or the labio-velar glide /w/). We represent these diphthongs as / ɔI /, /aI/, and /aʊ/, respectively (though many linguists use /Oj/, /aj/, and /aw/).

### Diphthongs

I ɔ	eI	
[beer] /bIɔ/	[say] /seI/	
ʊ ə	ɔI	ə ʊ
[fewer] /fjʊə/	[boy] /bɔI/	[no] /nəʊ/
e ə	aI	a ʊ
[bear] /beə/	[high] /haI/	[cow] /kaʊ/

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 5

**1. Transcribe the following words :**

- |         |         |         |            |
|---------|---------|---------|------------|
| a. Echo | b. No   | c. Goat | d. Ablaze  |
| e. Ego  | f. Idea | g. Aunt | h. Educate |
| i. Over | j. Aid  |         |            |

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### 13.3 LET US SUM UP

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Morphology is concerned with the study of word forms. A word can best be defined in terms of internal stability (is it further divisible ?) and external mobility (can it be moved to a different position in a sentence ?). A morpheme is the smallest unit which carries meaning. An allomorph is a non-distinctive realization of a morpheme. Morphology can further be divided into inflectional (concerned with the endings put on words) and derivational (involves the formation of new words). Affixation is the process of attaching an inflection or, more generally, a bound morpheme to a word. This can occur at the beginning or end and occasionally in the middle of a word form. Morphemes can be classified according to whether they are bound or free and furthermore lexical or grammatical. Word formation processes can be either productive or lexicalised (non-productive). There are different types of word-formation such as compounding, zero derivation (conversion), back formation and clipping. English phonology is the basic concept for studying English language skills and components. In fact, it is the basic idea for acquiring good pronunciation, one of the English language components. Good pronunciation is needed for good speaking performance.

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### 13.4 KEY WORDS

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- Morphology** : The study and description of how words are formed in language.
- Phonology** : The study of the speech sounds used in a language.
- Phonetics** : The study of speech sounds.
- Sounds** : A particular auditory impression.
- Consonants** : A speech sound that is made by partly or completely stopping the flow of air breathed out from the mouth.
- Vowels** : A speech sound made with mouth open and tongue in the middle of your mouth not touching the teeth.

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### 13.5 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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Balasubramanian, T. A textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students. Trinity Press. 2014. Print.

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## **ANSWERS**

### **Check your progress 1**

1. Define terms like Allomorph, Morpheme, Phoneme.

Allomorph : Allomorph is one of a set of forms that a morpheme may take in different contexts.

Morpheme : It deals with a word or a part of a word that has e meaning and that contains no other smaller part.

Phoneme : The smallest distinctive unit of speech that can be used to make a word different from another word.

2. What is Phonology ?

Phonology is a component of linguistics which deals with the way in which sounds function in a language.

### **Check your progress 2**

1. Define Inflectional Morphology.

Inflectional morphology comprises the endings in the grammar of a language, mainly the declensions of nouns and the conjugations of verbs but also changes made to other word classes under certain grammatical conditions.

## 2. Explain Derivational Morphology.

In morphology, a *derivational morpheme* is an affix that's added to a word to create a new word or a new form of a word.

## 3. Define word class.

Word classes are types of words grouped on the basis of their functions in sentences.

<b>Check your Progress 4</b>
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## 1. Transcribe the following words.

- a. Chin – /tʃɪn/
- b. Vision – /vɪʒən/
- c. Examination – /ɪg ˈzæmɪˈneɪʃən/
- d. Judge – /dʒʌdʒ/
- e. Air – /eə/
- f. Mistake – /mɪˈsteɪk/
- g. Three – /θriː/
- h. Bring – /brɪŋ/
- i. Teeth – /tiːθ/
- j. Face – /feɪs/

## 2. Write the three term label of the following sounds :

- a. /z/ – Voiced Alveolar Fricative
- b. /v/ – Voiced Labio-dental Fricative
- c. /w/ – Voiced Labio-velar semi vowel
- d. /p/ – Voiceless Bilabial Plosive
- e. /l/ – Voiced Alveolar Lateral

<b>Check your Progress 5</b>
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## 1. Transcribe the following words :

- a. Echo – /ˈekəʊ/
- b. No – /nəʊ/
- c. Goat – /ɡəʊt/
- d. Ablaze – |əˈbleɪz|
- e. Ego – /ˈegəʊ/
- f. Idea – /aɪˈdɪə/
- g. Aunt – /ɑːnt/
- h. Educate – |ədʒʊˈkeɪt|
- i. Over – /ˈəʊvə/
- j. Aid – /eɪd/

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**14.0 Objectives****14.1 Syntax****14.1.1 Introduction****14.1.2 Syntax as a Cognitive Science****14.1.3 Modeling Syntax****14.1.4 Substitution and Word–Classes****14.1.5 Words to Phrase Types****14.1.6 Lexical Categories****14.1.7 Sticking Words Together****14.2 Pragmatics****14.2.1 Introduction****14.2.2 Speech Acts****14.2.3 Cooperative Principles****14.2.4 The Concept of Politeness****14.3 Self – Learning Activities with Answers****14.3.1 Draw Trees for the following Adjective Phrases, Adverb Phrases and Noun Phrases****14.3.2 Draw Trees for the following Noun Phrases and Prepositional Phrases****14.3.3 Draw Trees for the Verb Phrases****14.3.4 Convert the following Sentences in Polite Requests.****14.3.5 Comment on the following Utterances and Explain the Politeness Processes****14.4. Let Us Sum Up****14.5 Key Words****14.6 Books Suggested**

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**14.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- understand how language is produced through the scientific method of linguistics,
- differentiate between the various branches of linguistic study,
- learn about Syntax as a key component of linguistics,
- discern Pragmatics and its impact on language.

On completing the unit you should be able to;

- employ syntax and pragmatics on language,
- evaluate language on the yardstick of syntax and pragmatics.

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## 14.1 SYNTAX

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### 14.1.1 Introduction :

Language functions in a mysterious way; although it happens so routinely and with very less effort, the actual methods of language understanding still remains a mystery for science to unravel. The purposes to which language is put varies according to the needs of the users however in spite of the large usage and its omnipresence it is still engulfed in a layers of sub-context which need to be peeled off before we get the core of its workings. For example let's take what is happening right now, you are reading this and it makes *sense* to you, although you are not putting any conscious effort into understanding into how the process is happening. There is no conscious knowledge how you are able to extract meaning of what you are reading, still there is a semblance of sense coming out and that is the mystery surrounding language. The study of this mystery is termed as *linguistics*. Generally understanding of a language does not require extensive conscious effort, other than the early stages of second language acquisition.

Language is a psychological or cognitive property of humans. This means that there is some set of neurons in your head firing away that allows the writer to write and another set of neurons that you have which allows you to translate these collection of alphabets into coherent ideas and thoughts. Within this system there are many sub-systems which work in helping the transition from symbols to coherent meaning. One of these systems is termed as syntax— how sentences are structured. Syntax studies the level of Language that lies between words and the meaning of utterances : sentence. It is the level that mediates between sounds that someone produces (organized into words) and what they intended to say. It can also be understood as the ways in which words can be put together to make up larger units, such as sentences. The journey going from produced sounds to interpreted meaning due to the structure of the sentence is termed as Syntax.

**Example :** Consider an unobjectionable sentence such as (1)

- The princess kissed the frog.

Nobody would raise a question regarding the order of the word in this sentence, if we changed it to (2), we would completely change the meaning :

- The frog kissed the princess.

Moreover, the fact that the words come in that order is a specific fact about English that would not hold in other languages. For example in Hindi or Gujarati to provide the message in (1), you would have to say something that would translate literally as (3)

- (The) princess (the) frog kissed.

So there are some fundamentals of the grammar of a language which are so fundamental that they are virtually invisible, yet they can make a big difference to how easily we understand our language. Syntax is concerned with the ways in which sentences are made up of words, and how those sequences of words are interpreted.

#### 14.1.2 Syntax as a Cognitive Science :

Language plays an important role in how we think about abstract notions, or at the very least, Language appears to be structures in such a way that it allows us to express abstract notions. Sentences are how we get at expressing abstract thought processes, so the study of syntax is an important foundation stone for understanding how we communicate and interact with each other as humans.

#### 14.1.3 Modeling Syntax :

The dominant theory of syntax is due to Noam Chomsky and his colleagues; which is popularly known by different names, thoughts, its development, such as Transformational Grammar (TG), Transformational Generative Grammar, Standard Theory, Extended Standard Theory, Government and Binding Theory (GB), Principles and Parameters Approach (P&P) and Minimalism (MP). These are generally accepted under the blanket terms of **Generative Grammar**. The underlying thesis of generative grammar is that sentences are generated by a subconscious set of procedures (like a computer program). These procedures are part of our minds (or of our cognitive abilities). The goal of syntactic theory is to model these procedures. In other words, we are trying to figure out what we subconsciously know about the syntax of our language.

In generative grammar, the means of modelling these procedures is through a set of formal grammatical **rules**. These rules are not similar to the rules of grammar that are part of school and college education. These rules don't tell you how to properly punctuate a sentence or not to split an infinitive. Instead they tell you the order in which to put your words. These rules are thought to generate the sentence of a language, hence the name *generative grammar*. You can think of these rules as being like the command lines in a computer program. They tell you step by step how to put together words into a sentence.

#### 14.1.4 Substitution and Word–Classes :

Let us look at sentence (4)

- The man sneezed

If we consider this sentence as a string of words, then the words are not randomly chosen from English. For each of the words, we can substitute a number of others which will give us a sentence. However they may not be synonymous sentences, but they will be English sentences nonetheless. On the contrary there will be other set of words also which cannot be substituted. Consider sentence (5) which presents some possible substitutions for each of the words in (4) and (6) which show there are words which cannot be substituted in each of the available slots.

- The man sneezed  
A cat died  
Our child fainted  
Some professors laughed  
This woman snored

In (6) the (\*) is used to indicate that replacing the relevant words in (5) with the marked word would lead to something which is not a sentence of English.

- The man sneezed  
\*man \*sneezed \*the  
\*on \*on \*on  
\*afraid \*utilize \*yellow

What the examples in (4), (5) and (6) show is that words belong to different classes and that words in the same class can substitute for each other in a sentence like (4). The words in these classes are sometimes called Substitution Classes or just Word–Classes. Some substitution classes are quite large such as in (5) other are small such as in (7)

- The \_\_\_\_\_ barked.

#### 14.1.5 Words to Phrase Types :

One simple mechanism we recognize is that in forming grammatical sentences, we start from words, or ‘lexical’ categories. These lexical categories then form a larger constituent ‘phrase’; and phrases go together to form a ‘clause’. A clause either is, or is part of, a well–formed sentence.

#### 14.1.6 Lexical Categories :

The basic units of syntax are words. The first question is then what kinds of words (also known as parts of speech, or lexical categories, or grammatical categories) does English have ? Are they simply noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, and maybe a few others ? Most of us would not be able to come up with simple definitions to explain the categorization of words. For instance, why do we categorize book as a noun, but kick as a verb ? To make it more difficult, how do we know that virtue is a noun, that without is a preposition, and that well is an adverb (in one meaning) ?

Words can be classified into different lexical categories according to three criteria : meaning, morphological form, and syntactic function. Let us check what each of these criteria means, and how reliable each one is.

At first glance, it seems that words can be classified depending on their meaning. For example, we could have the following rough semantic criteria for N (noun), V (verb), A (adjective), and Adv (adverb) :

- N : referring to an individual or entity
- V : referring to an action
- A : referring to a property
- Adv : referring to the manner, location, time or frequency of an action



The main goal of syntax is building a grammar that can generate an infinite set of well-formed, grammatical English sentences. Let us see what kind of grammar we can develop now that we have lexical categories. To start off, we will use the examples in

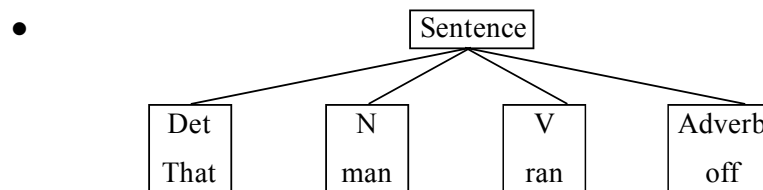
- a. A man kicked the ball.
- b. A tall boy threw the ball.
- c. The cat chased the long string.
- d. The happy student played the piano.

