PREFACE

In the curricular structure introduced by this University, apart from the two year Postgraduate Degree programmes, a number of Advanced Diploma Courses of shorter duration (one year) have been introduced for learners for whom time is a constraint. Equally relevant and useful as the Postgraduate courses, are the Advanced Diploma Courses, which are designed for advancing the latent abilities of the learners. Since the University does not believe in artificial differences of learning abilities, opting for various courses is viewed from the perspective of need and orientation of the learners rather than from their ability and aptitude. Therefore, in the course of the learning process, the learners' receptivity of the course component remains the primary concern.

Keeping this in view, study materials of the Advanced Diploma level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analyses.

The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in invisible teaching. For, whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other.

The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that they may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University.

Needless to add, a great part of these efforts is still experimental–in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these too admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned.

Professor (Dr) Ranjan Chakrabarti
Vice-Chancellor

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Paper – 2

Modules – 1 & 2

Board of Studies

Prof. (Dr.) Sharmistha Chatterjee

Prof. (Dr.) Sathuvalli Mohanraj

Prof. (Dr.) Jaysankar Basu

Prof. (Dr.) Sumana Bandopadhyay

Ms. Anindita Sarkar

Prof. (Dr.) Shyamashree Chakraborty (External Member)

Prof. (Dr.) Swapan Kr. Banerjee (External Member)

Author and Compiler	**Editors**
Nilanjan Ghosh	Prof. Arpita Banerjee
	Dr Sumana Bandyopadhyay

Notification

Dr. Asit Baran Aich

Registrar (Acting)

Netaji Subhas Open University

PAPER – II

Module 1 ❑ Phonetics

Module 2 ❑ Grammar

Unit 1 ❑ General Phonetics & Phonology

Structure

1.0 ❑ Objective

In this unit we will be dealing with the study of speech sounds in a language. The study of speech sounds is referred to as Phonology. Our objective is to give you a clear picture of the difference between Phonetics and Phonology and how Phonetics is directly related to Phonology. This unit has been designed to acquaint you with how Phonology helps us to identify the phonemes and the allophones of a particular language. The English word 'man' is pronounced with a first segment /m/, a second segment / æ/, and a third

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segment /n/. It is not always easy to decide on the number of segments. To give a simple example, in the word 'mine', the first and the last segment are /m/ and /n/ respectively as in the word, 'man' as discussed above. But should we regard the /aI / in the middle as one segment or two? We want to clear all such confusions through this chapter.

1.1 ❑ Introduction

When you wake up early in the morning, you can hear different types of sound, isn't it? Can you remember at least three of them? Are they all speech sounds? If not, list three of them below:

i) …………... ………   ii) …………………..   iii) ……………………..

Speech sounds are those that combine to form words and sentences. We use these while communicating with others. Actually, Phonology teaches us how to pronounce correctly. If you cannot pronounce correctly, you can never communicate with others well. So, you can well understand how vital is the role of Phonology in a communicative process.

Now let us discuss about the sounds of speech. We can divide the speech into the segments of sounds and a great variety can be noticed in the way these segments are made. Like the abstract alphabet, the basis of your writing, there is an abstract set of units as the basis of your speech. These units are called **phonemes**, and the complete set of these of units is called the **phonemic system** of the language. The phonemes themselves are abstract, but there are many slightly different ways in which we make the sounds that represent these phonemes.

We find cases where it makes little difference which of the possible ways we choose to pronounce a sound. For example, the sound, /b/ at the beginning of 'bad', is usually pronounced with practically no voicing though the same sound in the same word can be pronounced by a speaker with full voicing, perhaps in speaking emphatically. But in both the cases the sound is identified as the phoneme / b /. We have in this example two different ways of making / b / -------- two different **realizations** of the same phoneme. One can be substituted by the other without changing the meaning. These two realizations are said to be in **free variation.** On the other hand, we can also find cases in speech where one segment can only occur and not the other. For example, the realization of the sound, /t/ in the word 'tea' is aspirated while in the word 'eat' the realization of the same sound is unaspirated. But both the realizations - aspirated and unaspirated - are recognized

as /t/ by the native speakers of English despite their differences. But the aspirated realization can never be found where unaspirated realization is appropriate and vice versa. When we find this strict separation of places where a particular realization can occur, we say that the realization is in the **complementary distribution.** You should acquaint yourselves with another technical term in this discipline, i.e. **allophones.** When we talk about different realizations of phonemes, we sometimes call these realizations **allophones**. In the last example, you came across the aspirated and unaspirated allophones of the phoneme, /t/. Usually we never indicate different allophones when we write symbols to represent sounds. Phonology tells us about the how and the why of various realizations of sounds while making communications with others. I expect you, by the end of the unit, to be in a position to explain the difference between phonetics & phonology and also to explain the difference between phonemes & allophones. But before studying the next parts [1.2 onwards] it is my advice, take a break for sometime, refresh your mind and it will help to study well.

1.2 ❑ The Nature of Spoken Language :-

When we speak, our spoken language consists of a succession of speech sounds that are produced with the help of organs of speech [in the next unit we will discuss it in detail].

Speech sounds are made voluntarily. They require that organs of speech shall be moved in certain definite ways in order to produce the required language for communication. The succession of sounds are composed of i) speech sounds proper, and ii) glides. The speaker has to go out of his way in order to make a glide as glides occur as natural and inevitable result of pronouncing two speech-sounds one after the other. Most of the glides are inaudible or hardly audible even to the most practiced ear.

1.3 ❑ Phonetics and Phonology :-

What is Phonology?

Phonology is the branch of linguistics which investigates the ways in which speech sounds are used systemically to form words or utterances. If you wish to understand phonology, you must have a grasp of the basic concept of phonetics. Phonetics is the study of speech sounds: how they are made, transmitted and received. Phonetics is the study of all the possible sounds that the human vocal apparatus can produce and the

hearers can perceive in addition to their acoustic properties. Most speakers of a language like English who have not studied phonetics can hardly describe the spoken language except in terms of the letters of the alphabet which are often interpreted as graphological representation pertaining to the study of the written language.

By contrast, phonology studies the way the speakers of a language systematically use a selection of the sounds in order to express meaning. Only a small number of all the possible sounds that anyone can produce are used in a language to construct all of its words and sentences. Phonology is, thus, a study of how we find order within the apparent chaos of speech sounds. The primary aim of phonology is to discover the principles that govern the way the sounds are organized in languages.

As mentioned earlier two utterances by the same person of a particular word may show a marked difference in the quality of sound, yet we can say that the same sound sequence has been repeated. For example, we may hear clear and considerable differences of quality in the vowel sound 'love' as for instance in London and Manchester pronunciation of the word or in India you can hear a clear difference of quality in the vowel of 'cot' in the U.P. and Bengal pronunciation of the word.

1.3.1 The structuralist perspective:-

The structural linguists were mostly concerned with the tools of analysis. Hence, as far as sounds were concerned, they were interested to find out how to phonemicize, how to represent unusual allophonic and morphophonemic situations, how stress and pitch contrast should be represented, and how to represent the phonology of a particular language, etc. These linguists, however, were not in a position to find out the general properties of phonological systems, or the question of how phonology was related to syntax and semantics. But this view was discarded later on in **generative phonology**.

1.3.2 The generative perspective:-

The generative phonology which was a component of the generative grammar, captured the general principles that related phonological (underlying) representations to phonetic (surface) representations. The generativists were interested in the interaction of phonology with syntax, morphology and semantics. They were interested in questions like:-

a) what is the nature of the relationship between phonology and grammar ?

b) to what extent are syntactic rules based on phonological information ?, and

c) to what extent are phonological rules based on syntactic information ?

At the same time it is the **feature** but not the phoneme which was considered as the smallest unit by the generativists. They defined a segment or a sound as a **simultaneous bundle of specified features** which was defined in acoustic terms [Jakobson] or in articulatory terms [Chomsky and Halle].

1.4 ❑ **The role of sounds in communication :-**

When a person wants to convey a message to another person, s/he may write it down on a paper, wood, bone, clay, wax or stone and hand it over. Even it can be possible, specially for the deaf and dumb, by sign language. One person, standing on a mountain range can wave or drape flags in a pre-arranged way to the recipient standing on another mountain range or s/he may prefer to flash a mirror. But all these are visual means. The message may also be transmitted through sounds or audible means. For example, by fog- horn, morse-code or drum-beat or it may simply be spoken - i.e. transmitted by word of mouth.

Mostly all messages are spoken i.e. transmitted by means of sounds generated by some of the bodily organs available to all human beings. Spoken words are the most frequent as well as the most important means of communication among the people. But it would be wrong to consider it to be at the centre of communication since there are the availability of other media like flags, drums, writing, gesture etc.

It is, therefore, necessary to acknowledge the centrality of the 'message' in order to be able to place phonetics - the study of the sounds of spoken language - in the context of linguistic studies generally. Phonetics is concerned with the human sounds by which the 'message' is given an audible shape, the nature of those sounds, their combinations, and their functions in relation to the message.