#### 14.1.7 Sticking Words Together :

We not only need to know what kind of words we are dealing with, but how they go together. *Kabir sneezed* is a perfectly good sentence of English, while *\*sneezed light* is not. To see how this works we need to continue the idea of substitution that was introduced in the previous section and see how sequences of words and single words can be substituted for each other and leave coherent constructions behind, so that complex constructions are elaborations of simple ones, but elaborations that hold to quite strict constraints. Each of the bits in *Kabir sneezed* can have a longer sequence of words substituted for it. Consider the various expansions suggested in (8) below :

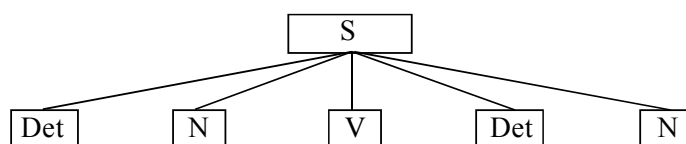
- Kabir sneezed
- The man ran off
- The bald man ran to work
- The very tall model ran to the town
- The very fit teacher of English ran quickly to the classroom

The importance of this is that we can find very complex sequences like *The very fit teacher of English ran quickly to the classroom* and discover its basic structure by substituting other words for the various Constituents of the sequence and so discover its fundamental structure. To make things easier we usually use TREES instead. Trees provide precise information. *The tree for That man ran off* would be (9)



Given only the lexical categories that we have identified so far, we can set up a grammar rule for sentence (S) like the following :  $S \rightarrow \text{Det (A) N V Det (A) N}$

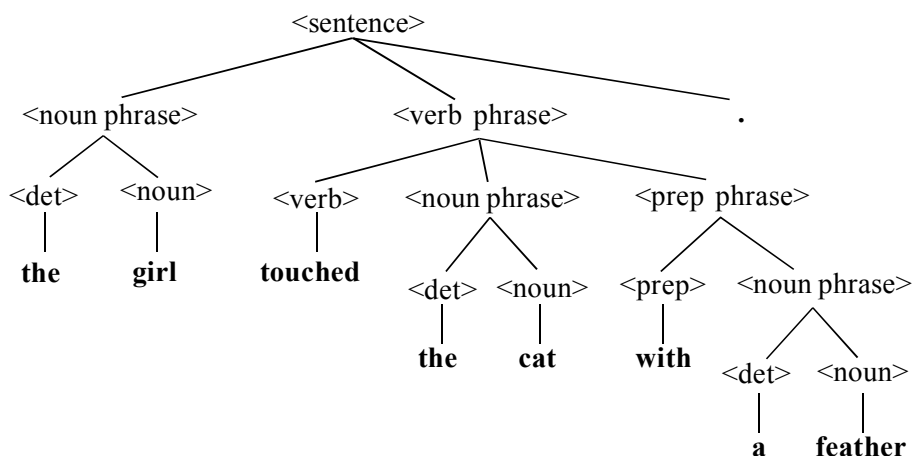
The rule tells us what S can consist of : it must contain the items mentioned, except that those which are in parentheses are optional. So this rule characterizes any sentence which consists of a Det, N, V, Det, and N, in that order, possibly with an A in front of either N. We can represent the core items in a tree structure as in



A detailed version of the Tree can be as follows :

Sentence

- (noun phrase) (verb phrase).
- (determiner) (noun phrase) (verb phrase).
- **The** (noun phrase) (verb phrase).
- **The girl** (verb phrase).
- **The girl** (verb) (noun phrase) (prepositional phrase).
- **The girl touched** (determiner) (noun phrase) (prepositional phrase).
- **The girl touched the** (noun phrase) (prepositional phrase).
- **The girl touched the cat** (prepositional phrase).
- **The girl touched the cat** (preposition) (noun phrase).
- **The girl touched the cat with** (noun phrase).
- **The girl touched the cat with** (determiner) (noun).
- **The girl touched the cat with a** (noun).
- **The girl touched the cat with a feather.**




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## 14.2 PRAGMATICS

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### 14.2.1 Introduction :

One may ask a question— What is the purpose of language ? This is a very difficult question to answer and accordingly many answers have been offered. One is that we have language in order to be able to lie. If this suggestion sounds too cynical, then you may agree with another suggestion that is frequently made, that we have language in order to communicate information. Superficially at least, this sounds more reasonable. Even a boring sentence such as, *the cat sat on the mat* tells us something about the cat and about the mat; it makes explicit the relationship between the two at some time in the past. In that sense, it appears to be communicating information.

If that is one thing that language does, though, it is not the only thing that language does. If you say, “Where are the toilets ?”, you are not so much communicating information you, as indicating precisely what information you would like the interlocutor to provide for you. If you say, ‘Close the door !’ you are inadvertently communicating that the door is open, but you are really attempting to make some other person behave in a particular way. So rather than say that the purpose of language is to communicate information, we might be better to say that language allows us to communicate information among other things.

Despite its scientific acclaim, the notion of pragmatics remains somewhat enigmatic and is still difficult to define. This holds for its readings in everyday discourse as well as in scholarly contexts. Nonetheless, when we refer to attitudes and modes of behaviour as pragmatic, we mean that they have a factual kind of orientation in common. People who act pragmatically or take a pragmatic perspective generally have a preference for a practical, matter of fact and realistic rather than theoretical, speculative and idealistic way of approaching imminent problems and handling every day affairs. To put it differently, they share a concrete, situation–dependent approach geared to action and usage rather than an abstract, situation–independent and system–related point of view. While essentially the same is true for linguistics in generally, there is no commonly accepted definition of pragmatics in linguistics which would refer to a single, unified and homogeneous field. In linguistics, is there a narrow and a broad way of delineating pragmatics. According to the narrow view, pragmatics is understood as the systematic investigation of what and how people mean when they use language as a vehicle of action in a particular context and with a particular goal in mind. Thus, the context–dependency of utterance meaning is the central component of more narrowly defined accounts of pragmatics, which focus on a few key issues that can be juxtaposed with related issues in other modules of language theory such as grammar and semantics.

Pragmatics is fundamentally concerned with communicative action in any kind of context. In the pragmatic perspective, language use and language users in interaction are primary, as opposed to language as a system of signs or a set of rules. The pragmatic perspective scrutinizes neither just individual words nor sentences nor even isolated texts, but rather whole speech events or language games in real social contexts, considering both the present state of affairs and its connectedness with prior and succeeding actions. It rejects a localization of language in a limited segment of the acts of speaking, understanding and responding or within the conscious of the individual. It supplants a view of language as an abstraction without variation by speaker, region or time, of language as a non–cultural, non–social, static, depersonalized fact independent of context and discourse. Pragmatics goes beyond the perspective of written texts with their carefully marshalled grammatical sentences to embrace everyday talk and the “messiness” of language in real embodied human contexts, where participants with personalities, feelings and goals interact in complex ways with physical objects and other participants within institutions and communities.

### 14.2.2 Speech Acts :

If you say something like (10), the saying it does not make it true

- a. I like to eat an apple.

Sentence (10) may be true, or it may be false, depending upon who *I* refers to and the time at which it is uttered. If, on the other hand, you say (11), it is not clear that it can be fairly characterised as either true or false.

- b. I promise to eat an apple.

While (10) merely describes a situation, (11) performs an action : (11) is itself the promise, while (10) does not in itself constitute the liking whether or not you keep the promise that is made by saying (11), the promise is made because you perform a promise by using the verb *promise* in this way.

There are many Performative verbs of this kind in English. Some examples are given in (12)

- c. a. I name this ship Thor.  
b. I bet your Rs. 100 that Sid is late.  
c. I now pronounce you man and wife.  
d. I sentence you to 10 years' imprisonment.  
e. I declare the convocation open.  
f. I resign.

For any of these to work, certain Felicity Conditions or Happiness Condition has to be met. For e.g. (12d) does not work as a performative unless the speaker is a judge.

Consider a sentence (13)

- d. Can you pass me the salt ?

If this sentence is posed during dinner and someone answers with a 'Yes', without following up with the action, then it may mean they have taken the sentence "literally" they have disregarded the illocutionary force that the speaker had intended. Part of the reason that 'Yes' is not a good answer to (13) is that it fails to recognize that a conversation is an exercise in cooperation. The people taking part in the conversation have to work together to make the conversation effective, and listeners will draw conclusions from apparent breaches in the cooperative principle.

### 14.2.3 Cooperative Principles :

The cooperative principle was introduced by H.P. Grice, who set it out as a number of sub-principles, or Maxims as in (14)

- e. The cooperative principle

Quantity	Make your contribution as informative as is required
	Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
Quality	Do not say what you believe to be false.
	Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Relation	Be relevant
Manner	Avoid obscurity of expression.
	Avoid ambiguity.
	Be brief.
	Be orderly.
	Speak idiomatically unless there is a good reason not to.

Let us see what happens when one of these maxims is broken. For example if the speaker says

f. Siddharth is meeting a man this evening.

We will assume that the professor concerned is not a close relative; otherwise more information would have been given (following the first clause of the maxim of quality). So (15) would be considered misleading if the man concerned was Siddharth's father. Of course, it is always possible that the speaker does not know that Siddharth is actually meeting his father, and that (15) is all that can be honestly said under the maxim of quality, but the listener is still likely to interpret (15) as meaning that the man is not Siddharth's father/ brother/ son. That's why the exchange in (16) contains a kernel of truth, although it ends up degenerating the speaker's wife.

g. A : Who was that lady I saw you with last night ?

B : That was no lady; that was my wife.

#### 14.2.4 The Concept of Politeness :

We might think that there is another maxim in the cooperative principle which is namely, be polite. We can certainly see a lot of our behaviour as being driven by such a principle. But being polite is not simply a matter of behaving in a consistent way, and often seems to lead to breaches of the cooperative principles.

If you speak English, unless you are a commanding officer in the armed forces or a dictatorial ruler, the one thing you should never do if you want people to do something for you is tell them directly to do it. The command in (17) is more likely to get a rude response than the desired result.

h. Get my new phone from the other room.

The example in (17) has been chosen not to be the kind of order a child might make. English-speaking children are often asked, 'What's the magic word ?' to get them to mitigate orders of this type into requests with the word please. So the very least we can do with something like (17) is add a please to it. However, (17) probably involves some considerable effort on the part of the person who is to do the fetching so that it is more likely that a speaker will make a considerable effort to make the request more polite. Typically, at least in English, the way of making a request more polite is to make it less direct. This can be done linguistically, by turning the order into a question format. In general, we also make the request more polite by making it more removed from the here and now. One way we do that, in English, is to use part tense verbs rather than present tense ones. So in (18)

we have a number of possible versions of (17), each of them more polite than (17) and generally more polite the less direct they are.

- i. Can you get my phone from the other room ?

Could you get my phone from the other room ?

I wonder if you could get my phone from the other room.

I wondered if you could get my phone from the other room.

Another way to make an order appear less abrupt is to make the task sound less of an imposition on the hearer. Some examples are (19)

- j. Could you possibly get my phone from the other room ?

I wonder if you could, like, get my phone from the other room.

Could you perhaps just get my phone from the other room ?

While you're going to the kitchen, could you get my phone from the other room ?

The theory behind all of this is concerned with the notion of Face. We have, the theory goes, two kinds of face : positive face and negative face. Positive Face is the desire of the individual to be liked, to be part of the group, and to share the needs of interlocutors. Negative face is the desire to be free and be able to act independently and of one's own volition, rather than at someone else's behest.

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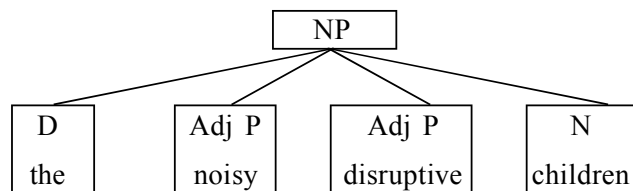
### 14.3 SELF LEARNING ACTIVITIES

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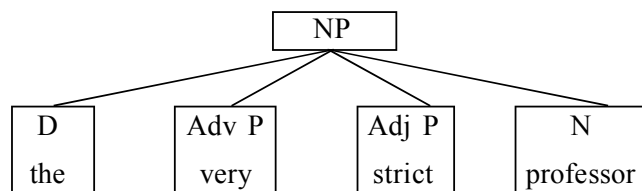
#### 14.3.1 Draw trees for the following adjective Phrases, Adverb Phrases and Noun Phrases :

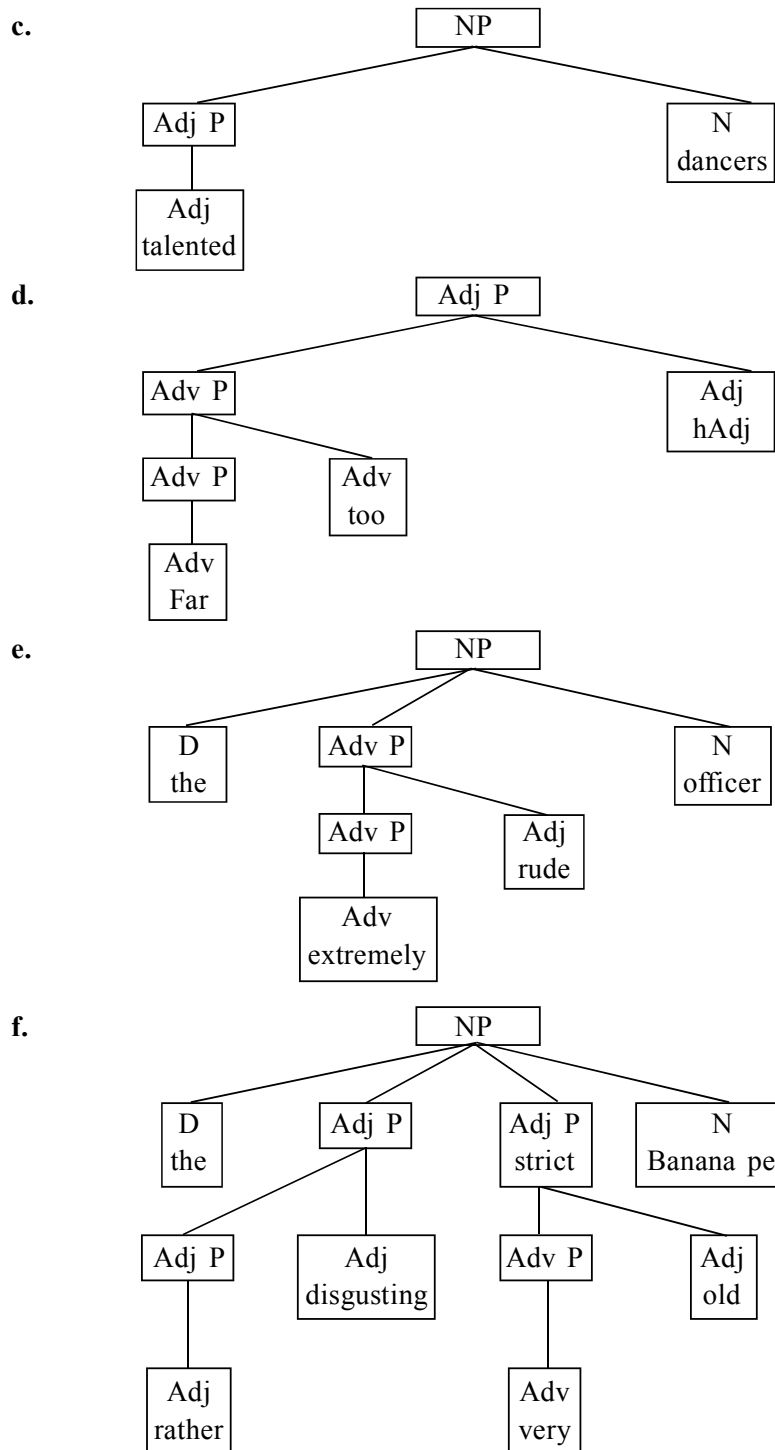
- a. the noisy disruptive children
- b. the very strict professor
- c. talented dancers
- d. far too honest
- e. the extremely rude officer
- f. the rather disgusting old banana peel

a.



b.

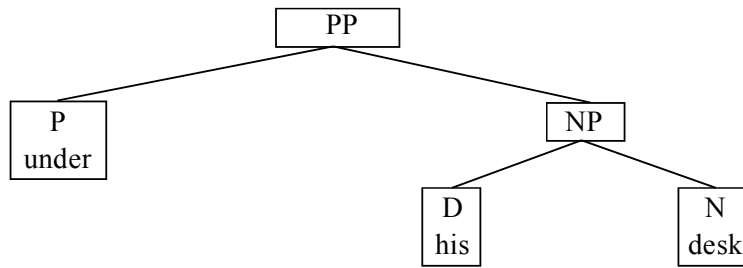




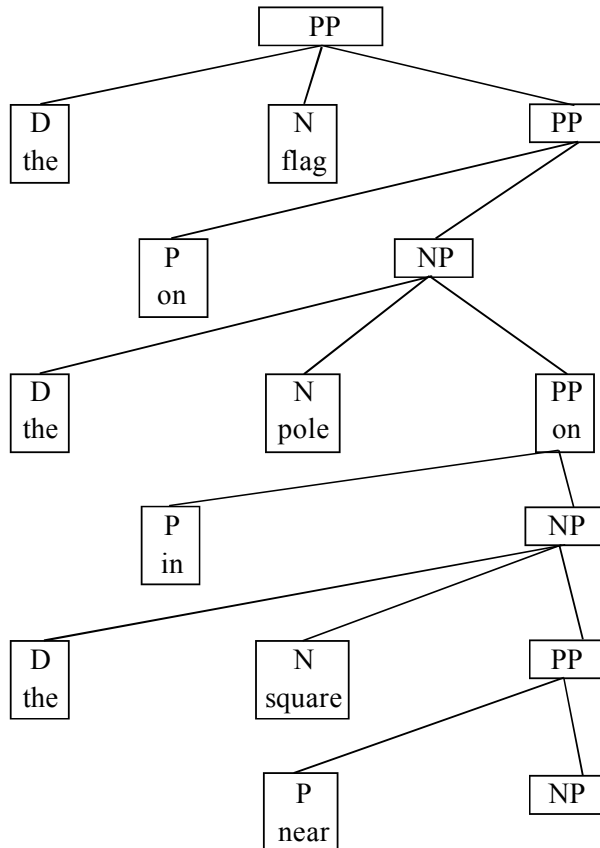
#### 14.3.2 Draw Trees For The Following Noun Phrases And Prepositional Phrases :

- a. under his desk
- b. the flag on the pole in the square near the legislature

a.



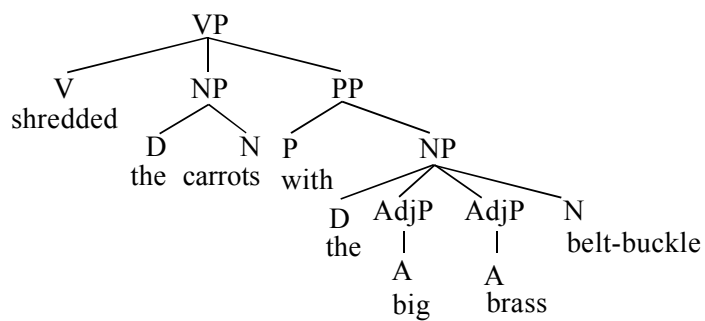
b.



### 14.3.3 Draw Trees for the Verb Phrases :

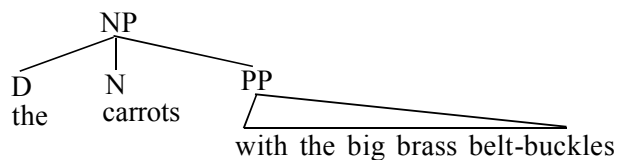
- shredded the carrots with the big steel kitchen knife
- often reads trashy novels in the bus
- frequently reads eloquent novels by Tolstoy
- read a trashy novel by Tolstoy in the bus yesterday

a.

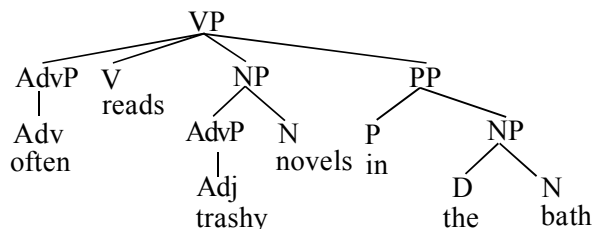




If the carrots had belt-buckles (instead of being shredded by them), then the PP would attach under the NP :

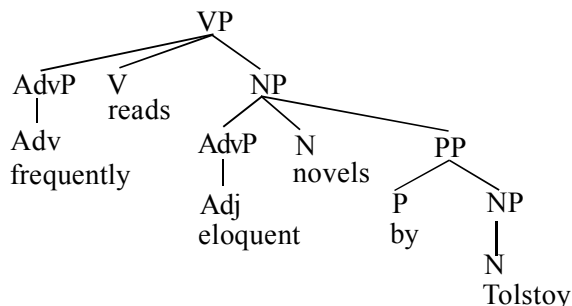


b.

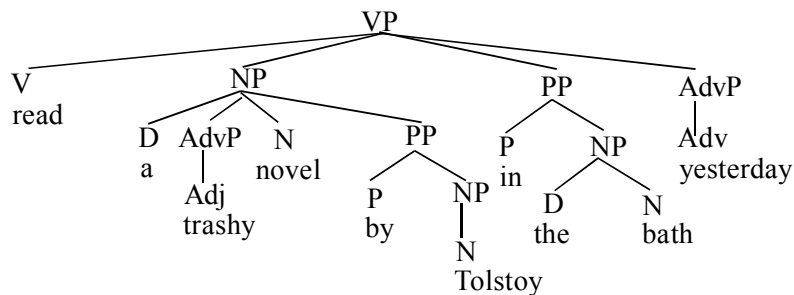


Note that the PP *trashy novels* modifies the verb *reads*, so it is attached under the VP rather than under the NP. Also note that if you have an adverb like *often*, it must be an AdvP (rather than just Adv), because the VP rule says you are allowed an AdvP in this position, not an Adv.

c.



d.



This VP has two PPs in it. One (*by Tolstoy*) modifies the N, so is attached in under the NP headed by *novel*. The other (*in the bath*) modifies the verb *read*, so is attached in under the VP.

#### 14.3.4 Convert the Following Sentences in Polite Requests :

- Call the student
- Bring the bag
- This should be done by tomorrow evening
- I have not received the email yet
- The team wants you to take this responsibility.
- Its either now or never.

### 14.3.5 Comment on the Following Utterances and Explain the Politeness Processes That They Show :

- a. Look, I'm terribly sorry to bother you but would there be any chance of your lending me just enough money to get a railway ticket to get home ?
- b. I must have dropped my purse and I just don't know what to do.
- c. Hey, got change for a quarter ?
- d. Look, sonny, it might not be advisable to just go pushing your little fingers into this little pie.
- e. If you don't mind me asking, where did you get that dress ?

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## 14.4 LET US SUM UP

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In this module we looked at how language functions, naturally without a conscious effort being made by the users in employing it. However, as mentioned afore, the mystery is not magic or unrealistic supernatural phenomenon. Language functions within the constraints of syntax (structure) and pragmatics (context). Syntax and semantics are very tightly tied together; the difference which has effects on the semantic interpretation of the sentence. Sentences are all about building up coherent messages from meaningful elements whose relationship to each other has to be made explicit. Verbs are central in relating elements to each other. Pragmatics always takes some kind of linguistic structure and deals with the way in which that structure becomes interpreted in context, and why it might mean more than we would want to attribute to the meaning of the element itself. For example water might mean something we could gloss as 'H<sub>2</sub>O', but if a desperate man comes up to you in the middle of the Thar Desert and request for 'Water!' you will interpret that as meaning more than just 'H<sub>2</sub>O'. These two crucial elements work in tandem to assist language use and understanding for each user. A careful analysis and understanding of these elements will not only assist a better insight into how language works but will also assist in helping others learn the language better.

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## 14.5 KEYWORDS

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1. syntax (sin-taks) : the way in which words are combined to form sentences
2. generative grammar (gen-er-a-tive grammar) : rules for using grammar in language
3. Pragmatics (prag-ma-tiks) : a field of study that looks at relation between sentences and the situation in which they occur
4. Speech acts : the function fulfilled by speaking; the study of various functions in language
5. tree : diagrammatic representation of the structure of a sentence

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## 14.6 Books Suggested

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- Birner, Betty. *Introduction to Pragmatics*. Wiley–Blackwell, 2012.
- Carnie, Andrew. *Syntax : A Generative Introduction*. Wiley Publication, 2007.
- Chomsky, Naom. *Syntactic Structures*. Walter de Gruyter, 2012.
- Griffiths, Patrick. *An Introduction to English Semantics and Pragmatics*. Edinburgh University Press, 2006.
- Koeneman, Olaf & Hedde Zeijlstra. *Introducing Syntax (Cambridge Introductions to Language and Linguistics)*. Cambridge University Press, 2010.
- McGregor, William B. *Linguistics : An Introduction*. Bloomsbury Publishing, 2015.
- Radford, Andrew. *English Syntax : An Introduction*. Cambridge University Press, 2004.

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**: STRUCTURE :**  
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- 15.0 Objectives**
- 15.1 Introduction**
- 15.2 The Old English**
  - 15.2.1 Contribution of Old English**
- 15.3 The Middle English**
  - 15.3.1 Contribution of Middle English**
- 15.4 The Modern English**
- 15.5 Theories of origin of Language**
  - 15.5.1 The Bow-wow Theory**
  - 15.5.2 Ding Dong Theory**
  - 15.5.3 The Pooh Pooh Theory**
  - 15.5.4 Gesture Theory**
- 15.6 Indo-European Family of Languages**
- 15.7 Eastern Group**
- 15.8 Western Group**
- 15.9 Reasons behind the spread of English**
- 15.10 The Bible Translations**
- 15.11 Influence of Shakespeare**
- 15.12 Influence of Milton**
- 15.13 Let Us Sum Up**
- 15.14 Books Suggested**
- 15.15 Keywords**

**Answers**  
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**1.0 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit, you should be able to;

- know about the rise of English Language,
- learn about theories of the origin of English Language,
- understand about various influences on English Language.

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**15.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The gift of speech and well ordered language are characteristics of mankind and are the symbol and token of the boundary between man and brute. Language has been nicely defined by Edward Sapir as “a purely human and non instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and

desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols. It is the universal medium for conveying our thoughts or feelings to others. There are, however, other means of expressing our mind to others. Gesture is one of these means. We hear of certain peoples whose vocabulary is so limited that they cannot get on without the supplementary use of gesture, so that intelligible conversation becomes impossible for them in the dark.

It is difficult to see adequately the functions of language because it is so deeply rooted in the whole of human behavior that it may be suspected that there is little in the functional side of our conscious behavior in which language does not play its part. The primary function of the language is, as we know, is communication. Language is also a great force of socialization. Apart from the fact that no significant social intercourse is possible without the language, the common language serves as a peculiarly potent symbol of the social solidarity of those who speak the language. A group of people is held together by the ties of common language.

English is spoken and read not only in England and the United States, but also in many countries of the East and West. It is now spoken as a second language throughout the world. Though historical, political and economic factors have much to do with this worldwide extension of English, there are qualities and characteristics inherent in the language itself to which English owes much of its ever-increasing global (wide) appeal.

Historians of the English language distinguish three main stages of its development. The first is the Old English (The Anglo-Saxon) Period. This period extends from about the year 600 AD to 1100 AD. This is followed by the Middle English Period from 1100 AD to 1500 AD and finally there is the period of Modern English from 1500 AD onwards. These divisions need not be water-tight for the development of a language is never sudden but is a gradual process. However it can be seen that at times this process of change is more rapid due to a variety of reasons.

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## **15.2 THE OLD ENGLISH**

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The earliest inhabitants of the British islands were the Britons and they spoke a form of Celtic language. It had all similarities with the language spoken in some districts of Northern France which is now called Britain. This language was in popular use throughout the whole of Roman occupation from 55 BC to 410 AD. After this Anglos, Saxons and Jutes, tribes from north Germany, descended with their hordes and the supremacy of Celtic language rapidly came to an end. By 600 AD they had succeeded in establishing their power fairly, firmly and implanting their language in Britain. Critics call this language Old English to stress the continuity of speech and the connection of this early form with the language which is spoken today.