1.5 ❑ **Exercise :-**

Answer the following questions :-

i) "Speech sounds are made voluntarily" - Explain in your own words.

ii) In what way is spoken language more important than written language?

iii) What is the difference between **complementary distribution and free variation** ? Can you cite on example from your mother tongue?

iv) What are the major differences in terms of phonological analysis between the structuralists and the generativists?

1.6 ❑ **Phoneme vs Allophone :-**

Phonemes are the **minimal distinctive units** of sound. By **minimal** we mean that they cannot be further subdivided into smaller chunks. By **distinctive** we imply that each phoneme is distinct from the other. For example, consider the word *cap* /kæp/ which consists of three sounds /k/, /æ/, /p/. When we say that each one is a distinctive unit what we imply is that if we substitute the sound /k/ by the sound /t/ in *cap* the meaning of the word will be changed as a totally different word (*tap*) will be formed. Similarly if we substitute the sound /æ/ with the sound /^/, and /p/ with /t/ the meaning of both the words will be changed in the same way and different two words will be formed (*cup* and *cat* respectively). Thus each sound is distinctive in nature, because substitution of one sound with on other sound will bring about a change in meaning.

A phoneme is a minimal and distinctive unit of a language.

However, while analyzing languages it is also found that some sounds are **minimal** but **not distinctive**. This implies that sometimes there are sounds in a language, which do not bring about change in meaning and are, therefore, not distinctive. Let us look at this phenomenon with examples from English language. The native speakers of English pronounce words like **come, take** and **past** not as /k^m/, /teɪk/ or /pa:st/ but as / k^h^ m/ / t^{h}eɪk / and / þ^{h}a:st/. It means soon after the production of the first sound of these words, native speakers of English produce a sound which is similar to /h/ before they move on to produce the vowel sound in the above mentioned words. This production of /h/ sound is called aspiration. In English only the three sounds / p, t, k / are aspirated and they are aspirated only when they occur initially in a stressed syllable.

Let us come back to our original issue. As pointed out earlier there are certain sounds in English which are not distinctive in nature and we had defined a minimal distinctive unit of sound in a given language. Now if there are some sounds in a language which are not distinctive, obviously, we cannot call them phonemes. What are they called then? Well, they are called **Allophones**. The allophones of a phoneme occur in the complementary distribution (I have already discussed in the introduction); they never occur in the same environment. For example, in English [k^h] is considered to be the allophone of / k / while [k^h] occurs in the initial position of a stressed syllable, [k] occurs in the other environment. [k] and [k^h] can never occur in the same environment.

Another important point regarding allophones is: all the allophonic variants of a phoneme belong to the same phoneme. When we say that the allophonic variants of a phoneme belong to the same phoneme, we mean that [pʰ] and [p] are allophones of /p/ , [kʰ] and [k] are allophones of /k/ and [tʰ] and [t] are the allophones of /t/.The allophones of a phoneme have Phonetic similarity. Thus [pʰ], [tʰ] and [kʰ] are phonetically similar to [p], [t] and [k] respectively.

1.6.1 Exercise :-

i)   What is an allophone ? Can you post allophonic variation of any two English sounds? Give examples with suitable words.

ii) What are the major differences between a phoneme and an allophone?

iii) What do you mean by aspiration? Say which sounds in the following words are aspirated:-

  i)   peep = _____   iii)   sit = _____

  ii) speak = _____   iv)   cloud = _____

  v)   take = _____   vi)   kite = _____

vii) talk = _____   viii) important = _____

  ix) interesting = _____   x)   economic = _____

  xi) tamarind = _____   xii) spark = _____

xiii) cat = _____   xiv) traffic = _____

  xv) pattern = _____

1.7 ❑ Difficulties in pronunciation :-

A speaker of English has to face a number of inconveniences as far as pronunciation is concerned.

1. S/he has to recognize readily and with certainty the various speech sounds in the language when s/he hears them pronounced. S/he must also learn to remember the acoustic qualities of these sounds.

2.	S/he has to learn to produce these sounds correctly and use them in their proper places in connected speech.

3.	S/he must also learn to join each sound of a sequence on to the next, and to pronounce the complete sequence rapidly without any hindrance.

The ultimate object of the language learner will be to pronounce the complete sequence properly without any hesitation. In order to achieve this sort of proficiency, s/he (at the initial level of his/her study) must focus his/her attention continually on details of the speech mechanism.

Ability to speak a language or make out what is spoken does not involve the ability to read or write in the conventional way. A person may speak a language perfectly even without being aware of the process of production. On the other hand, one can learn to read or write (or both) a language without being able to pronounce it.

1.7.1 How to overcome these difficulties:-

The first thing we need to eradicate all these difficulties, is a good ear-training or cultivation of the auditory memory. No one can be a successful linguist unless s/he possesses a good ear. If his/her ear is insensitive by nature, it should be made more sensitive by ear-training; if his/her ear is good it can be made much better by practice and training.

The possession of a good ear involves : a] ability to discriminate sounds; b] ability to remember the acoustic qualities of foreign sounds ; c] ability to recognize the foreign sounds at once with certainty. To cultivate all these characteristics, requires a good linguistic practice in listening to sounds. In order to learn to form the speech-sounds of a foreign language, the students have to learn to put their tongue, lips and other parts of the organs of speech into certain definite positions, or to perform with them certain actions. In other words, the language learner should study phonetic theory and do, when necessary, exercises based on that theory.

Besides, students must have a clear concept regarding maintenance of the proper order or sequence of sounds in order to make intelligible words as well as sentences. The speaker should know if s/he wishes to communicate the idea expressed in French by 'armoire' and German by 'Schrank', s/he must form the English sounds / k^ bə d / one after the other in this order. But any sort of change in sound or its order will not convey the proper meaning.

There is a strong antagonism between the conventional English spelling and

phonetics. The alphabetical form of the spelling very often deceptive. Are you thinking how is it possible? Let's explain it through example: the letter **'a'** in the word 'gate' or **'i'** in the word 'find' or **'u'** in 'tune' A learner may know the values of these letters without any difficulty, but as soon as the learner has learnt them, he finds so many words in which these letters have quite a different value. For instance study and compare the sounds of the letter **a** in the words like :-

f**a**ther, **a**ny, f**a**t, w**a**tch, f**a**ll

They are not the same.

Now study and compare the sounds of **i** in w**i**nd, mach**i**ne, b**i**rd or **u** in p**u**t, b**u**t, r**u**le.

Hello, can you guess anything? What do you notice here? Yes ---

Spelling is the same but pronunciation different.

You will find that there is constant contradiction between spelling and pronunciation which leads astray not only the beginners but also the experts. The result of such inconsistencies is that the foreign learners who depend solely on the ordinary orthography, is in innumerable cases at a loss to know what sounds should be used and continuously mispronounce words. However, such mispronunciations may be avoided by the study and use of **phonetic transcription**.

A learner will generally be able to pronounce correctly in the matter of **length**, **stress** and **pitch**, if s/he has been provided with such information. Sometimes these may be applied by means of rules, and sometimes it is better conveyed by marks, in the phonetic transcriptions. We will discuss these in detail in the chapters ahead. The only thing that I want to remind you is very often, the speakers cannot pronounce sequences of sounds with rapidity [they cannot 'catenate'], they rather stumble while speaking. It is a great defect which can be rectified by continuous repetition and practice.

1.7.2 Exercise:-

What's wrong with each of the following utterances ? Rewrite them in the correct sequence and read them out aloud. State the kind of error:

A] People showed him respect for at the station.

B] He was wearing a smart turban.

C] I have ordered for a new football.

D] I always keep my money in this box.

E] He lives miserly in a way.

1.8 ❑ Varieties of pronunciation

The first question that comes to the mind of a person who wishes to learn an acceptable pronunciation of a language, (Let's say English language) is: which of the various forms of pronunciation should we learn?

No two persons belonging to same nationality pronounce their own language exactly alike. The difference may be due to the locality in which they live; social surroundings or early influences, and there may be individual peculiarities for which it is difficult or impossible to account. It is often noticed that the pronunciation of English among people brought up in Manchester is different from those from Exeter and both differ from the pronunciation of those brought up in Edinburgh or in London.

Let's take an example. Differences of English pronunciation according to locality may be found in the treatment of the letter 'r' in the word 'part'. In Scotland it is pronounced as slightly flapped /**r**/ while /r/ is not pronounced until it is followed by a vowel sound. So the pronunciation of 'part' is /pɑːt/. According to their rule /r/ is not pronounced when it is in the final position of the word or when it is followed by a consonant sound. So they pronounce as /**pɑːt/ or /kɑː/** (for 'car) but /**verɪ**/ or /**sorɪ**/. In many parts of North and West of England /r/ appears as **Retroflex.**

In southern England the vowel sounds in 'boot' and 'book' are different where as in Scotland a short closed /u/ is used for both the words.

Pronunciation is also influenced by the level of education. People of limited education in different parts of England omit /**h**/ and pronounce / **elp** / for the word 'help'. In London (Cockney) words like 'name' is pronounced with the dipthong, /aɪ/ or / æɪ / instead of /eɪ/ and words like 'house' or 'about' are pronounced with / æ u /, or sometimes / əbæut / or / əbæət /. In uneducated Yorkshire speech the vowels of 'put' /u/ and cut /^/ are levelled to a vowel intermediate between these two.

Because of so many differences it is really very difficult for foreign learners to know which type of pronunciation should be learnt and which one should be accepted as the standard variety. The term **Received Pronunciation (RP)** is often used to designate the southern England variety. Among several different styles of pronunciation notable ones are the rapid familiar style, the slower colloquial style, the natural style used while addressing an audience, the acquired style of the stage while acting and the acquired styles used in singing. Of these the slower colloquial style is perhaps the most suitable for beginners.

1.8.1 Exercise:-

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

2] Read out the following words and underline the vowel sounds in the following words.

important   remember   alphabet   London   correct   English   particular

pronunciation   language   necessary   letter   property   rumour   repertoire

lotus   caravan   father   brother   cattle   between.

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

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

1.9 ❑ Let's sum up :-

In this unit, I initiated the discussion with the role of Phonology in communicative process along with the definition of phoneme, I also tried to give you the concept of the phonological environment like free variation and complementary distribution. Later on I discussed the fact that when we speak, our spoken language consists of a succession of speech sounds that are produced with the help of speech organs. Next I told you about the distinction between phonetics and phonology from both the structuralist and generativist points of view. Then the distinction between phoneme and allophone was dealt with detail in the unit. Terms like phonemes, allophones, distinctive, aspiration etc. were also introduced in this unit. Towards the end of the unit, difficulties of pronunciation and how those difficulties can be overcome were discussed in detail. Some remedies have also been suggested to eradicate all these inconveniences. Finally, varieties of pronunciation have been recorded and at the same time RP has been accepted as the standard English pronunciation.

1.10 ❑ Recommended reading :-

1. *A Course in Modern Linguistics : Hockett,C.F.*

2. *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students : Balasubramanian*

3. *An Introduction to Phonology : Katamba, Francis*

4. *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English : Gimson, A.C.*

5. *An Outline of English Phonetics : Jones, D.*

6. *Better English Pronunciation : O'Connor, J.D.*

7. *Elements of General Phonetics : Abercrombie, D.*

8. *English Phonetics and Phonology : Roach, P.*

9. *Modern Linguistics : An Introduction : Verma, S.K.*

10. *Phonetics : Theory and Application : Tiffany and Correll.*

Unit 2 ❑ Organs of Speech

Structure

2.0 ❑ Objective

Our objective, in this unit, is to familiarize you with the different stages of speech production. It is our aim to make you acquainted (in details) with various parts of our body that are associated with the speech production.

2.1 ❑ Introduction

Speech is the result of a highly complicated series of events. For example, when you say *I am very tired*, a number of processes take place. First, you formulate the concept at a linguistic level i.e. in the brain, this stage is called the *psychological stage*. Then the nervous system transmits the message to the organs of speech which make certain movements and produce particular patterns of sounds. This is the *articulatory or physiological stage*. Next the movements of the organs of speech create disturbances in

the air. It is called *physical or acoustic stage*. Since communication generally involves a speaker and a listener, at the listening end the processes involved are ***auditing*** (perception of vibrations in the air in the listener's ear-drum) and ***cognition*** (decoding sounds).

There is no such organ in our body which is specially designed for the production of speech. So, when we talk about the organs of speech, we refer to parts of the body that help to produce speech sounds of a language or those that are incidentally useful for this purpose. Those organs of speech also have to perform other duties like breathing, chewing, swallowing, smelling and so on.

2.2 ❑ The Speech Mechanism :-

Our body from the head to the abdomen is needed for the production of spoken language. There are three groups of bodily organs which are used ---- one group lies in the trunk, one in the throat, one in the head. These are usually known as :-

1. the respiratory system
2. the phonatory system
3. the articulatory system

These three systems, with very different primary functions, work together as a unified whole to produce speech.

2.2.1 The respiratory system :-

The respiratory system comprises the ***lungs***, the ***bronchial tubes***, and the ***windpipe*** or **trachea**. The most usual source of energy for our vocal activity is provided by an air-stream expelled from the lungs. There are languages which have sounds not requiring lung (***pulmonic***) air for their articulation, but all the essential sounds of English need pulmonic air for their production.

2.2.2 The phonatory system :-

It is formed by the larynx or voice-box, the front part of which can be seen in adult males. It is called 'Adam's apple'. The larynx contains the ***vocal cords*** [or ***vocal folds***]. The opening between the vocal cords is called ***'glottis'***.

2.2.3 The articulatory system :-

This system consists of the ***nose***, the ***lips***, and the ***mouth*** and its contents, including

teeth and *tongue* specially. Although *ear* is not a speech producing mechanism, we should include it among the vocal organs, as speech is not just produced, it also has to be received - and the main organ of reception is the ear. This system has been shown in the diagram below :-
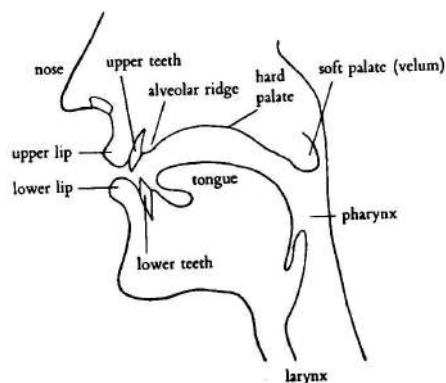
Figure 1 The articulators [source: Peter Roach(1997:8)]

Figure-1 is a diagram that is used frequently in the study of phonetics. It represents the human head, seen from the side, displayed as though it had been cut in half. You will need to look at it carefully as the articulators are described, and you will often find it useful to have a mirror and a good light placed so that you can look at the inside of your mouth.

i) **Pharynx -** The pharynx is a tube that begins just above the larynx. It is about 7cm long in women and about 8cm long in men, and at its top end it is divided into two, one part being the back of the mouth and the other being the beginning of the way through the nasal cavity. If you look in your mirror with your mouth open, you can see the back of the pharynx.

ii) **Velum (soft palate) -** Velum is seen in the diagram in a position that allows air to pass through the nose and through the mouth. Yours is probably in that position now, but often in speech it is raised so that air cannot pass through the nose. The other important thing about the velum is that it is one of the articulators that can be touched by the tongue. When we make the sounds like /k/, /g/ the tongue is in contact with the lower side of the velum and we call these sounds, velar consonants. When the velar is lowered, the nasal passage is open. At the same time there is a complete obstruction at some point in the mouth so that there is no oral escape of air. This the position taken up by the velum in the production of the **nasal sounds** example:- /m, n, ŋ/.

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iii) **Hard Palate -** It is often called the "roof of the mouth". You can easily feel its smooth curved surface with your tongue.

iv) **Alveolar ridge -** It is between the top front teeth and the hard palate. You can feel its shape with your tongue. Its surface is really much rougher than it feels, and is covered with little ridges. You can only see these if you have a mirror small enough to go inside your mouth. Sounds made with the tongue touching here are called **alveolar sounds**.

v) **Tongue -** The tongue is, of course, a very important articulator and it can be moved into many different places and in many different shapes. It is usual to divide the tongue into different parts, though there are no clear dividing lines within the tongue. The parts are **tip**, **blade**, **front**, **back** and **root**.

vi) **Teeth -** The teeth (upper and lower) are usually at the front of the mouth, immediately behind the lips. You should remember that most speakers have their teeth to the sides of their mouths, back almost to the velum. The tongue comes in contact with the upper side teeth to produce many sounds. Sounds made with the tongue touching the front teeth are called **dental sounds**.

vii) **Lips -** The lips are important in speech. They can be pressed together (while producing sounds like / p, b /), brought into contact with the teeth (as in / f, v /), or rounded to produce the lip-shape for vowels like /u:/. Sounds in which the lips are in contact with each other are called **bilabial**, while those with lip-to-teeth contact are called **labio-dental** sounds.

2.3 ❑ The Air-stram mechanisms :-

Three main types of air-stream mechanisms are used in human speech and each has a different initiator. All three mechanisms may be used to push air out (in this case the air-stream is called **egressive**) or to pull it in (when it is called **ingressive**).

The pulmonic air-stream mechanism is the one which we should consider first. It consists of the lungs and respiratory muscles. The latter move the walls of lungs which form the initiator, so that air is either drawn into the lungs or pushed out of them. For the sounds of the English language and most of the Indian languages, it is the pulmonic egressive air-stream which is used.

The name of the second air-stream mechanism is the glottalic air-stream mechanism. The larynx itself, with the glottis firmly closed, is the initiator. Sounds produced by an

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ingressive or egressive glottalic air-stream are found in many languages. Some sounds, for example, in the Sindhi language, is produced by ingressive glottalic air-stream.