### **15.2.1 Contribution :**

The Old English language had many dialects but of all the dialects that of Wessex became the most important. This was because this region was the most civilized, had an ordered form of government and most of the literature of this period was written in this dialect, of which the work

Beowulf still survives. However traces of other dialects still survive. It is the old English with its several dialects that has given to us doublets or two words with only a slight difference in its meaning. They were originally dialectal variants of the same word. For example, because of the normal development of the old English *a* into *o*, the old English *hal* became *whole* (in the Biblical sense of healthy or free from disease). However in a northern dialect, the change did not take place and hence we now also have the word *hale*. Anglo-Saxon had a very complicated grammar. Nouns had three or four case endings. It was also highly inflected just as modern German is today. The vocabulary of old English was chiefly Germanic though some words came from the language of *Celts*. Every word has pronounced according to its spelling and there were no silent syllables. For example the word come was read as /kome/. The Roman occupation too had its impact on the Anglo-Saxon tongue. For example the modern English *wall* is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *weall* which in turn was derived from the Latin *vallum*.

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### **15.3 THE MIDDLE ENGLISH**

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The conquest of England in 1066 by William of Normandy had a profound influence not only upon the history and political system of the country but also upon the language. English now became a much more hybrid language. In the beginning two languages were spoken side by side : Old English and Norman French. Gradually these two languages mingled to give what is known as Middle English. The Modern English descended from this mixed Anglo-French tongue. The Norman-French which was the language of the rulers enjoyed greater prestige and was used as the language of the aristocracy, while the Old English was the language of the general public. However, the mixed language had a fewer French words. Meanwhile Latin was still used for learned works.

Literary English developed with the growth of London as a centre of commercial, political, legal and ecclesiastical life towards the end of the fourteenth century. The *East Midland* English assumed a dominant position now because it was spoken in and around London. Oxford and Cambridge also used it and hence it became the language of scholarship. The *Received Standard* English of today is said to have descend from this dialect. Chaucer and number of other prominent writers of that time used it. Hence we find Chaucer to be intelligible to the modern readers. Finally the introduction of the printing by Caxton (in 1476) brought many changes at the end of this period.

#### **15.3.1 Contribution :**

During this period there were changes in grammar, pronunciation, spellings and there were additions to the vocabulary. For example *-es* became popular as the plural termination in place of *-en*. The only survival of *-en* is Oxen. This period also marks the loss of some of the inflexions. Hence it is called the period of *levelled inflexions*. Phonetic development of the Middle English period was the lengthening of short vowels when they stood in open syllables and the shortening of long ones in closed syllables.

That is why we pronounce *laddy* and *lady* differently. The discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation began in this period.

The existence of two languages side by side gave rise to synonyms, one from the native tongue while the other was from the Norman–French. An example is found in the two words, *wed* (native) and *marry* (French). The French also established the beginnings of the modern legal system and so a number of new words were introduced into English from French. So we have a host of words like *justice*, *judge*, *jury*, *indict*, *verdict*, *prison*, *punish* and *court* itself. Same is the case with the higher offices of the church which got French words like *Chapel*, *Cathedral*, *Confession* and even the word *Religion* itself.

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## **15.4 THE MODERN ENGLISH**

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On the advent of the renaissance the full flood of the new learning reached England at about the year 1500 and this affected the English language too. The Renaissance was chiefly a Latin one and hence Latin words were introduced into English vocabulary in great numbers. The reformation was an outcome of the spirit of criticism generated by the Renaissance. The bitter religious controversies gave rise to numerous words. A very important outcome of the reformation was the various English translations of the Bible, the chief being Tyndale's in 1526, and more important was the Authorised Version in 1611. The Bible played an important role in *fixing* the English language and setting a kind of standard. Many more inflexions were lost in this period.

Printing too played an important role. The printers of Queen Elizabeth's time fixed the spelling according to the pronunciation that existed during the late Middle English and Early Modern English period. However, the pronunciation changed considerably after that but not the spelling. Hence, the pronunciation was not phonetically reflected in the orthography. Hence English spellings are largely symbolical of thoughts and are not always phonetic representation of the actual sound of the words.

Hence the invention of printing established a *standard* language and discredited dialect. It served to popularize the new coinages and newly introduced words and it tended to fix spelling about which there had been a great uncertainty before. By the middle of the seventeenth century the language had more or less attained its present form so far as grammar, spelling pronunciation are concerned.

### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1**

<b>ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.</b>
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1. What is the primary function of a language ?

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.....

.....

2. Which two languages were mingled and resulted into the Middle English ?

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.....  
.....

3. Why were there more number of words introduced from Latin ?

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.....  
.....

4. By which time, the English language had attained its present form ?

.....  
.....  
.....

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## **15.5 THEORIES OF THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE**

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### **15.5.1 The Bow-wow Theory :**

This theory supposes that human speech originated in man's attempt to imitate the sounds of nature. Thus a dog might be called a “bow wow” or a cow “moo”. There is no denying the fact that such imitation accounts for a certain number of words in the English vocabulary e.g. cuckoo, hiss, gurgle, whistle, whine, babbi, prattle etc. Words that have this origin are sometimes said to be onomatopoeic. This theory comments Max Muller, “Goes very smoothly so long as it deals with crackling hands, and quacking ducks, but round that poultry yard there is a dead wall and we soon find that it is behind that wall that language really begins.”

### **15.5.2 Ding Dong Theory :**

This theory propounds that specific kinds of objects are so affected the primitive man as to ring out of them correspondingly specific utterances. The words *zigzag*, *dazzle* may be cited as examples.

### **15.5.3 The Pooh Pooh Theory :**

This theory seeks the origin of language in such involuntary exclamation of pain, surprise, wonder, disapproval, pleasure as *Oh ! Bah ! Pshaw ! Fie*, and the like. As a theory of origin of language it stands upon a very slippery ground.

### **15.5.4 Gesture Theory :**

This theory holds that language originates in gesture. The gesture theorists opine that the primitive people communicated with one another by the means of gestures made by hand, and ultimately the language-equivalents were substituted for these gestures. In saying ‘I’ and ‘me’ the lips are drawn inward as if pointing to the speaker, and in saying ‘you’ and ‘thou’ the lips are moved outwards as if pointing to the person addressed. Similarly, in saying ‘here’ and ‘there’ the lips are drawn inwards and thrown outwards respectively.



In so far as these theories are acceptable at all, they explain only small parts of language. It is hard to see how they can be extended to account for all languages. We may have some ideas of the origin and development of language by observing the way in which a child learns to speak. It is almost certain that “a good deal of language had its origin in a process parallel to that by which a child first pronounces meaningless groups of sounds to which meanings are afterwards attached either by the child itself or by its hearers. A notable stage in the history of language was reached when significant sounds began to be handed down from one generation to another, and then imitation came to play an important part in the development of language.

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## **15.6 INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES**

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English is descended from the Teutonic family of languages which form themselves one branch of another family, the Aryan or Indo-European. The Indo-European Family of languages is the most wide spread group of languages in the world, and from it almost all the languages of Europe and Western Asia are said to have descended. We have no written records of this great language family; but the modern researches have revealed that Sanskrit, Greek and Lithuanian retain a great many grammatical and linguistic peculiarities. The distinguished 19th century philologist August Schleicher of the University of Prague tried hard to reconstruct Indo-European on the basis of Sanskrit for the consonants, Greek for the vowels and Lithuanian for the inflexions.

We can divide the Indo-European Family of languages in two groups :  
Eastern Group and Western Group

### **15.6.1 Eastern Group :**

1. Indian (Sanskrit, Pali)
2. Iranian (Avestan, Old Persian)
3. Armenian (ancient and modern with its various dialects)
4. Slavonic (Russian, Bulgarian, Polish, Bohemian etc.)
5. Baltic (Lithuanian, Lettish, Old Prussian)
6. Albanian

### **15.6.2 Western Group :**

1. Greek (ancient modern with their many dialects)
2. Italic (Latin with its descendants; the Romance languages – French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and Rumanian; Oscan, Umbrian)
3. Celtic (Irish and Highland Gaelic, Welsh etc.)
4. Teutonic or Germanic
  - A. East Germanic (Gothic – the earliest Germanic Language of which we possess written records)
  - B. North Germanic (the language Scandinavia)
    - (a) West Norse (Icelandic)

- (b) East Norse (Danish and Swedish)
- C. West Germanic
  - (a) High Germanic (German)
  - (b) Low Germanic (Dutch, Flemish)
  - (c) Anglo-Frisian (English or Frisian)

**CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2**

**MATCH THE FOLLOWING COLUMNS GIVEN IN BELOW.**

Sr.	Theory	Sr.	Description of the Theory
1	The Bow-wow Theory	A	This theory propounds the specific kinds of objects.
2	Ding dong Theory	B	This theory holds that language originates in gesture.
3	The Pooh Pooh Theory	C	This theory imitates the sounds of nature.
4	Gesture Theory	D	This theory has involuntary exclamations in the origin.

**15.7 REASONS BEHIND THE SPREAD OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

There are a number of reasons behind the spread of this international language. Some of them are as under :

**15.7.1** Prominent among the characteristics of this language must be mentioned its extraordinary receptive and adaptable heterogeneousness. The varied ease and readiness with which English has taken to itself materials from almost everywhere in the world and has assimilated these outside elements are wonderful. This general receptiveness of new elements from anywhere in the world which helps to make English a suitable and attractive vehicle in so many parts of the world.

**15.7.2** In the matter of inflectional simplification English has gone much further than any European language. The manner English has reduced the endings it once had to a minimum is really wonderful. Inflections in the noun have been reduced to a sign of the plural and a form for the possessive case.

**15.7.3** The next reason behind the spread of this language is the use of word-order as a means of grammatical expression. Words in English do not play hide-and-seek they often do in Latin. English shows more regularity and less caprice in the matter of word-order than most or probably all Indo-European languages.

Of all the aforesaid characteristics of English it is the adaptable receptiveness and inflectional simplicity which have contributed most to the general success and spread of English. Again, it is because of its cosmopolitan vocabulary that English presents a somewhat familiar appearance to peoples of many parts of the world.

There are some persons who have contributed much to the development of the English language, and they are generally the authors of literary works.

There are generally two ways in which an author may enrich the language in which he writes. He may directly introduce some new words, expressions and phrases, or he may give the existing forms of expression new meanings and wider currency. If a popular writer like Shakespeare or Milton uses some comparatively rare word, it will be most likely to find its way into the popular vocabulary and gain a wider currency in the sense in which it was used by the writer. Apart from this linguistic significance, an analysis of the extent of the influence exercised by great writers adds to our knowledge of their minds and art and thereby helps us attain a fuller understanding of their works.

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## **15.8 THE BIBLE TRANSLATIONS**

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The translations of the Bible, from those of Tindale and Coverdale in the early 16th century to the "Authorized Version" have exercised no small influence on the English language. The Bible has been studied and quoted in England more than in any other Christian country, and a great many Biblical phrases have passé into the ordinary language as household words. The best judges of English style have greatly admired the style of the Authorized version, made under the direction of James I in 1611 and have recommended an early familiarity with, and the intensity perusal of the English Bible as the best training in English language.

The Bible translators after Tindale and Coverdale have contributed little by way of invention of words and phrases which have become part of the English vocabulary. But the indirect effect of the Bible has been felt down to the recent times. Many words which had become old fashioned in 1611 would have sunk into the sea of oblivion had they not been preserved in some familiar Biblical passages.

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## **15.9 INFLUENCE OF SHAKESPEARE**

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Shakespeare, who was unrivalled in so many other ways, has exercised great influence on the English language than any other individual maker. Indeed, the influence of Shakespeare as a maker of English is very much of the same kind as that of the Bible translations, though its extent has been slightly less fundamental and wide spread than that of the Bible. He has made some valuable and permanent contribution to the English language by his dramatic use of dialect, specially his native dialect. He has used a great number of words which so long floated from lip to lip of the people. Though these words made their first appearance in Shakespeare, there is no reason to believe that Shakespeare coined them. He only lifted them out of the spoken language and used them for dramatic purposes.

The greatness of Shakespeare's influence upon the English language doesn't consist in the number of new words or compounds he made, but in the multitude of phrases found in his writings which have entered into the texture of the diction of literature and daily conversation. They have become household words and we use them day in and day out without remembering or moving even that they have come from the immortal pen of Shakespeare. There are some Shakespearean phrases which are generally used with a meaning other than that which Shakespeare had intended.

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## 15.10 INFLUENCE OF MILTON

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## The Spread and Rise of English

Milton illustrates the fact that there is no constant relation between a writer's literary greatness or even the greatness of his fame, and the extent of his influence on the language in which he writes his works. Though as a poet he stands only second to Shakespeare, yet as a maker of English he cannot claim a place just beside Shakespeare. While Shakespeare has contributed innumerable phrases to the common treasury of English diction, the Miltonic expressions, which have really become part of English language, are extremely few. There are, of course, many Miltonic expressions which are very familiar to us as quotations : but there are not many of his combinations of words which we might call "household words".

Thus, the English language has been the language of most people the world in everyday life. It should also to be kept in mind that this language has witnessed many ups and downs in the rise and spread during the journey and it has been influenced by many great writers and other political, social, economic, industrial influences.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

<b>STATE WHETHER THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE OR FALSE.</b>
--

Sr.	Statement	T / F
1	In the matter of inflectional simplification English has gone much further than any European language.	
2	Words in Latin do not play hide-and-seek they often do in English.	
3	Shakespeare has made some valuable and permanent contribution to the English language by his dramatic use of dialect, specially his native dialect.	
4	The best judges of English style have greatly admired the style of the Authorized Version, made under the direction of Tindale I in 1611.	
5	English a suitable and attractive vehicle in so many parts of the world.	

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## 15.14 LET US SUM UP

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We have, in this unit, discussed about the origin of the English language, various language theories which played an important role in the development of the language. We also discussed about the rise of the English language and how translations of Bible, printing contributed in the development of the English language. The influence of Latin and Greek languages along with Shakespeare and Milton were worthy in the process of making the English language more standardized.

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## 15.14 BOOKS SUGGESTED AND REFERENCES

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- A History of the English Language by Albert C. Baugh & Thomas Cable

- An Outline History Of The English Language by WOOD
- Objective Approach to English Literature for NET, JRF, SLET and Pre-Ph.D. Registration Test by Pandey Om Prakash, Rahmat Jahan Ivan K. Masih K.K. Narayan & Neeraj Kumar

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### **15.15 KEYWORDS**

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1. Adaptable : capable of fitting a particular situation or use
2. Assimilate : make alike
3. Caprice : a sudden desire
4. Cosmopolitan : composed of people from many parts of the world
5. Discrepancy : a difference between conflicting facts or claims or opinions
6. Grammatical : of or pertaining to the rules that structure language
7. Gurgle : make sounds similar to bubbling water
8. Hale : exhibiting or restored to vigorous good health
9. Heterogeneous : consisting of elements not of the same kind or nature
10. Linguistic : consisting of or related to language
11. Multitude : a large indefinite number
12. Orthography : representing the sounds of a language by written symbols
13. Peculiar : beyond or deviating from the usual or expected
14. Primitive : characteristic of an earlier ancestral type
15. Propound : put forward, as of an idea
16. Reformation : improvement in the condition of institutions or practices
17. Theorist : someone who constructs hypotheses

### **ANSWERS**

<b>Check your progress 1</b>
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1. The primary function of a language is to communicate.
2. Old English and Norman French were spoken side by side. Gradually, they got mingled and resulted into the Middle English.
3. The Renaissance was chiefly a Latin hence Latin words were introduced into English vocabulary in great numbers.
4. By the end of 17th century, the language had more or less attained its present form.

<b>Check your progress 2</b>
------------------------------

- |      |      |      |      |
|------|------|------|------|
| 1. C | 2. A | 3. D | 4. B |
|------|------|------|------|

<b>Check your progress 3</b>
------------------------------

- |         |          |         |          |         |
|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|
| 1. True | 2. False | 3. True | 4. False | 5. True |
|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|

♦♦♦♦♦♦

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**: STRUCTURE :**

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**16.0 Objectives****16.1 Introduction to the Varieties of English****16.2 Various Groups of ‘English’ Countries****16.3 Contemporary Divisions of English Speaking Countries****16.3.1 Britain****16.3.2 America****16.3.3 Africa****16.3.4 Asia, Pacific****16.4 Let Us Sum Up****16.5 Check Your Progress****16.6 Key Words****16.7 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**16.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit, we shall discuss;

- different versions of English being in practice across the globe,
- various countries practicing such varieties of Englishes,
- the clusters/groups which differentiate them from one another.

On completing this unit, you should be able to;

- differentiate various trends and styles of English in Practice,
  - understand the difference of linguistic connotation of language across the world.
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**16.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE VARIETIES OF ENGLISH**

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In this discussion, the term “variety” is used to refer to any variant of a language which can be adequately distinguished from another variant. The basis for this differentiation can be social, historical or a combination of both.

English is spoken today in almost every part of the world as a result of colonial expansion in more than last four centuries. The colonial era is now definitely over but its consequences clearly can be seen in the presence of English as an official and often native language in many of the former colonies along with more or less strongly diverging varieties which arose in particular socio-political conditions.

Another legacy of colonialism is where English fulfils the function of a lingua franca. Many countries, like Nigeria, use English as a lingua franca

because there are many different and mutually incomprehensible languages and a need for a common language as means of communication.

English has also come to play a central role as an international language. There are a number of reasons for this, of which the rising economic status of the United States is certainly one of the most important now a days. Internal reasons for the success of English in the international arena can also be given : a little bit of English goes a long way as the grammar is largely analytic in type so that it is suitable for those groups who do not wish to give a great effort on learning a foreign language.

### **The concept of Isogloss**

*Isoglosses* **Boundaries between two regions which differ with some linguistic feature are called isoglosses.** The term isogloss literally means ‘same language’ (iso + gloss). The term is used in two slightly different ways and is also represented graphically in two different ways. One way of displaying an isogloss is to draw a single line between two regions which are found to differ with respect to some linguistic feature(s). The single line separating the regions is the isogloss.

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## **16.2 VARIOUS GROUPS OF ‘ENGLISH’ COUNTRIES**

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For the present overview the varieties of English in the modern world are divided into four geographical groups as follows :

- (1) **Britain** : England, Scotland, Wales, Ireland
- (2) **America** : United States, Canada, African American Vernacular English, The Caribbean
- (3) **Africa** : West Africa, South Africa, East Africa
- (4) **Asia, Pacific** : India and South–East Asia, Australia and New Zealand, The Pacific islands region

The two main groups are Britain and America. For each there are standard forms of English which are used as yardsticks for comparing other varieties of the respective areas.

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## **16.3 CONTEMPORARY DIVISIONS OF ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES**

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### **16.3.1 Britain :**

#### **16.3.1.1 British English :**

*“The phrase British English has . . . a monolithic quality, as if it offers a single clear-cut variety as a fact of life (alongside providing a brand name for language-teaching purposes). It shares, however, all the ambiguities and tensions in the word British, and as a result can be used and interpreted in two ways, more broadly and more narrowly, within a range of blurring and ambiguity.”*

**(Tom McCarthur, The Oxford Guide to World English. Oxford University Press, 2002)**

*“Before English speakers began to spread around the world, first in large numbers in America, there was no British English. There was only English. Concepts like ‘American English’ and ‘British English’ are defined by comparison. They are relative concepts like ‘brother’ and ‘sister.’”*

**(John Algeo, preface to *The Cambridge History of the English Language : English in North America*. Cambridge University Press, 2001)**

There are a couple of obvious isoglosses for English dialects. The clearest one acoustically is the presence or absence of syllable-final /r/. Within England such absence is typical of large regions of the south, but parts of the south and south-west still retain /r/ in this position.

The next obvious isogloss is that separating the northern area with unshifted short /u/ and that in the south where this sound has been unrounded and lowered to /ʌ/. An additional isogloss is that separating areas with initial /h-/ and those without it. The loss of /h/ in initial position is endemic in British English with the exceptions of Scotland and the far north of England, the region of Newcastle and Durham.

### **16.3.1.2 Welsh English :**

The English spoken in Wales is not as different with respect to more standard forms of English, especially when it is compared to either Scottish or Irish English. There is little in the syntax which is specifically Welsh so that the main features are phonological with one or two morphological characteristics and a few lexical items.

The most general feature of Welsh English is the lilting intonation due to the rise-fall at the end of statements as opposed to the fall in other forms of English. Long vowels tend to occur only in stressed syllables. There is little distinction in length among low vowels so that words like grand and grass sound as if they had the same vowel.

Welsh – the Celtic language – is found in two major varieties, a northern and a southern one. The north of Wales tends to be more rural and the south, certainly in the regions of Swansea and Cardiff, is mainly urban. Southern Welsh English is h-less where Northern Welsh English tends to be h-ful, i.e. /h/ occurs in initial position. In the south a clear /l/ is commonly used for all types of English /l/ – i.e. in syllable-initial and in syllable-final positions which have a clear and a dark /l/ in Received Pronunciation respectively whereas in the north the velar /l/ may well predominate.

### **16.3.1.3 Scottish English :**

The advance and variety of English which established itself at this early stage later on developed into what is called Lallands (E ‘lowlands’) and has kept its identity as a distinct variety of Scottish English even to the present-day. The speakers of English in this initial period were very often English settlers who had been invited by the Scottish king to settle and render arable the plains of the Lowlands. Through mixed marriages and gradual assimilation of the Gaelic speaking community in the lowland area, Gaelic became weaker and weaker. By the Early Modern English period (in



the Elizabethan era) Gaelic was only spoken by monolinguals in the Highlands and Islands (i.e. on the large islands on the west coast of Scotland). A further language, Norn, which was a remnant of Old Norse spoken on the Orkney and Shetland islands, disappeared finally in the 18th century.

For the 20th century, there are varieties of Scottish English :

- (1) Lallands, the most original of all varieties of Scottish English,
- (2) Contact English which is that spoken by speakers of both Scottish Gaelic and English and
- (3) Standard Scottish English which is a locally flavoured version of mainland British English (derived ultimately from Received Pronunciation),
- (4) more recently developed urban varieties spoken chiefly in Edinburgh and Glasgow.

In phonology, the native Scottish varieties show strong deviations from Southern British English. Syntactic particularities have been found in the contact varieties of English where the syntax of Gaelic has led to a variety of constructions which do not have parallels in Southern British English.

The aspect of Scottish English which has attracted most attention from linguists recently is the so-called Scottish Vowel Length Rule or Aitken's Law, after the linguist who first described it linguistically, which specifies that vowels are lengthened (normally they are short in Scottish English) before voiced fricatives, /l/ and /r/. Here one has a case of phonetic conditioning for lengthening as a following voiced sound often causes a vowel preceding it to be realised as long, cf. the vowel in standard English *bad* [bæ :d] vs. *bat* [bæt].

Two others sources for Scottish English which deserve mention are :

- (1) The Linguistic Survey of Scotland (with its centre at the University of Edinburgh) and
- (2) The Survey of English Dialects (centered at Leeds) which deals with Scottish English alongside the other varieties of British English. Both these projects have produced much linguistic literature (atlases and interpretative monographs) with information on the English spoken north of the border.

#### **16.3.1.4 Irish English :**

Irish English is a variety of the English language that is used in Ireland. Also known as Hiberno-English or Anglo-Irish. As illustrated below, Irish English is subject to regional variation, especially between the north and south. *"In Ireland,"* said Terence Dolan, *"Hiberno-English means that you have two languages in a kind of unruly shotgun marriage together, fighting all the time"* (quoted by Carolina P. Amador Moreno in *"How the Irish Speak English,"* Estudios Irlandeses, 2007).

*“Irish (or Hiberno–English) has distinctive varietal features of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, although patterns vary considerably between North and South and East and West. In grammar”.*

(R. Carter and J. McRae, *The Routledge History of Literature in English*, 2001)

*“Although the knowledge of Irish among the majority is, in general, very poor, there is a curious habit of flavouring one's speech by adding a few words from Irish, what is sometimes called using the cúpla focal (Irish ‘couple of words’)...”*

(Raymond Hickey, *Irish English : History and Present–Day Forms*. Cambridge University Press, 2007)

### **Northern Irish English**

Rural dialects in the south carry a shame of being unacceptable to educated people, whereas in the North doctors, dentists, teachers and lawyers lace their speech with either Ulster Scots or Northern Irish English.

*“Examples of Northern Irish English : Seamus Heaney has written of glar, soft liquid mud, from the Irish glár; glit, meaning ooze or slime (glet is more common in Donegal); and daligone, meaning nightfall, dusk, from ‘daylight gone.’ I have [heard] daylight–falling, day–fall, dellit fall, duskies and duskit, also from Derry.”*

(Diarmaid Ó Muirthe, “Keep Your Ears Open and You'll Have a Sonsy Holiday.” *The Irish Times*, Aug. 26, 2009)

### **Southern Irish English**

Some characteristics of the grammar of southern Irish English include the following :

- (1) Stative verbs can be used with progressive aspect : I'm seeing it very well; This is belong to me.
- (2) The adverb after can be used with a progressive where a perfective would be used in other varieties : I'm after seeing him (I've just seen him'). This is a loan translation from Irish.
- (3) Clefting is common, and it is extended to use with copular verbs : It was very well that he looked; Is it stupid you are ? Again, this shows a substrate effect from Irish.

### **New Dublin English**

The term Dublin English may refer to any one of the varieties of the English language used in Dublin, Ireland. There is no doubt that the spread of features of new Dublin English has accelerated considerably in the past few years.

*“Apparent time study of Dublin English shows that female speakers over 30 do not always, and those over 40 rarely, have the features which are so indicative of new Dublin English. In the recordings for A Sound Atlas of Irish English nearly all females under 25, whose self–image appeared to be one of urban modernity, showed the new pronunciation. . . . [W]e are dealing here with a fairly unified, structural realignment of the entire accent*

*of southern Irish English and not just one or two minor changes in pronunciation.”*

(Raymond Hickey, *Dublin English : Evolution and Change*. John Benjamins, 2005)

The changes in Dublin English can be seen in both vowels and consonants. The consonant changes seem to be individual changes whereas area of vowels represent a coordinated shift which has affected several elements.

### **16.3.2 America :**

#### **16.3.2.1 English in the United States :**

The most general means of referring to English in the United States is American English which does not include Canadian English. The English of the United States in any way represents a separate language from kinds of British English with which it is mutually understandable.

There is a further complex of varieties which is a terminologically sensitive area : the English of the African American population. American sociolinguists came to use the term *Black English (BE)* or *Black English Vernacular (BEV)*. With the advent of political correctness as a socio–political phenomenon the terms had to be revised for fear of appearing discriminatory.

*Afro–American English* was used but then the ‘Afro’ element was thought to be subordinate to American and so African American English (AAE) came to be employed and is current today, usually with the word Vernacular as an additional qualifier. Occasionally the term Ebonics (from ‘ebony’ where the colour of the wood is sometimes associated with blacks) is found, particularly outside linguistic circles.

British and American English were fundamentally similar till the 17th century. After this period, the two major varieties of English drifted apart with American English being more conservative in keeping with a generally observed tendency of peripheral dialects whereas British English continued to develop quite rapidly, losing syllable–final /r/ for example. Evidence of the conservative side of American English is found for instance in verb forms : English has simplified the past forms of *get* to just *got*; with the verb *forget* there is both *forgot* and *forgotten*, whereas American English still has *gotten*. In the area of lexis one could cite words like *fall* for *autumn* or *mail* for *post* where the American terms are more ancient terms than the English ones.