The third and the last air-stream mechanism is the velaric air-stream mechanism. Its initiator is the back of the tongue which can be lifted up so that it comes firmly in contact with the velum (soft palate). Certain languages, for example, Zulu as spoken in Africa, is the result of ingressive velaric air-stream. The resultant sounds as produced in this way are generally referred to as 'clicks'. It is an important air-stream mechanism for smoking : it is used both for the extracting the smoke from the cigarette (ingressive) and then for expelling it (egressive).

2.4 ❑ The Glottis

Pulmonic air-stream mechanism creates all the English sounds as well as a major chunk of those of Indian languages. This air-stream on its way into or out from the lungs has to pass through the wind pipe or **trachea** at the top of which is the **larynx** . Inside the larynx from back to front are the vocal cords - two folds of ligament and elastic tissue which may be brought together or parted. The opening between the vocal cords is called the **Glottis** [as shown in the fig.-2].

esophagus - it's closed when not swallowing and can't be seen in this view

arytenoid cartilages

vocal folds

glottis - the rings of the trachea are visible below

aryepiglottic folds

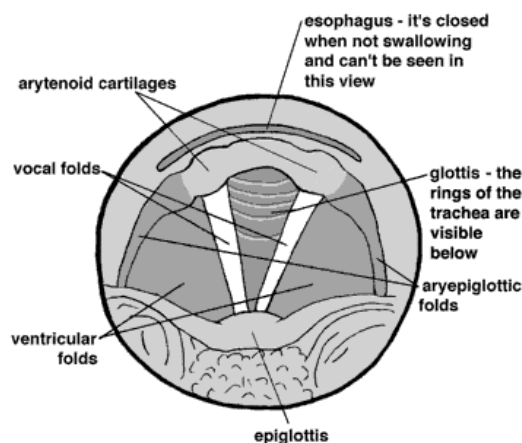ventricular folds

epiglottis

Figure - 2 : Glottis

The vocal cords can by their action bring about a number of different states of glottis. It is enough to distinguish four states. They are:-

1. open glottis [breath / voiceless state]
2. glottis in vibration [voice state]

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3. closed glottis [a state in which a glottal stop is produced]

4. narrowed glottis [whisper state].

1. **Open glottis :-** When we say that the glottis is open, we mean that the vocal cords are drawn wide open so that the air-stream can pass through them quite freely. This is the state of glottis for normal breathing. All the speech sounds that are produced with open glottis, are voiceless or breathed. In the English words **pipe**, **time**, **kite**, **chin**, **fat**, **thumb**, **sad**, **shoe**, **hand** for example / p, t, k, tʃ, f, ?, s, ʃ, h / are voiceless sounds.

2. **Glottis in vibration :-** When we say glottis in vibration, we mean that the vocal cords are brought alternatively in contact and blown apart by the force of the pulmonic air-stream flowing through the glottis. The vocal cords repeatedly open and close between 100 and 150 times per second in a male voice and between 200 and 325 per second in a female voice. This vibration of the vocal cords produces voiced sounds and constitutes the process called phonation. For example, all vowel sounds and voiced consonants /b,d, ɡ, dʒ, m, n, ŋ, l, r, ð, v, z, ʒ ,j w/ as in the English words **book**, **dam**, **g**o, **jelly**, **mat**, **nose**, **song**, **law**, **rat**, **them**, **vine**, **zoo**, **garage yes and word** are voiced sounds .

3. **Closed glottis :-** Some sounds are produced with the glottis entirely closed. When it is entirely closed the vocal cords are brought together with sufficient firmness to prevent the air-stream from forcing them apart. The glottis momentarily assumes this position for coughs, hiccups and for the glottal stop [?].

4. **Narrowed glottis :-** Sometimes glottis may be narrowed. It means, vocal cords are brought close together, but not so close that they are set into vibration. The air-stream is impeded by this narrowing as it passes through the glottis. This cuts down the force of the air-stream and produces a soft hissing noise, called a whisper.

2.4.1 Exercises

1. Try and answer the following questions :-

a) How are sounds produced ?

Ans: _____

_____

b) Are the sounds of English produced by inhaling air into the lungs or by exhaling out

of the lungs ?

Ans: _____

_____

c) Name the air-stream mechanism responsible for the production of English sounds.

Ans: _____

_____

d) Name the state of glottis in the production of voiced sounds.

Ans: _____

_____

e) What kind of sound is produced when glottis is open?

Ans: _____

_____

f) Where is larynx situated? What is another name for it?

Ans: _____

_____

g) Where and what is glottis?

Ans: _____

_____

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

  i)   father   _____
 ii)   sugar   _____
iii)   zoo   _____
 iv)   sun   _____
  v)   sound   _____

vi) very   _____

vii) thanks   _____

viii) there   _____

3. I] How is a nasal sound produced?

Ans: _____

_____

II] Tick the words in which nasal sounds are used:-

Table	tenth	hundred	sing	mother
Brand	brother	sister	ink	know
Matter	linguistics	mango	nostril	nature

4. Look into the mirror and pronounce the vowel sounds in each of the following English words. Observe the shape of your lips and then write down against each word whether the lips are rounded or unrounded in the production of the vowel sounds :-

Feel   _____

Hat   _____

Fool   _____

Book   _____

Shoe   _____

Sheep   _____

Car   _____

Pull   _____

Food   _____

5. Fill in the blanks in the following sentences :-

a) Speech is produced when the organs of speech _____ to produce a pattern of _____.

b) These movements have an effect in the _____ coming from the lungs.

c) The _____ sent out from the lungs through the _____ contained in the larynx.

d) The opening between the vocal cords or the _____ can be either open or narrowed or _____.

e) If the glottis is wide open, the air passes freely through the _____, but if it is narrowed, the presence of the air causes the cords to _____ producing _____ _____ .

2.5 ❑ Let's sum up

In this unit we have discussed the speech process and body mechanisms involved in the production of speech. We have talked about the respiratory, phonatory and articulatory systems which involve the various organs of speech. The energy for the production of English and most Indian sounds comes from the lungs (pulmonic air-stream mechanism). When the pulmonic egressive air-stream passes through the larynx, it is modified by the states of the glottis: open glottis (voiceless sounds) and glottis in vibration (voiced sounds). Nasal sounds are produced when the velum or soft palate is lowered and the oral passage is shut off by an obstruction in the mouth and the oral sounds are produced when the soft palate is raised. The tongue can assume a large number of positions for the articulation of consonant and vowel sounds and for the sake of convenience of description we can refer to tip, blade, front and back of the tongue. The lips can also assume different shapes in the production of vowel and consonant sounds. Two lips positions rounded and unrounded are important for description of vowel sounds.

2.6 ❑ Recommended reading :-

1. *A Course in Modern Linguistics :* Hockett,C.F.

2. *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students :* Balasubramanian

3. *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English :* Gimson, A.C.

4. *An Outline of English Phonetics :* Jones, D.

5. *Better English Pronunciation :* O'Connor, J.D.

6. *Elements of General Phonetics :* Abercrombie, D.

7. *English Phonetics and Phonology :* Roach, P.

8. *Phonetics : Theory and Application :* Tiffany and Correll.

Unit 3 ❑ Segmental & Supra-Segmental Features

Structure

3.0 Objective:-

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Segmental features

    3.2.1 Description of Vowels

        3.2.1.1 Pure vowels [vowel diagram]

        3.2.1.2 Dipthongs [diagrams]

        3.2.1.3 Exercises

    3.2.2 Description of consonants

        3.2.2.1 Articulation

        3.2.2.2 Strictures

        3.2.2.3 Place of articulation

        3.2.2.4 Manner of articulation

        3.2.2.5 Voiced / voiceless consonants

        3.2.2.6 Three term label

        3.2.2.7 Comparison of spelling

        3.2.2.8 Exercises

3.3 Supra-segmental features

    3.3.1 Syllables

        3.3.2 Stress

        3.3.3 Intonation

        3.3.4 Exercises

3.4 Let's sum up

3.5 Recommended reading

3.0 ❑ Objective

Our objective, in this unit, is to enable you to :-

1) recognize the various segmental phonemes of the sounds of English.

2) practice the pronunciation of these phonemes or sounds following the guidelines as mentioned here.

3) recognize the basic outlines of supra-segmental features of pronunciation in English speech for example, syllable, stress, accent, intonation and so on.

4) identify the relationship between spelling and pronunciation.

5) get acquainted you with different modes of transcription.

3.1 ❑ Introduction :-

You already know that phonetics is the study of the production and reception of all speech sounds. It refers to all possible sounds in all languages. The full range of sounds possible in any human language is enormously wide and there are innumerable ways the tongue and the lips can move for articulation and the articulatory movements may synchronize with different states of the glottis or with the air-stream mechanism.

However only a limited selection of these possible speech sounds is used by the speakers of any single language. Moreover the selection is not only limited, it is also different in all other languages. This selection is then formed into a pattern which is unique to that language. The selection and the pattern into which it is formed make up the phonology of that language.

3.2 ❑ Segmental Features

When we speak, we produce an infinite number of speech sounds. To identify these streams of speech sounds, we divide these streams into small bits of segments. For example, the word *cat* has three segments -- /k/, the first segment, /æ/, the middle segment, /t/, the final segment. From the large number of varying phonetic segments, each language makes a selection of sounds which are functional in that language. These smallest segments of sounds are called phonemes (if you remember I have already cited the reference of phonemes in unit **1.6**).