### **British and American English**

#### **Spelling**

<b>AE</b>	<b>BE</b>	<b>AE</b>	<b>BE</b>	<b>AE</b>	<b>BE</b>
<i>honor</i>	<i>honour</i>	<i>realize</i>	<i>realise</i>	<i>theater</i>	<i>theatre</i>
<i>favor</i>	<i>favour</i>	<i>criticize</i>	<i>criticise</i>	<i>center</i>	<i>centre</i>
<i>odor</i>	<i>odour</i>	<i>idealize</i>	<i>idealise</i>	<i>meter</i>	<i>metre</i>

AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE
<i>traveled</i>	<i>travelled</i>	<i>defense</i>	<i>defence</i>	<i>program</i>	<i>programme</i>
<i>labeled</i>	<i>labelled</i>	<i>offense</i>	<i>offence</i>	<i>dialog</i>	<i>dialogue</i>
<i>woolen</i>	<i>woollen</i>	<i>license</i>	<i>licence</i>	<i>sulfur</i>	<i>sulphur</i>
AE	BE	AE	BE	AE	BE
<i>inquiry</i>	<i>enquiry</i>	<i>cozy</i>	<i>cosy</i>	<i>draft</i>	<i>draught</i>
<i>inclosure</i>	<i>enclosure</i>	<i>check</i>	<i>cheque</i>	<i>plow</i>	<i>plough</i>

AE : American English

BE : British English

### 16.3.2.2 English in Canada :

Canadian English can be said to occupy an approximate position between American and British English. This can also be understood in historic terms, seeing as how Canada was under the influence of Britain for very much longer. Furthermore the Canadians do not like to be mistaken for Americans and so they tend to avoid the more obvious traits of English practiced in the United States. Despite occupying a large amount of size, there is not much deviation within Canadian English.

There are one or two further particular areas in Canada which have a special significance linguistically. For instance, the Ottawa Valley in the west of the city of Ottawa in Ontario is noted for its Scottish and Irish settlement history and structures typical of Irish English are found.

### 16.3.2.3 African American Vernacular English :

The term *African American Vernacular English*, formerly known as 'Black English', refers to the varieties of English spoken by those people in the United States who are originally African population transported there. These speakers are currently distributed geographically across the entire country. However, the African Americans were originally settled in the south.

With the industrialization of the United States in the last century a migration from south to north began leading to considerable numbers of African Americans settling in industrial centers, particularly of the north and north east. These speakers are severed from the historical core area of African American Vernacular English and have frequently undergone developments not shared with the original speakers in the south. The remarks below hold for the most undiluted form of African American Vernacular English.

There are three basic views on the origin of African American Vernacular English

- (1) **Baby talk theory** : Now completely outdated; African American Vernacular English is said to have developed from a simplified form of English used in communication with slaves, supposedly akin to language in early childhood.

- (2) **Creole hypothesis** : African American Vernacular English is viewed here as having developed out of the necessity of slaves from different linguistic backgrounds on the plantations of the south to have a form of basic communication, i.e. an English-based pidgin, later a creole with native speakers).
- (3) **Dialect origin view** : Also known as the segregation hypothesis. This sees African American Vernacular English as having developed from dialects of English cut off from others hence independent features arose not shared by the input forms.

#### **16.3.2.4 English in the Caribbean :**

The Caribbean is a large area extending from the southern coast of the United States to the northern coast of South America, bounded on the west by Mexico and the Central American states and facing out to the Atlantic on the east.

The English of Jamaica shows the typical creole range of former English colonies. The basilect exhibits many of the features of true creoles : analytic grammatical structure (little or no inflections), simplified phonology, lack of consonant clusters. As well as this Jamaican creole is a syllable-timed language, much as French. More than 2 million inhabitants speak a variety of English which has developed over the past few centuries during the colonial period. In addition to this, Jamaican English is spoken to a considerable extent in England notably in London due to immigration mostly after the Second World War.

The two main Anglophone islands here are Barbados and Montserrat, both of which had an intake of English speakers already in the 17th century. Many of these speakers furthermore came from Ireland and it is known that English speakers later disseminated from Barbados to other islands so that there is a distinct possibility that some of the parallels between Irish English and forms of Caribbean creole – for instance structures involving verbal aspect – are not coincidental.

#### **16.3.3 Africa :**

##### **16.3.3.1 English in West Africa :**

The term ‘West Africa’ is used to refer to the set of nations on the coast of western Africa from Gambia in the north and Cameroon in the south. Almost all of them are former colonies of England (hence the official language of many of them is English) and the base for the pidgins spoken in this region is English.

There is no name for the dialect spoken in Ghana; additionally English is spoken as a second language by many speakers as opposed to a pidginized form of English being used. English has been spoken since the early 17th century and the pidgin of English is used by millions of speakers and used on official or semi-official occasions. The position of English is particularly strong because of the huge variety of native languages in Nigeria.

After the First World War the country was divided among the French and British to the advantage of the former. For this reason both English and

French are official languages in present day Cameroon, which is geographically based on former French Cameroon, most of former British Cameroon having gone to Nigeria.

### **16.3.3.2 English in South Africa :**

In 1652, the Cape of Good Hope was colonized by Dutch navigators, thus establishing the Dutch claim to this part of Africa. For 150 years the English did not disturb the colony; in 1806 however they attacked the region and brought the English language there and initiated the dual European language tradition which exists till present day.

Nowadays one can recognize at least four main varieties of English in South Africa :

1. Afrikaner English (the English of those South Africans whose mother language is Afrikaans),
2. Coloured English (the kind of English used by the coloured (racially mixed, or Asiatic) portion of the population,
3. The English of the black section of the population and of course the language of those native speakers of English.
4. South African Indian English which derives from the speech of those Indian immigrants who came to Kwazulu-Natal in the late 19th century.

English is the first language of more than 10% of which two thirds are white. Furthermore English is used as a lingua franca by millions and in this context co-exists with Afrikaans – mixtures of Afrikaans and English are not uncommon and termed ‘Anglikaans’) and many indigenous languages such as those of the Bantu and Khoisian groups. Since the change-over in power to a largely black government the Republic of South Africa recognizes some 11 languages, including English and Afrikaans, as official languages in the country.

### **16.3.3.3 English in East Africa :**

The position of English is somewhat different from that in South and West Africa as here there has been for centuries an indigenous lingua franca, Swahili. English was thus used as a supplementary language and not a primary pidginized one as was the case in West Africa for many speakers. e. g. in a country like Nigeria with many mutually unintelligible indigenous languages.

## **16.3.4 India :**

### **16.3.4.1 English in India :**

India was originally in the hands of English firms which organized trade with the colony, the most important of these was the powerful East India Company founded in 1600 and which established bases later in 17th century at many of the sites which were to become major cities of India such as Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. In these early days, Portuguese was an important language, being replaced in the following centuries by English with the missionary activity and the establishment of English educational institutions in India.

Because of the size and linguistic complexity of India, English has had a special function as a means of communication. This has been officially encoded in the three language formula which in the sixties was suggested for education : the state language, Hindi and English were to be taught to allow local identity, national feeling and international access to be maintained.

Indian English – irrespective of where it derives from – has quite distinctive features, above all in its phonology. The grammar of Indian English varies greatly depending on the background native language and the degree of proficiency of the individual speaker. Substrate influence makes itself felt in morphology and syntax, this interference declining sharply with education and fluency in English.

#### **16.3.4.2 South East Asia :**

From the Anglophone point of view this large area consists of Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong. The types of English spoken here again depend on degree of education and substrate influence.

#### **16.3.4.3 Australia and New Zealand :**

In Australia, the official language is English, a large variety of native languages are spoken in small quantities by the aborigines (native Australians).

The white population derives traditionally from Irish or English immigrants and is known as ‘Anglo–Celtic’. In the present century immigration from other European countries took place, e.g. from Greece and Italy. Furthermore, Australia feels the proximity to major Asiatic neighbors like China.

Basically similar to Australian English. New Zealand has Maori loanwords which are obviously not found in Australian English, e.g. tamarillo for tomato. In the area of phonology one can note that front short vowels are raised considerably – even more than in Australian English – giving man /men/, men /min/ with a diphthongization of /i/ : pin /piqn/.

#### **16.3.4.4 The Pacific region :**

The term *Polynesia* (from Greek ‘many islands’) refers to all the islands in the south–west and west of the Pacific stretching from the north of Australia up to Hawaii. This is an area which is characterised by pidgins rather than forms of English with clear historical continuity as in Australia and New Zealand.

The term Melanesian Pidgin English is often used to refer to the pidgins of the region but it is more a linguistic than a general term and refers to the pidgins and creoles spoken in Papua New Guinea (Tok Pisin), on the Solomon Islands (Pijin) and on Vanuatu (Bislama).

The islands of Hawaii were first known as the *Sandwich Islands* after their discovery by James Cook in 1778. The official language is of course English and the influence of mainland American English is quite obvious; the influence of Hawaiian is restricted to a few lexical items.

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## 16.4 LET US SUM UP

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Thus, an awareness of the origins and traditions of the metalanguage, naming practices, and discourses of “varieties of English” will be helpful to assist our own understand the concepts and theories of this branch of linguistics.

We have learnt here,  
the concept ‘variety’ in English,  
versions of Englishes in various countries.

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## 16.5 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1

<b>ANSWER THE FOLLOWING.</b>
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1. The Term \_\_\_\_\_ is used in two slightly different ways and is also represented graphically in two different ways
2. Irish English is a variety of the English language that is used in Ireland. Also known as \_\_\_\_\_ .
3. \_\_\_\_\_ English can be said to occupy an approximate position between American and British English.
4. The English of \_\_\_\_\_ shows the typical creole range of former English colonies.
5. There are four main varieties of English in South Africa : (a) Coloured English (b) The English of the black section (c) South African Indian English and (d) \_\_\_\_\_

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2

<b>ANSWER THE FOLLOWING IN DETAIL.</b>
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1. What the implication by “variety” of English ? How it has emerged as Lingua Franca ?
2. What is “Isogloss” ? How does it work with the English of Britain and America ?
3. What is the status of English in Africa and its subordinate territories ?
4. What varieties of English are practiced in India, New Zealand and Australia ?

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

<b>SHORT NOTES.</b>
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1. Varieties of English in Britain.
2. Characteristics of English in America and its subordinates.
3. Irish English and its subtypes
4. Variants of English in America



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## 16.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Colonialism** : the belief in and support for the system of one country controlling another
- **Monolithic** : too large, too regular, or without interesting differences, and unwilling or unable to be changed
- **Morphology** : the study of the form of words and phrases
- **Phonology** : the study of sounds in a particular language or in languages generally
- **Vernacular** : the form of a language that a particular group of speakers use naturally, especially in informal situations
- **Creole** : a language that has developed from a mixture of languages :
- **Anglophone** : a person who speaks English, especially in countries where other languages are also spoken
- **Pidgin** : a language that has developed from a mixture of two languages. It is used as a way of communicating by people who do not speak each other's languages
- **Lingua franca** : a common language used for communication between groups of people who speak different languages

*(Courtesy : Cambridge English Dictionary)*

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## 16.7 BOOKS SUGGESTED

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Varieties of English : A Typographical Approach by Peter Siemund  
(Cambridge 2013)

A Handbook of Varieties of English : Morphology and Syntax by  
Edgar Werner Schneider, Bernd Kortmann, Mouton De Gruyter  
(2004)

### ANSWERS

<b>Check Your Progress 1</b>
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1. Isogloss
2. Hiberno–English/ Anglo–Irish
3. Canadian
4. Jamaica
5. Afrikaner English

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

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: STRUCTURE :

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**17.0 Objectives****17.1 Introduction****17.2 Parts of Speech****17.2.1 Noun****17.2.2 Pronoun****17.2.3 Adjective****17.2.4 Verb****17.2.5 Adverb****17.2.6 Preposition****17.2.7 Conjunction****17.2.8 Interjection****17.3 Let Us Sum Up****17.4 Key Words****17.5 Books Suggested****Answers**

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**17.0 OBJECTIVES**

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In this unit we shall;

- discuss various parts of speech, and
  - learn how to use them in sentences correctly.
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**17.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The parts of speech explain how a word is used in a sentence. There are eight main parts of speech. nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections.

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**17.2 PARTS OF SPEECH**

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**17.2.1 Noun :**

Any name of a person, place or a thing is called a noun. It is also a name of quality, a material, a feeling, a collection, a state etc.

E.g. *Amit* lives in that town in *happiness*.

**Types of Nouns**

- (a) **Proper Noun** : It is a name given to a particular person/thing/place.

E.g. *Nupur* is a good dancer.

- (b) **Common Noun** : It is a name common to all.  
E.g. Nupur is a good *dancer*.
- (c) **Collective Noun** : It is a name used to talk about a bunch, a collection of the same things.  
E.g. His family is really happy.
- (d) **Abstract Noun** : It is a name of quality, action, state etc.  
E.g. *happiness, anger, frustration*
- (e) **Material Noun** : It is a name of any object, thing etc that can be used to make something else.  
E.g. *gold* for ornaments, *oil* for cooking food, *rice* for cooking food.

<b>CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1</b>
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- (A) **Enlist common nouns and proper nouns** : Ahmedabad is India's first World Heritage City. It is a beautiful place to live in. It is bigger than other cities of Gujarat.
- (B) **Find out collective nouns, abstract nouns and material nouns** : A team was playing cricket on the ground with joy. The empire was standing near the stumps. The audience was shouting with excitement. The batsman held the bat tightly.

**Noun : Gender**

- There are four genders.
- (1) Masculine gender denotes a male. E.g. *milkman, uncle*
- (2) Feminine gender denotes a female. E.g. *washerwoman, aunt*
- (3) Common gender is either a male or a female. E.g. *child, teacher*
- (4) Neuter gender is neither a male nor a female. E.g. *bag, bus, pen*

**Noun : Number**

● **Countable nouns**

Nouns that can be countable are called countable nouns. E.g. book, box etc.

- Singular denotes one thing/person. *fan, potato, baby, monkey, thief, woman,*
- Plural denotes more than one thing/person. *fans, potatoes, babies, monkeys, thieves, women*
- Generally a noun used in answer to the question “*how many ?*” is a countable noun.

E.g. *How many books ?*

● **Uncountable nouns**

Nouns that cannot be counted are called uncountable nouns. E.g. milk, water, ink etc.

- Generally, a noun when used in answer to the question “*how much ?*” is an uncountable noun.

E.g. *How much juice ?*

## Noun : Case

## Parts of Speech

- Nominative Case : The noun works as the subject of a verb.  
E.g. *The teacher* punished the student.
- Objective Case : The noun works as the object of a verb.  
E.g. The teacher punished the *student*.
- Possessive Case : This case denotes possession, authorship etc.  
E.g. Munir's books, Amish's bike
- Dative Case : It works as the indirect object of a verb.  
E.g. I gave *Mahesh* a book. ('A book' is a direct object. 'Mahesh' is an indirect object.)

## Articles

- **Indefinite articles**  
*A* or *an* is called an *indefinite article*. It means 'anyone'. A book, means *any* book. An ox, means any ox.
- **Definite article**  
*The* is a *definite article*. It refers to a specific/particular thing or person. The book, means, a *particular* book.

## Use of 'a'

- Before a singular noun which has a consonant sound in the beginning.
- E.g. a mango, an animal, a one way road, a union

## Use of 'an'

- Before a singular noun which has a vowel *sound* in the beginning.
- E.g. an orange, an honourable person, an ST station

## Use of 'the'

- (a) To show a particular person or thing.  
E.g. This is a machine. *The* machine is really awesome.
- (b) To indicate the whole class in general.  
E.g. The camel is a useful animal in a desert.
- (c) To indicate a thing that is only one of its kind (unique).  
E.g. the sun, the moon, the stars, the sky, etc.
- (d) Used with superlatives. (–est form (–most–) of adjectives)  
E.g. the biggest, the most handsome
- (e) With ordinal numbers, words like next, last etc.  
E.g. the first, the second, the next, the last
- (f) With double comparatives.  
E.g. The higher the position is, the more responsibilities you have.

(g) Used as given in the following table.

Wonders of the world	the Taj Mahal, the Pyramid
Holy books	the Bible, the Geeta, the Avesta
Seas	the Caspean Sea, the Dead Sea
Oceans	the Indian Ocean, the Pacific Ocean
Mountain ranges	the Himalayas, the Alps
Deserts	the Thar desert, the White Rann
Islands	the Andaman Nicobar, the West Indies
Epics/Famous Books of Literature	the Ramayana, the Geetanjali
Famous buildings	the Eiffel Tower, the Statue of Unity
Banks	the Bank of Baroda, the Union Bank
Musical instrument	the flute, the violin, the guitar
Directions	the north, the west, the north-east
Ships	the Titanic, the Vikrant

### **CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 2**

**PUT 'A', 'AN' OR 'THE' WHERE NECESSARY. MARK '×' WHERE ARTICLE IS NOT REQUIRED.**

- Will you send me \_\_\_\_\_ message reminding me of our proposal ?
- Will you send me \_\_\_\_\_ SMS reminding me of our proposal ?
- My mother is \_\_\_\_\_ eminent doctor.
- \_\_\_\_\_ hottest place in \_\_\_\_\_ world is not in \_\_\_\_\_ India.
- \_\_\_\_\_ Vadodara is one of \_\_\_\_\_ biggest cities in \_\_\_\_\_ Gujarat.
- He has \_\_\_\_\_ story book. \_\_\_\_\_ book is very costly.

### **17.2.2 Pronoun :**

- It is used as a substitute for a noun or a noun phrase. It has all the characteristics of a noun.

#### **Types of Pronouns**

#### **(i) Personal Pronouns**

I, We, You, He, She, It, They

They are divided into three as per their function.

	Singular	Plural
First person :	I	We
Second Person :	you	You
Third Person :	he, she, it	They

**(ii) Possessive Pronouns**

These pronouns are used to express relationship/possession/ownership.

E.g. my, our, your, his, her, their, its (determiners)

mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs, its (predicative use)

E.g. This is *my* house. This house is *mine*.

**(iii) Reciprocal Pronouns**

E.g. each other, one another

‘Each other’ is used of only two people/things and ‘one another’ when the reference is to more than two.

E.g. Their son and daughter help each other.

Indians should help one another.

**(iv) Demonstrative Pronouns**

E.g. this, that, these, those

They are used to demonstrate/point people or things they stand for.

E.g. This is our new computer. That is the girl who received the first prize.

**(v) Reflexive Pronouns**

E.g. myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves

E.g. Meghna saw herself in the mirror.

**(vi) Relative Pronouns**

E.g. who, whom, which, what, that

A relative pronoun relates or refers back to a noun or pronoun. It also joins clauses. So it is a pronoun as well as a conjunction.

E.g. I don't know who is shouting out side.

**(vii) Interrogative Pronouns**

E.g. who, whom, whose, which, what

‘Who’ refers only to persons, not to things.

Who prepares breakfast in your family ? (as a subject)

Who did you invite to the meeting ? (as an object)

Who are you talking with ? (as an object of the preposition)

‘Whose’ can stand for both animate and inanimate nouns.

Whose bag is this ?

Whose tail is the longest one ?

‘Which’ is used for both people and things when there is an implied choice or selection.

Which magazine do you like to read ?

Which one is your favourite teacher ?

‘What’ refers to things only.

What is on your mind now ?

### (viii) Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns have many varieties. They are as follows.

– **Universal pronouns** (each, every, all)

E.g. Each of you should attend the seminar right now.

– **Assertive Pronouns**

(a) much, many, more, most

E.g. Do you want milk ? No, I have much.

(b) little, a little, the little, less, least, few, a few, the few, fewer, fewest

E.g. Little learning is a dangerous thing.

(c) one

E.g. The chair is broken. I want to buy a new one.

(d) someone, somebody, something

E.g. Someone is knocking at the door.

– **Non-Assertive Pronouns**

anyone, anybody, anything, either, neither, no, no one, none, nothing, nobody

E.g. He can compete with anybody.

Either of these two ideas is acceptable to me.

Neither Sweta nor Revta will visit the museum tomorrow.

Karishma showed no interest in the new film.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 3

#### APPLY APPROPRIATE PRONOUN FROM THE BRACKETS.

1. You should tell me at least \_\_\_\_\_ about the visit. (somebody, something)
2. Whose laptop is it ? It is \_\_\_\_\_. (her, she, hers)
3. \_\_\_\_\_ of these three boys is your cousin ? (Whose, Which, When)
4. Keya is \_\_\_\_\_ sister. (him, his, he, himself)
5. Will you please listen to \_\_\_\_\_ ? (they, them, themselves, their, theirs)

### 17.2.3 Adjective :

A word used with a noun to describe or point out, the person, animal, place or thing which the noun names, or to tell the number or quantity, is called an adjective.

Examples : a *clever* pupil, *that* movie, *five* pineapples, *little* joy, *which* house

## Parts of Speech

### KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

#### (1) Adjectives of Quality (Descriptive Adjectives)

It shows the kind or quality. *Of what type/kind ?* gives the adjective of quality.

E.g. Mr Maulik Shah is an *enthusiastic* man.

#### (2) Adjectives of Quantity

It shows the quantity. *How much ?* gives the adjective of quantity.

E.g. There is *little* milk in the glass.

#### (3) Adjectives of Number (Numeral Adjectives)

It shows the numerical quantity.

E.g. There are *several* mistakes in your answer.

**Definite Numeral** [E.g. *one, two, three, first, second, third* etc]

**Indefinite Numeral** [E.g. *many, few, some, all* etc]

**Distributive Numeral** [E.g. *each, every, either, neither* etc]

#### (4) Demonstrative Adjectives

It points out *which* person or thing is meant. E.g. *these, those, such*

E.g. *This* boy is my student but *that* boy is not.

#### (5) Interrogative Adjectives

Interrogative words like *what, which* and *whose* in a question sentence with a noun serve as interrogative adjectives.

E.g. *Which* lady is your teacher ?

*What* question should I ask you first ?

#### (6) Emphasizing Adjectives

E.g. *own, very* E.g. Mind your *own* business.

#### (7) Exclamatory Adjectives

‘What’ is sometimes used as an exclamatory adjective.

E.g. *What* an idea, sir!

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 4

#### FILL IN THE GAPS USING PROPER ADJECTIVE GIVEN IN THE BRACKETS.

1. Hetanshi stood the \_\_\_\_\_ in the class. (second, two, one)
2. Which is the \_\_\_\_\_ statue in the world ? (tall, taller, tallest)
3. Ramesh is always \_\_\_\_\_ of his brother Suresh. (jealousy, jealous, jealoused)
4. \_\_\_\_\_ fort was built by the king of the region. (These, This, It)
5. There was \_\_\_\_\_ water in the cup. The sparrow drank it and flew away. (little, a little)



#### 17.2.4 Verb :

- A verb says something about a person or a thing. The word 'verb' comes from the Latin '*verbum*', a word. It is so called because it is the most important word in a sentence.
- A verb often consists of more than one word.  
E.g. The performers were *singing*. I have learnt a new lesson today.
- A verb tells us
  - (1) what a person/thing does. E.g. Het runs. The earth moves.
  - (2) what is done to a person/thing. E.g. Het is beaten. The stick was broken.
  - (3) what a person/thing is. E.g. The dog is hungry. I feel sad.

#### Types of verb and verb forms

##### – Transitive verb

When an object is needed to understand the meaning of a verb, it is a transitive verb. E.g. Ashish eats apples. Vivek was teaching English.

##### – Intransitive verb

When an object is not needed to understand the meaning of a verb, it is an intransitive verb.

E.g. He swam a long distance. (Action) The child cries. (State) There is a book on the table. (Being)

##### – Finite verb

Verbs which have past or present form/s are called finite verbs. These verbs are always with tense.

E.g.

- Amrita *plays* the piano.
- Ketan's sister gave her speech.

##### – Non-finite verb

The verbs without tense are non-finite which are in any other form like infinitive, -ing, or -ed forms of a verb.

E.g.

- *Speaking* English is advisable for interviewees.
- *Speak* English when required.

##### – Infinitives

Infinitive is a base form of a verb. It comes even without 'to'.

E.g.

- Let him see.
- Open the door now. (An order/imperative sentence)

– **Participles**

- **Past Participle (pp)** is the form of a verb which typically ends in –ed in most cases with regular verbs, which is used in forming perfect tenses and passive voice and sometimes as an adjective.

E.g.

- Have you *finished* your work ?
- I announced my *lost* wallet. (An adjective)
- Mangoes are *grown* in Gujarat. (Passive voice)

- **Present Participle** is the form of a verb which ends in –ing which is mostly used as a noun and as an adjective to form continuous tenses.

E.g.

- The boys *are sitting* near the gate.
- I always appreciate good *thinking*. (As a noun)
- He tried to swim in *running* water. (As an adjective)
- *Sitting* here, I haven't a care in the world. (As a non-finite verb)

- **Perfect participle** expresses completed action in relation to another action.

E.g.

- *Having visited* the Taj Mahal, the tourists went to New Delhi.

– **Regular and Irregular Verbs**

There are certain verbs whose past form and past participle end in –ed, e.g. open–opened–opened. Most of the verbs follow this regularity. But there are the other verbs whose past form and past participle do not follow this regularity, e.g. begin–began–begun.

**Note : Verb forms are formed based on time/tense and number/person.**

**17.2.5 Adverb :**

- An adverb modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

E.g. Shloka runs *quickly*.

This is a very sweet mango.

Mohsin reads *quite* clearly.

**Kinds of Adverbs**

- (1) Adverbs of Time (showing time/‘when’)

E.g. The workers shall *now* begin to work.

- (2) Adverbs of Frequency (showing frequency/‘how often’)

E.g. I have told you *twice*.

- (3) Adverbs of Place (showing place/‘where’)

E.g. Go *there*. The little baby followed its mother *everywhere*.

- (4) Adverbs of Manner (showing the manner/‘how’/‘in what manner’)

E.g. The army fought *bravely*. The boy *really* works hard.

- (5) Adverbs of Degree or Quantity (showing quantity/'how much', 'in what degree'/'to what extent')
- E.g. These mangoes are *almost* ripe. You are *partially* wrong.
- (6) Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation
- E.g. He was *certainly* misunderstood.
- (7) Adverbs of Reason
- E.g. He *therefore* left school.

<b>CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 5</b>
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**(a) Fill in the gaps using proper verb form.**

1. Let the students \_\_\_\_\_ if they wish to do so. (go, goes, went, to go)
2. Meshwa was absent from the class due to \_\_\_\_\_ ill. (was, is, being)
3. \_\_\_\_\_ his assignment, he switched on the TV. (Had done, Done, Having done)

**(b) Use proper adverb in the sentences.**

1. The singer sang the *bhajan* \_\_\_\_\_. (melodiously, miraculously, curiously)
2. The students played the game \_\_\_\_\_ but they could not win the match. (fastly, generously, genuinely)
3. He was rich \_\_\_\_\_ to buy a gorgeous bungalow. (too, enough, for)

**17.2.6 Preposition :**

- A Preposition is placed before a noun/pronoun to show in what relation the person/thing denoted by it stands in regard to something else.
- Some prepositions

**Preposition 'in'**

- (a) For a three dimensional place/object, we use 'in' for someone/ something inside it. Usually it shows the position/state of the person/ object.
- E.g. There is a notebook in the bag.
- (b) When we talk about a place as an area, we use 'in'.
- E.g. The students are playing in the garden.
- (c) It is used with names of months, year, season, time of the day etc.
- E.g. in January, in 1950, in Summer, in the morning

**Preposition 'into'**

- (a) Usually it shows the movement/motion of a person/object from outside to inside.
- E.g. My mother is going into the kitchen.