When we listen to a continuous utterance, we perceive an ever-changing pattern of sounds. But when it is a question of our own language, we are not aware of the complexities of the pattern which reach our ear. We tend consciously to perceive and interpret only those sound features which are relevant to the intelligibility of our language. However, despite this linguistic selection which we ultimately make, we are aware that this changing pattern consists of variations of different kinds, for example, we hear a variety of *vowel* and *consonant* sounds.

Let us begin with the description of vowel sounds.

3.2.1 Description of Vowels

Vowels are produced with an open approximation of the articulators. That is to say, the active articulator which is always the front or the back or the centre of the tongue is raised towards the passive articulator (which in the case of vowels is either the hard palate or the soft palate or the meeting point of both the palates) in such a way that there is a sufficient gap between the two for the air to escape through the mouth without any friction. Let us illustrate the point. Pronounce the word, **bee** , prolonging the vowel sound represented by **ee**. You will find that when we pronounce the sound, the air escapes freely and continuously without friction. We can divide the vowel sounds into three on the basis of the tongue position :

1) Front vowels :- Front vowels are those during the production of which the front part of the tongue, the active articulator, is raised in the direction of the hard palate, the passive articulator. Ex:- / iː, ɪ , e, æ/

2) Back vowels :- Back vowels are those during the articulation of which the active articulator, the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate, the passive articulator. Ex :- / ɑ :ɒ , ɔ, ʊ, uː /.

3) Central vowels :- It is possible to produce vowels by raising that part of the tongue which is between the front and back, towards that part of the roof of the mouth which lies at the meeting point of the hard palate and soft palate. They are called the central vowels. Ex:- ɜ : ə ʌ/.

Another important component is the height of the tongue. This shows that the classification of the vowel, according to the part of the tongue raised is not sufficient. We have to classify the vowels still further. It depends on up to what extent (of height) the part of the tongue is raised towards the hard/soft palate. In this way we have 4 types:-

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i) **close vowels :** close vowels are those during the articulation of which the part of tongue raised is very close to the roof of the mouth.

ii) **open vowels :-** they refer to those vowels during the production of which, the part of the tongue is far away from the roof of the mouth.

iii) **half-close vowels :-** they are those vowels during the production of which the part of the tongue is between close and open but nearer close than open.

iv) **half-open vowels :-** half-open vowels are those vowels during the production of which the part of the tongue is between close and open but nearer open than close.
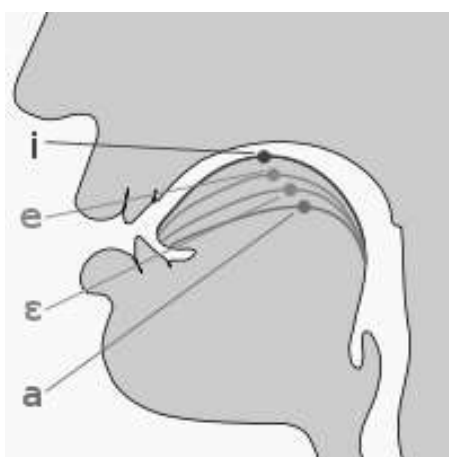
Figure-3

Tongue positions of front vowels with highest point indicated.

Cardinal vowels :- One of the methods of identifying vowel segments is provided by the system of the **cardinal vowels**. A cardinal vowel is a fixed and unchanging reference point. A number of such reference points constitute a system of cardinal vowels, and any vowel sound in any language can be identified by being 'placed within the system'. There are eight main cardinal vowels. They are arbitrarily selected, i.e. they are not based on the vowels of any existing language. The system is a general phonetic one.

Position of lips :- A third criteria for the classification of the English vowels is the **position of the lips**. A simple classification is based on two categories - **rounded** (lips brought forward as for the vowel in the word - *shoe*) and **unrounded** or **spread** (concerns of lips pulled back as for the vowel in the word *see*).

Thus we describe a vowel in terms of the following :-

i) part of the tongue raised (**front, back, centre**)

ii) the height to which the tongue is raised (**close, half-close, half-open, open**)

<div align="center">and</div>

iii) the position of the lips (**rounded/unrounded**)

We can describe a vowel using a three-term level - the first term to indicate which part of the tongue is raised, the second to indicate the height of the tongue and the third to indicate the position of the lips. The vowel in the word, <see> is a front close unrounded vowel and the vowel in the word <bard> is a back open unrounded vowel.

The quadrilateral below shows the vowel diagram in order to describe a vowel.
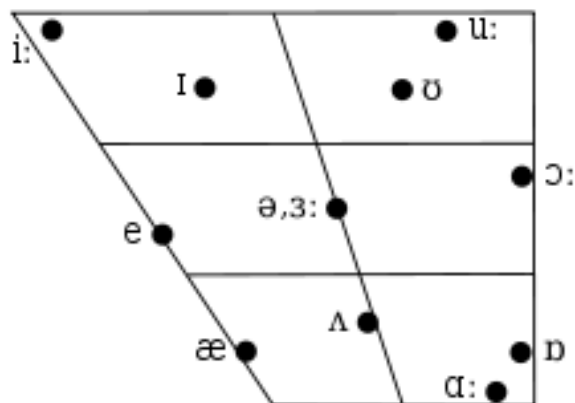
3.2.1.1 Pure vowels:-

Phonetic transcription is a convenient device to indicate the way in which the words of a language are pronounced. Given below are the symbols of vowel sounds that are used to transcribe English [RP]. The source is Daniel Jones' *English Pronouncing Dictionary* (EPD) 14th edition, A.S. Hornby's *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (ALD), and A.C. Gimson's *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English*, 4th revised edition(1989).

Key words	EPD	ALD	Gimson
feel	iː	iː	iː
tin	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ
pen	e	e	e
man	æ	æ	æ

Key words	EPD	ALD	Gimson
car	ɑː	ɑː	ɑː
cot	ɒ	ɒ	ɒ
slaughter	ɔː	ɔː	ɔː
book	ʊ	ʊ	ʊ
shoe	uː	uː	uː
cup	ʌ	ʌ	ʌ
girl	ɜː	ɜː	ɜː
about	ə	ə	ə

Vowel length:-

Five of the twelve pure vowels of English are comparatively long and the remaining seven are comparatively short. Apart from this, each vowel has different degrees of length. In accented syllables the so called long vowels [represented with (ː)] are fully long when they are final or in a syllable closed by a voiced consonant, but they are considerably shortened when they occur in the syllable closed by a voiceless consonant. Therefore, the length of the vowels depends on the phonetic environment in which it occurs. For example, /iː/ in **beat** is only about half as long as /iː/ of **bee** or **bead**.

Pure Vowels:- Pure vowels consist of only one vowel sound. There is no glide to another vowel sound. They are also called as **monopthongs**. A chart consisting of pure vowels is given below :-

Monophthongs

	Front		**Central**		**Back**	
	long	**short**	**long**	**short**	**long**	**short**
Close	iː	ɪ			uː	ʊ
Mid	e		ɜː	ə	ɔː	
Open	æ			ʌ	ɑː	ɒ

Figure - 5 monopthongs of RP. From Roach (2004)

3.2.1.1 Dipthongs:-

Key words	EPD	ALD	Gimson
May	eɪ	eɪ	eɪ
fight	aɪ	aɪ	aɪ
go	ə ʃ	ə ʃ	ə ʃ
cow	aʃ	aʃ	aʃ
toil	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ
clear	ɪə	ɪə	ɪə
stair	eə	eə	eə
tour	ʃ ə	ʃ ə	ʃ ə
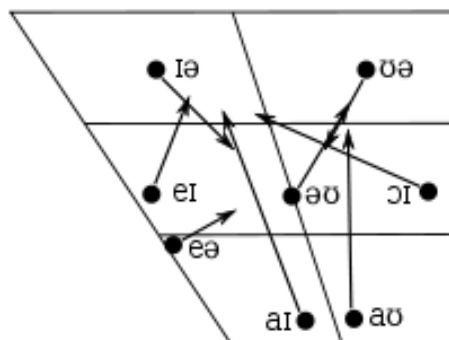
Figure - 6

Diphthongs of RP. From Roach (2004:242)

Dipthong is a vowel glide in the same syllable. It means the tongue moves from one vowel position to another vowel position. The first five dipthongs [as given in the chart] are called **closing dipthongs** as the tongue glides to the close vowel and the rest as mentioned in the chart are called the **centering dipthongs** as tongue glides to the central vowel.