**Preposition ‘on’**

- (a) We use ‘on’ when we emphasize an object/person placed over a surface. In this case, there is a contact between the two objects/persons/surfaces.

E.g. There is a flower vase on the table.

- (b) It is used with the name of the day. E.g. on Sunday, on holidays

**Preposition ‘at’**

- (a) For place as a point, we use ‘at’.

E.g. He waited for her at the park. Our train stops at Ahmadnagar.

- (b) It is used with the specific time of the day.

E.g. at 2 o'clock, at midnight

**Preposition ‘in/out of’**

When something/someone goes out of something/somewhere, ‘out of’ is used as a preposition.

E.g. The thief jumped out of the window to escape.

**Preposition ‘on/off’**

As a preposition ‘off’ is used to imply that the object is no longer on the surface.

E.g. The lady fell off the chair.

**Preposition ‘inside/outside’**

‘Inside’ is the opposite of ‘outside’.

E.g. The man is inside the café. Now he is outside the café after paying his bill.

**Preposition ‘above’, ‘over’**

‘Above’ and ‘over’, are used for the things/persons in a higher position while ‘below’ and ‘under’ are used for the things/persons in a lower position.

E.g. The calendar is above the switchboard.

There is a narrow bridge over the river.

**Preposition ‘under’**

- (a) ‘Under’ is the opposite of ‘on’, ‘over’.

E.g. The toy train is under the table. The situation is under control.

- (b) ‘under’ is used to talk about power/control.

E.g. under control, under influence

**Preposition ‘below’**

- (a) When we want to describe lower positions (but not necessarily the vertical position), we use ‘below’.

E.g. Your result is below the expectations.

- (b) below average, below poverty line.

### Preposition 'in front of', 'behind'

E.g. The car is in front of the truck. The bike is behind the truck.

### Preposition 'between/among'

- 'Between' is used to show the place of a person/thing between two things/persons/objects.
- 'Among' is used to show that a person/thing is surrounded by more than two people/ things/objects.

E.g. The ball is between the box and the dog.

They are sharing food among themselves.

### Preposition 'beside'

- 'Beside' is used to show the position of a person/thing on either side (right or left) of another person/thing. It has different meaning than 'near'.

E.g. Vivek is sitting beside his mother.

### Preposition 'up/down'

- 'Up' shows the upward motion/movement.
- 'Down' shows the downward motion/movement.

E.g. The small boy went up the stairs.

The old man is coming down the stairs.

### Preposition 'from/to/towards'

- 'From' and 'to' are used to show the exact destination/place. They also show time.
- 'Towards' is used to show the direction. ('in that direction')

E.g. Mr Shah is going towards the garden.

(meaning : not exactly to the garden but in that direction)

The flight is from Chennai to Bengluru.

Why is that policeman coming towards us ?

My lecture will be from 9 to 11 tomorrow.

### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 6

#### Fill in the gaps using proper preposition.

1. Rahul sat \_\_\_\_\_ the driver seat at the back. (behind, between, under)
2. The shopping mall is \_\_\_\_\_ the bank and the library. (between, among, in)
3. The portrait \_\_\_\_\_ the wall is beautiful. (in, on, off)
4. Two vendors are quarrelling \_\_\_\_\_ the railway station. (on, at, over)
5. The bank and the library are \_\_\_\_\_ the shopping mall. (between, among, near)

**17.2.7 Conjunction :**

- A conjunction is used to join words, phrases, or sentences.
- There are two types of conjunctions : co-ordinating conjunction and subordinating conjunction.
- A co-ordinating conjunction is used to join clauses of equal rank. The main co-ordinating conjunctions are – and, but, for, or, nor, also, either-or, neither-nor, etc.
- A subordinating conjunction is used to join a clause to another on, which it depends for its full meaning. The main Subordinating conjunctions are – after, because, if, that, though, although, till, before, unless, as, when, where, while, etc.

**The Conjunction ‘and’**

- To connect two independent clauses/words/phrases in a sentence. They make compound sentences.

E.g.

1. Kartik and Krutarth are good friends.
2. Mr Khans went to her house and talked to her mother.

**The Conjunctions ‘but’, ‘yet’, ‘still’**

- To express opposite or contrasting statements or words. They make compound sentences.

E.g.

1. Sheetal is clever but she is very proud.
2. We went to the show but we could not get any tickets.

**The Conjunctions ‘or’, ‘otherwise’**

- To express a choice between two alternatives. They make compound sentences.

E.g.

1. You should pay your fees now otherwise the teacher will not allow you for the class today.
2. Raveena or her father will go to the party.

**The Conjunctions ‘so’, ‘therefore’**

- To indicate the consequence as well as the reason. They make compound sentences.

**Structure**

- [clause showing *reason*] so/therefore [clause showing *result*]

E.g.

1. It was extremely hot outside so I could not go out with my friends.
2. Kajal Mehta didn't work efficiently therefore she was not promoted.

**The Conjunctions ‘because’, ‘since’, ‘for’, ‘as’**

- To show the cause or reason. As they are used with dependent clauses, they make complex sentences.

**Structure**

- [clause showing *result*] because/since/as/for [clause showing *reason/cause*]
- Because/Since/As/For [clause showing *reason/cause*], [clause showing *result*]

E.g.

1. Gita Desai was happy because she cleared the entrance exam successfully.
2. The production was stopped as the manager was unable to tackle the issue.

**The Conjunctions ‘because of’, ‘due to’, ‘on account of’, ‘owing to’**

- To show the cause or reason. These conjunctions are followed by a phrase or phrases. They make simple sentences.

**Structure**

- [clause showing *result*] because of/due to/on account of/owing to [phrase showing *reason/cause*]
- Because of/Due to/On account of/Owing to [phrase showing *reason/cause*], [clause showing *result*]

E.g.

1. Geeta Desai was happy because of her excellent result.
2. The production was stopped on account of the manager's inability (to tackle the issue).

**The Conjunctions ‘though’, ‘although’, ‘even though’, ‘even if’**

- To show contradiction/contrast. They make complex sentences.

**Structure**

- Though/Although/Even though/Even if [clause 1], [clause 2].
- [clause 2] though/although/even though/even if [clause 1].

E.g.

1. Though the teacher taught you minutely, you still did not understand.
2. Although the doctor made all the pathological tests, he could not diagnose the disease.

**The Conjunctions ‘however’, ‘as’**

- To show contradiction/contrast. They make complex sentences.

**Structure**

- However {adj/adv} S (subject) V (verb) {other words}, [clause 2].
- [clause 2], however {adj/adv} S (subject) V (verb) {other words}.
- {Adj/Adv} as S (subject) V (verb) {other words}, [clause 2].
- [clause 2], {adj/adv} as S (subject) V (verb) {other words}.

E.g.

1. However hard you work, you will not get the highest marks./  
You will not get the highest marks, however hard you work.
2. Hard as you work, you will not get the highest marks./  
You will not get the highest marks, hard as you work.

### **The Conjunctions ‘in spite of’, ‘despite’**

- To show contradiction/contrast. They make simple sentences.

#### **Structure**

- In spite of/Despite [phrase], [clause].
- [clause] in spite of/despite [phrase].

E.g.

1. In spite of tiredness, he continued to work till 10 pm.
2. Despite working hard, Atul could not pass this easy exam.

### **The Conjunctions ‘if’, ‘unless’**

- To show conditions. They make complex sentences.
- ‘Unless’ is the opposite of ‘if’. [if not = unless]

E.g.

- If you work hard, you will get good score.
- If you had worked hard, you would have got good score.
- Unless you work hard, you will not pass/you will fail.

### **The Conjunctions ‘who’, ‘which’, ‘that’, ‘whom’, ‘whose’**

- ‘Who’ refers to a human being.
- ‘Which’ refers to any object, animal, bird, insect.
- The use of ‘that’ is preferred after *only*, *much*, *few*, *little*, *no*, *all*, *some*, *any*, and superlatives.

E.g.

1. The man who is in a black suit is my professor.
2. This is the book which I bought yesterday.
3. Do you know the man whom the principal was scolding in the evening ?
4. The writer whose book you were reading is my friend.
5. Any person that listens to you is a fool.

### **The Conjunctions ‘when’, ‘why’, ‘where’**

- The conjunction ‘when’ indicates time, ‘why’ indicates reason and ‘where’ indicates place.

E.g.

1. This is the hospital where my aunt is working as a nurse.
2. What was the day when Mrs Indira Gandhi was assassinated ?
3. Does anybody know the reason why she joined this firm ?



### The Conjunctions 'either...or', 'neither...nor', 'both...and', 'not only...but also'

- These conjunctions are used to express a choice between two alternatives.
- 'Either...or' indicates any one of them; 'neither...nor' indicates none of them; 'both...and' indicates both; 'not only...but also' indicates both but the verb depends on the word given after 'but also'.

E.g.

1. I have only one entry pass. Either you or your friend can join me. (any one)
2. I have no entry pass. Neither Sapan nor Vijay will come. (none)
3. Not only Ruhani but also her sisters are studious.
4. Not only Ruhani's sisters, but also she is studious.

#### CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 7

**Fill in the blanks using proper conjunction.**

1. This is the girl \_\_\_\_\_ is my cousin. (which, who, whom, whose)
2. \_\_\_\_\_ he works hard, he would surely fail. (Due to, If, Unless, Despite)
3. \_\_\_\_\_ minutely I have taught you, you still do not understand. (As, However, Though)
4. The time \_\_\_\_\_ has gone has gone forever. (when, which, who, whom)
5. Winter is the season \_\_\_\_\_ we feel cold. (when, which, who, whom)

#### 17.2.8 Interjection :

- An interjection expresses some sudden feeling or emotion.
- (1) Joy; as, Hurrah! Huzza! (2) Grief; as, alas! (3) Surprise; as, ha! What! (4) Approval; as, bravo!
- E.g. 1. What a nice work you have done!  
2. Wow! We won the match.

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#### 17.3 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit, you have

- learnt various parts of speech, and
- learnt how to use them in conversations correctly

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#### 17.4 KEY WORDS

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**Parts of Speech :** It indicates how the word functions in meaning as well as grammatically within the sentence.

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**17.5 BOOKS SUGGESTED**

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**Parts of Speech**

Vickers, Rebecca. *Types of Words : Unleashing Powerful Parts of Speech*. Capstone Global Library Limited, UK, 2013.

Wren & Martin, *High School English Grammar and Composition*. S Chand, New Delhi, 2018.

**Answers****Check Your Progress 1**

- (A) **Common Nouns** : city, place, world  
**Proper Nouns** : Ahmedabad, India, Gujarat
- (B) **Collective Nouns** : team, audience  
**Abstract Nouns** : joy, excitement  
**Material Nouns** : stumps, bat

**Check Your Progress 2**

- |                |              |           |
|----------------|--------------|-----------|
| 1. a           | 2. an        | 3. an     |
| 4. The, the, X | 5. X, the, X | 6. a, The |

**Check Your Progress 3**

- |              |         |          |
|--------------|---------|----------|
| 1. something | 2. hers | 3. Which |
| 4. his       | 5. them |          |

**Check Your Progress 4**

- |           |             |            |
|-----------|-------------|------------|
| 1. second | 2. tallest  | 3. jealous |
| 4. This   | 5. a little |            |

**Check Your Progress 5**

- |                    |              |                |
|--------------------|--------------|----------------|
| (a) 1. go          | 2. being     | 3. Having done |
| (b) 1. melodiously | 2. genuinely | 3. enough      |

**Check Your Progress 6**

- |           |            |       |
|-----------|------------|-------|
| 1. behind | 2. between | 3. on |
| 4. at     | 5. near    |       |

**Check Your Progress 7**

- |          |           |            |
|----------|-----------|------------|
| 1. who   | 2. Unless | 3. However |
| 4. which | 5. when   |            |

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦







### યુનિવર્સિટી ગીત

સ્વાધ્યાય: પરમં તપઃ

સ્વાધ્યાય: પરમં તપઃ

સ્વાધ્યાય: પરમં તપઃ

શિશુજ્ઞ, સંસ્કૃતિ, સદ્ભાવ, દિવ્યભોધનું ધામ  
ડ્રી. બાબાસાહેબ આંબેડકર ઓપન યુનિવર્સિટી નામઃ  
સૌને સૌની પ્રાણ મળે, ને સૌને સૌનું આભ,  
દશે દિશામાં સ્મિત વહે હો દશે દિશે શુભ-લાભ.

આભણ રહી અજ્ઞાનના શાને, અંધકારને પીવો ?  
કહે બુદ્ધ આંબેડકર કહે, તું થા તારો દીવો;  
શારદીય અજવાળા પહોંચ્યાં મુર્જરે ગામે ગામ  
ધ્રુવ તારકની જિમ ઝળહળે એકલવ્યની શાન.

સરસ્વતીના મધુર તમારે કળિયે આવી ગહેકે  
અંધકારને હડસેલીને ઈજસના ફૂલ મહેકે;  
બંધન નહીં કો સ્થાન સમયના જલું ન વરથી દૂર  
ધર આવી મા હરે શારદા દૈન્ય તિમિરના પૂર.

સંસ્કારોની સુગંધ મહેકે, મન મદિરને ધામે  
સુખની ટપાલ પહોંચે સૌને પોતાને સરનામે;  
સમાજ કેરે દરિયે હાડી શિક્ષણ કેરું વહાણ,  
આવી કરીયે આપણ સૌ  
બચ્ચ રાષ્ટ્ર નિર્માણ...  
દિવ્ય રાષ્ટ્ર નિર્માણ...  
બચ્ચ રાષ્ટ્ર નિર્માણ

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