3.2.1.2 Exercises

1. Give at least three minimal pairs to distinguish between the following sets of English vowel sounds :-

/ e /   / æ /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

/ i: /   / I /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

/ ɔ: /   / ɒ /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

/ ɑ: /   / ɒ /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

/ ɑ: /   / ɜ: /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

/ ɜ: /   / ʃ /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

/ æ /   / I /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

/ ʊ /   / u: /

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

 2. Draw a vowel diagram and point the following vowel sounds in the diagram:-

/ ʊ, i: , u: , e , æ , ɜ:, ə, ʃ, ɔ:, ɒ /

Now describe each of them using the three-term level

3.Give at least three minimal pairs to distinguish between the following dipthongs:-

/ eI , ɑI /

_____

_____

_____

/ ɑI, ɒI /

_____

_____

_____

/ aɪ   aʊ /

_____

_____

_____

/eə,   ʊə /

_____

_____

_____

/ aʊ,   əʊ/

_____

_____

_____

4.Try to pronounce the following words and put the monophthongs or diphthongs in the space provided :-

try -- /   /   boil -- /   /   suite -- /   /
cord -- /   /   put -- /   /   fool -- /   /
town -- /   /   stand -- /   /   clerk -- /   /   budge -- /   /
starch -- /   /   wind -- /   /   court -- /   /   pear -- /   /
point -- /   /   poor -- /   /

5. Practice :-

grey - greyan   high - higher   lay - layers
gay - gayer   my - mier   lies - liars
mow - mower   why - wire   boughs - bowers
low - lower   saw (N) - sour   tied - tired
sow - sower   coy - coir   hide - hired

6. Complete minimal pair :-

Merry - _____;   walk - _____;

Pad - _____; ball - _____;

Call - _____; dad - _____;

Glad - _____; shed - _____;

Callous - _____; fed - _____;

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

1. r ____ b (rob)   r _____ b (rib)   r _____ b(rub)

2. p _____ tʃ(patch)   p _____ tʃ (pitch) p _____ tʃ (porch)

3. f _____ l (fill)   f _____ l (feel)   f _____ l (fall)

4. s _____ k (sick)   s _____ k (suck) s _____ k (seek)

5. r _____ d (read)   r _____ d (red) r _____ d (road)

6. w _____ v(weave)   w _____ v(wove) w _____ v (wave)

7. dʒ _____ (jar)   dʒ _____ (jaw)   dʒ _____ (jew)

8. b _____ (buy)   b _____ (boy)   b _____ (bay)

9. θr _____ (three)   θr _____ (threw)   θr _____ (throw)

10. ð _____ (thy) ð _____ (they) ð _____ (though)

3.2.2 Description of consonants:-

The description of a consonant includes the following information :-

1. the nature of the air-stream mechanism

2. the state of the glottis

3. the position of the velum

4. the articulators involved

and

5. the nature of stricture.

The English sounds, you know, are the result of egressive pulmonic air-stream. i.e. air is pushed out of the lungs. A consonant can be voiced or voiceless depending upon whether the vocal cords are held wide apart or are in vibration.

3.2.2.1 Articulators:-

There are various articulators above the glottis, which are involved in the production of consonants. In every case the active articulator moves towards the passive articulator. The active articulators are the lower tip the tongue while the passive articulators are the upper lip, the upper teeth, the roof of the mouth, which is divided into three parts - alveolar or teeth ridge, the hard palate and the velum or the soft palate, and the pharynx.

3.2.2.2 Strictures:-

Different kinds of strictures are involved for the production of consonants they are :-
i) complete closure:- It is of two types -

a) The stricture may be complete closure; the active and passive articulators make a firm contact with each other and the passage of air through the articulators (both) is strictly prevented. Even if the velum is raised the air cannot pass through the nose. For example, this stricture produces English consonants, / p, b, t, d, k, g / .

b) The stricture may be one of complete oral closure. In that case both the articulators make a firm contact with each other to prevent the passage of air through them but the velum is lowered thereby letting the air pass through the nasal passage. Thus the English consonants, / m, n, ŋ / are produced.

ii) intermittent closure :- During this stricture air passes between the active and passive articulators intermittently. That is why it is named so. It creates a vibration of active articulator against the passive one. Sounds produced are called trills or rolls Scottish [r] is the example. Sometimes active articulator strikes against the passive once only. English /r/ in the words *very, sorry* is produced. It is called **flap**.

iii) close approximation :- During this stricture two articulators come so close to each other that the space between them is too narrow and air passes between them with an audible friction. All the English fricatives / f, v, s, z, θ, ð, ʃ, ʒ, h / are produced by this stricture.

iv) partial closure :- In this stricture the articulators in the centre of the vocal tract come in contact to each other in such a way that air passes through the blades of the tongue without any friction and thus the English lateral consonant / l / is produced.

v) open approximation :- When two articulators come in contact to each other, leaving the space wide enough, that stricture is called open approximation. As a result of it all the English vowels and semi vowels like /j , w/ are formed.

According to RP symbols there are twenty-four consonant sounds in English. The symbols of RP consonants are the same in EPD, ALD, and Gimson (1989). They have been cited, with key words in chart, below :-

Key words	symbol	Key words	symbol
pin	/p/	bin	/b/
tin	/t/	dam	/d/
kite	/k/	get	/ɡ/
chat	/tʃ/	jam	/dʒ/
mat	/m/	nose	/n/
song	/ŋ/	fan	/f/
van	/v/	think	/θ/
them	/ð/	sun	/s/
zoo	/z/	sheep	/ʃ/
garage	/ʒ/	hen	/h/
leaf	/l/	ram	/r/
yes	/j/	water	/w/

Note :- **i)** **I you are asked to describe a consonant, you should not mention the air-stream mechanism as it/s implied that English sounds are produced with pulmonic egressive air-stream mechanism.**

ii) **If a vowel or consonant sound occur more than once in a word you are not supposed to repeat your description.**

3.2.2.3 Place of articulation:-

We generally classify consonants according to the i) place of articulation and ii) manner of articulation. While the former one involves the active and passive articulators used in the production of the consonant sound, the latter involves the stricture.

There are several types of consonants depending on the place of articulation. Some of the important categories are given below :-

I] Bilabial :- The two lips are the articulators.

Eg.   [**p**] as in ***pot***
                 [**b**] as in ***bad***
                 [**m**] as in ***moon***

II] Labio-dental :- The lower lip is the active articulator while the upper teeth are the passive articulators.

Eg.   [**f**] as in ***fan***
                 [**v**] as in ***van***

III] Dental :- The tip of the tongue is the active articulator and the upper front teeth are the passive articulators.

Eg.   [**θ**] as in ***thumb***
                 [**ð**] as in ***their***

IV] Alveolar :- The tip or the blade of the tongue are the active articulators and the passive articulator is the teeth-ridge.

Eg   [**t**] as in ***stamp***
                 [**d**] as in ***dad***
                 [**l**] as in ***lamp***
                 [**n**] as in **name**
                 [**s**] as in ***snow***
                 [**z**] as in ***zoo***

V] Post-alveolar :- The tip of the tongue is the active articulator and the back of the teeth-ridge is the passive articulator.

Eg.   [**r**] as in **red.**

VI] Palato-alveolar:- The tip, blade and front of the tongue are the active articulators while the teeth-ridge and the hard palate are the passive articulators.

Eg.   [**tʃ**] as in ***chew***
                 [**dʒ**] as in ***jam***

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[ʃ] as in *shut*

[ʒ] as in *vision, pleasure*

VII] Palatal :- The front of the tongue and the hard palate are the active and passive articulators respectively.

Ex.   [j] as in *yatch*

VIII] Velar :- The back of the tongue is the active articulator while the velum (soft palate) is the passive articulator.

Eg.   [k] as in *kind*

[g] as in guide

[ŋ] as in *mango*

IX] Glottal :- Produced at the glottis.

Eg.   [h] as in *house.*

3.2.2.4 Manner of articulation:-

The consonants, according to the manner of articulation, are usually classified as given below:-

i) **Plosive / Stop:-** A plosive is a consonant articulation with the following characteristics:

a) one articulator is moved against another or both against each other, so as to form a stricture that allows no air to escape through the vocal tract. The stricture is, then, both oral and nasal. Nasal passage is blocked as the velum is raised thereby forming the **velic closure**.

b) After the stricture is formed and the air is compressed behind it, it is released, that is, the air is allowed to escape.

c) If the air behind the stricture is still under pressure when the plosive is released, it is probable that the escape of air will produce a noise loud enough to be heard. This noise is called plosion.

Eg.   / p / as in *pin*

/ b / as in *bin*

ii) **Affricate :-** If the plosive is not held for any appreciable time, released slowly, the affricate sounds are produced.

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Eg.　　　/ **tʃ** / as in ***chirp***

　　　　　/ **dʒ** / as in ***joy***

iii) **Nasal :-** A plosive is a consonant articulation with the following characteristics:

     a) At first a complete closure at some point in the mouth.

     b) Soft palate (velum) is lowered.

     c) The air escapes through the nose.

     Eg.　　　　/ **m** / as in ***mouse***

             / **n** / as in ***nest***

             / **ŋ** / as in ***wrong***

iv) **Trill / Rolled consonant :-** A plosive is a consonant in the production of which the active articulator taps several times against the passive articulator.

       Eg.　Scottish / **r** / [ɹ]

v) **Flap :-** When the active articulator taps against the passive articulator once only, flap is produced.

Eg.　　　/**r**/ as in sorry, very

vi) **Frictionless continuant :-** A type of consonant that is produced with an open approximation of the articulators so that there is no audible friction.

Eg.　　　　/**r**/ as in ***red.***

vii) **lateral :-** Lateral consonant is produced with the stricture of closure at the centre of the vocal tract so that the air has a free passage on the sides.

Eg.　　　　/ **l** / as in ***light.***

viii) **Fricatives :-** The stricture for the production of fricatives is close approximation. The steps used for the production of a fricative are given below :-

    a) The active articulator is brought so close to the passive articulators that the passage between them is so narrow.

    b) The air passes through it with the audible friction.

Eg.　　　　/ **f** / as in ***file***

       / **v** / as in ***violet***

/ θ / as in *thirst*

/ ð / as in *there*

/ s / as in *sum*

/ z / as in *zodiac*

/ ʃ / as in *shout*

/ ʒ / as in *vision, pleasure*

/ h / as in *height*

Note:- Please keep it mind that all the nine fricatives and two affricates together are called *sibilants.*

ix) **Semi-vowel :-** A semi-vowel is actually a vowel glide but functioning as a consonant.

Eg.   / j / as in *yes*

               / w / as in *was*

3.2.2.5 Voiced / voiceless consonants:-

You may remember that we have already discussed that along with all the vowel sounds some consonants are produced when the glottis is in vibration. These consonants are called **voiced consonants** and the rest are the **voiceless consonants.**

Eg. **i) voiced -- / b, d, g, dʒ, m, n, ŋ, r, l, v, z, ð, ʒ, j, w /**

ii) voiceless -- / p, t, k, tʃ,h, f, θ, s, ʃ/

3.2.2.6 Three term label:-

We can describe a consonant sound briefly by using a three-term label indicating ---

i) whether the sound is voiced / voiceless

ii) the place of articulation

iii) the manner of articulation

Eg:-

/p/ = voiceless bilabial plosive

/b/ = voiced bilabial plosive

/ŋ/ = voiced velar nasal

/tʃ/ = voiceless palato-alveolar affricate

/ ð/ = voiced dental fricative

Place Manner	bilabial	Labio-Dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatoalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p, b			t, d				k, g	?
Affricate						tʃ, dʒ			
Nasal	m			n				ŋ	
Fricative		f, v	θ, ð	s, z		ʃ, ʒ			h
Lateral				l					
Roll					ɹ				
Flap				r					
Friction-less conti-nuant				r					
Semi-vowel	w						j	(w)	

3.2.2.7 Exercises:-

1. Say whether the following statements are true / false

    a)   While articulating English consonants like / p,t, k /, the vocal cords vibrate.

    b)   In English **[pʰ]** and   /f/ are two different phonemes.

    c)   In English /p/ and /b/ are two different phonemes.

    d)   In English /n/ and /ŋ/ are treated as allophones of two phonemes.

    e)   /t/ and /d/ in English belong to the different phonemes.

    f)   The number of English sibilants is five.

    g)   The word velum means soft palate.

    h)   As /s/ and /ʃ/, both are fricatives, they are the same phonemes.

    i)   Voiced plosives are never aspirated in English

    j)   English words sun and son constitute a minimal pair.

    k)   The front of the tongue touches the hard palate while articulating /l/.

    l)   During the articulation of nasals in English, both oral and nasal passages remain open.

2. Point out whether the plosive consonants are in the following words and mark them:-
calender, rumour, gigantic, matter, mother, dog, daffodil, neither, Saturn, university.

3. Give the minimal pairs for each of the following:-
/p/ and /b/, /m/ and /n/, /f/ and /v/, /s/ and /z/, /θ/ and /ð/

4. Fill in the appropriate consonants to form the words :-
1. _____ I _____ (chick)   2 _____ e _____ (bed)
3. _____ I _____(Jim)   4. _____ i: _____(treat)
5. _____ ʊ _____(book) 6, _____ ?: _____(dirt)
7. _____ eI _____ (gate) 8. _____ æ _____(dam)
9. _____ I _____(fish) 10. _____ _____ i: _____(breathe).

5. Transcribe the following sentence and list all the plosive and affricate sounds and give three-term label for each of the consonant sounds [if the same plosive / affricate occur more than once in your transcription, you need not repeat the description]

The bus stopped with a jerk near the church gate.

6. Give at least one example of each of the following consonants in initial, medial and final positions :-

	Initial	Medial	Final
A] /t/	_____	_____	_____
B] / g /	_____	_____	_____
C] / p /	_____	_____	_____
D] / tʃ /	_____	_____	_____
E] / k /	_____	_____	_____
F] / dʒ /	_____	_____	_____

7. a) Give three term label of the following consonants:-
  i) / z /   _____
  ii) / h /   _____
  iii) / l /   _____
  iv) / ʃ /   _____
  v) / dʒ /   _____

vi) / m / _____

vii) / k / _____

viii) / v / _____

ix) / d / _____

x) / ŋ / _____

b) Give phonetic symbols to match the following descriptions of consonant sounds:-

   i) voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant /   /

   ii) voiceless palato-alveolar affricate /   /

   iii) voiced alveolar nasal /   /

   iv) voiced labio-velar semi-vowel /   /

   v) voiceless alveolar fricative /   /

   vi) voiced velar plosive /   /

   vii) voiceless dental fricative /   /

   viii) voiced bilabial plosive /   /

   ix) voiceless labio-dental fricative /   /

   x) voiced palato-alveolar fricative /   /

3.3 ❑ Supra-segmental features :-

Some features of phonology go beyond the study of segments and phonemic contrast alone cannot explain all the contrasts in the language. For example, the same word in English can be first syllable sounding stronger, or the second - **con**tent or con**tent**. The first is heard as noun or the second as verb. Changes in intonation can also bring about a change in meaning of the message. There are contrasts that extend beyond one segment or phoneme and are called suprasegmental. The term is most commonly applied to stress, tone, pitch, and intonation.

3.3.1 Syllable :-

A syllable is the minimum unit of an utterance. Nothing less than a syllable can be uttered or pronounced, for example, **shh! ah! hmm!**

A syllable is a unit of utterance containing one and only one vowel either alone or surrounded by consonants. As you may already know that words are made up of syllables, many words are made up of more than one syllable.

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3.3.1.1 syllable structure :- A syllable can be analyzed in terms of its segments which are also called speech sounds. They are of two categories - vowels and consonants. In a syllable the role of a consonant is that of a marginal element - either it occurs at the beginning or at the end. Then they are termed as the **releasing** and **arresting** consonants respectively. The vowel is the **nucleus** of the syllable. While describing the syllable consonant and vowel are represented as **C** and **V** respectively. For example the syllable structure of the word ***book*** /bʊk/ can be shown as :-

C	V	C
B	ʊ	k
releasing consonant	nucleus	arresting consonant

The word eye consists of only one diphthong sound / ɑɪ / without having any vowel sound before or after vowel. So its structure is V. On the other hand, the syllable structure of words like ***He*** / hi:/ and ***It*** /It/ is CV and VC respectively.

A syllable which is arrested by a consonant is called a ***closed syllable*** and a syllable which has no arresting consonant is called an ***open syllable*** -- / It / and /hi:/ respectively.

Now let us learn about various types of syllable pattern.
i) Monosyllabic word :- A word consisting of one and only one syllable.

CVC	CV	VC	V
hat / hæt /	she / ʃi: /	ill /ɪl/	or/ɔ:/
tin / tɪn /	go / gəʊ /	is /Iz/	air/eə/

ii) Disyllabic word :- A word containing two syllables.

about / ə - bɑʊt / -- V-CVC
letter / le - tə / -- CV - CV
effect / ɪ - fekt / -- V - CVCC

iii) Trisyllabic word :- A word that has three syllables
civilize / sɪ - vɪ - laɪz / CV-CV-CVC
develop / dɪ - ve - lɒp / CV-CV-CVC
episode / e - pɪ - səʊd / V-CV-CVC

iv) Words more than three syllables each :-

photographic / fəʊ - tə - ɡræ - fɪk/   CV-CV-CCV-CVC

electricity   / ɪ - lek - trɪ -sɪ - tɪ /   V - CVC - CCV - CV - CV

longitudinal / lɒn - dʒɪ - tjuː - dɪ - nəl /   CVC - CV - CCV - CV - CVC

luxuriously / lʃ ɡ - ʒʊɪ - rɪəs - li /   CVC - CV - CVC - CV

3.3.1.2 Syllabic consonant :- Consider the following examples :-

cotton   / kɒ - tn /   CV - CV

mutton /mʃ - tn /   CV - CV

cattle   / kæ - tl /   CV - CV

sudden   /sʃ - dn /   CV - CV

rhythm   /rɪ - ðm/   CV - CV

In each word, notice carefully that, the second syllable is marked as CV though in each word we find a consonant as the final sound. In the earlier part of this portion we have identified the nucleus of the syllable as the vowel. We are supposed to modify that inference and say that the nucleus of the syllable is either a vowel or a syllabic consonant. Since the syllabic consonant functions as a vowel in the syllable we should mark it as V in the syllabic structure. We always use a diacritic to denote it [.]. Finally we would like to say that in English it is possible to have up to three consonants before a nucleus and up to four consonants after the nucleus. These consonants all together are called consonant clusters. We can sum up this consonant cluster as :-

(CCC) V (CCCC)

3.3.1.2 Exercise :-

1. Transcribe the following words, dividing them with hyphen (-) and describe the structure of each syllable in terms of CVC. Put the number of syllables in the bracket:-

ancestors, cotton, collection, cattle, degree, dissertation, dramatists, escape, following, hypocrisy, indicate, laboratory, linguistics, misrepresent, mistakes, monotonous, numbers, opportunity, phonetics, remarkable, strangers, straw, strengths, sociology, traffic, vocabulary.

2. Give two examples of each of the following:-

a) An initial consonant cluster with two consonants   _____ ; _____

b) An initial consonant cluster with three consonants   _____ ; _____

c) A final consonant with four consonants   _____ ; _____

d) A final consonant with three consonants   _____ ; _____

e) A syllable without any consonant   _____

3. Give five examples of each of the following consonant clusters:-

i) initial :   CC

ii) final -   CC

iii) initial -   CCC

iv) final -   CCC

3.3.2 Stress :-

Stress is a very important supra-segmental feature of language. The stress has a great importance in English also. English is a stress-timed language, i.e. in a connected speech (in English), all important syllables are stressed. Stress means - accent / emphasis / force / pressure. Word-stress, therefore, means emphasis or force on a particular syllable in a word which stands out in an utterance carrying the meaning particularly when the word contains more than one syllable. The degree of force on the other syllable (S) in the word is less. It is tough to distinguish the degrees of force on each syllable. For example the word *telephone* consists of the three syllables *te, le, phone* but only the first syllable *te* is prominent. So *te,* is the stressed syllable. Similarly the word pronunciation contains five syllables (*pro, nun, ci, a, tion*) among which syllable a is the most prominent and it is the stressed syllable.

Stress in English language, is fixed. It refers to the fact that the stress always falls on a particular syllable in a given word. For example, in the word *miserable*, the stress is on the first syllable, i.e., *mis* whether the word is used in isolation or in a connected speech. But, at the same time, stress in an English word is free, i.e., it is not tied to any particular syllable in a chain of syllables constituting a word. For example, English words can be stressed on the first syllable as in *miserable*, on the second syllable as in *agree*, on the third syllable as in *understand* and so on.

It is not the stress only that makes a syllable prominent. Pitch change also contributes to the prominence of a syllable. The syllable on which the pitch movement can be initiated is said to have primary stress/accent. Any other prominent syllable is said to have the secondary stress. The primary stress is marked with a vertical bar above in front o the syllable to which it refers. The secondary stress is marked with the same below and in front o the syllable. This is exemplified below -

,after'noon

,cigar'ette

,repre'sent

It has already been said, that stress in English is not tied to a particular syllable. There are some rules of word stress which can help you to locate stress. So let's get acquainted with the rules of stress.

Functional shift of stress :-

There are some disyllabic English words where accentual pattern depends on whether the word is a noun or an adjective or a verb. When the word functions as noun/adjective, the stress in on the first syllable but when it is a verb stress shifts to the second syllable. Eg :-

Noun / Adjective	Verb
'absent	ab'sent
'conduct	con'duct
'convict	con'vict
'object	ob'ject
'permit	per'mit
'progress	pro'gress

3.3.2.1 Exercise :-

1. Mark primary stress on the following words.:-

constructive, professorship, beautiful, behind, childish, pronunciation, commerciality, electrician, sympathetic, socialization, management, return, qualification, confidentially, industrious, unification, economically, necessity.

2. Mark the primary accent on the following words and pronounce them correctly:-
ability, authorize, antique, biology, canteen, cigarette, capacity, colonize, collection, doctrinaire, dramatic, electricity, elemental, efficient, experience, magician, mechanic, ornamental, optician, pioneer, realization, referee, remedial, society, specific, proportionate, grammarian, questioner, vernacular, geography, photograph, beautify, practical, revision, pension

3. Divide the following words into number of syllables and write the number in the brackets given;-
opportunity (   ), consonants (   ), alphabets (   ), authority (   ), laboratory (   ),

phonology (   )

4. Put stress marks :-

beautiful	govern	glorify	appointment	monsoon	unique
childish	mountaineer	ending	recorded	subject (V)	promise
scholarship	watches	careless	wastage	desert (N)	shorten
prevent	contentment.				

3.3.3 Weak forms:-

Use of weak-forms is really an important feature in English connected speech. Generally the content word and the lexical words are stressed in connected speech while the structural and functional words are not stressed. The structural and the functional words are of two types - strong form and weak form. When these words are not stressed, the weak forms are used. For example the word **and** is transcribed as /ænd/ when in isolation but in a connected speech it is reduced to / ənd / or / ən / or /n/. People often pronounce butter and jam and bread and butter as :-

 / 'bʃtə ən 'dʒæm/

/ 'bred n 'bʃtə/ but never with /ænd/, the strong form.

It is essential to know how to use and where to apply weak forms in connected speech if you want to acquire the rhythm of English speech. A fair list of weak forms is given below:-

1.	**Articles**	**Strong forms**	**Weak forms in RP**	**Examples**
	a	/eɪ/	/ ə /	[a girl]
	an	/ænd/	/ ən /	[an apple]
	the	/ ði: /	/ ðɪ / (before vowel)	[the orange]
			/ ðə / (before consonant)	[the pen]

2. Auxiliary verbs [no weak forms at the final position].

	am	/æm/	/ əm, m /	[I'm coming]
	are	/ ɑ /	/ ə /	[We're coming]
	can	/kæn/	/ kən, kn /	[Can I go?]
	does	/dʃz/	/ dəz /	[What does he want?]
	have	/hæv/	/həv, əv, v/	[Have the come]

has	/ hæz /	/həz, əz, z, s/	[Has he gone]
had	/ hæd /	/ həd, əd, d /	[We'd finished]
is	/ɪz/	/ z, s /	[Se's dancing]
shall	/ ʃæl /	/ ʃəl, ʃl /	[Shall I reach there?]
was	/wɒz/	/wəz/	[I was writing]
were	/wɜ:/	/wə/	[Boys were playing]
will	/wɪl/	/l/	[She'l come]
would	/wʊd/	/əd /, /d/	[I'd like to have the book]
must	/mʃ st/	/məst, məs/	[I must quit the place]

3. Conjunctions:-

and	/ ænd/	/ənd, ən, n/	[father and mother]
as	/æz/	/əz/	[Try as hard as you can]
than	/ ðæn /	/ðən/	[Better than you]
that	/ðæt/	/ ðət/ [He knew that the accident took place]	
but	/bʃ t /	/ bət/	[But I'm busy]

4. Preposition :-

at	/æt/	/ət/	
for	/fɔ:/	/fə/	
from	/frɒm/	/frəm/	
of	/ɒv/	/əv/	
to	/tu:/	/tə/[before consonant]	[Give it to me]
		/tʊ/ [before a vowel]	[Give it to Ayush]

Pronouns:-

you	/ ju:/	/jʊ, jə/	[why haven't you come?]
me	/mi:/	/mɪ/	[Give it to me]
he	/hi:/	/hɪ, i:, ɪ/	[He's crying in grief]
she	/ ʃi:/	/ ʃɪ/	[She's fine]
her	/hɜ:/	/hə, ɜ, ə:/	[Let her come now]

| him | /hɪm/ | /ɪm/ | [let him solve the problem] |
| them | /ðem/ | /ðəm/, /ðm/, /əm/, /m/ | [Ask them to leave] |

3.3.4 Intonation:-

We have already mentioned that voiceless and voiced sounds are determined by whether the glottis vibrates or not. Still, the vibrating glottis has another role to play, i.e., **pitch fluctuation**. By this term we refer to the continuous falling and rising of the pitch of the voice. The pitch of the voice is determined by the vibration of the vocal cords in a second. The patterns of pitch of the voice ultimately constitute the intonation of a language. When the pitch of the voice moves from the high level to low level, it is called *falling tone* and when it moves from low to high level it is called rising tone. The falling tone can be marked as [`] and the *rising tone* can be marked as [´]. There is another tone which is called as falling - rising tone.

The Intonation chapter should be supplemented by reading of various books, for example, O'Connor and Arnold (**Intonation of Colloquial English**) and doing some listening exercises based on the same. Be careful how the terms sense-group, stress, accent are used. They are rarely used with exactly the same meaning.

i) Tone group:- When we talk we never talk in single words, rather in groups of words. These groups may be said with or without pause. If a group is short or of intermediate length, we need not pause. For example :-

    1) Yes.

    2) No.

    3) Very good.

    4) Thanks a lot.

    5) How are you?

    6) I'm reaching home by tomorrow evening.

But if a group is long, we need to have a pause, to take a breath. That is why sometimes tone groups are called *breath groups*. A tone group boundary is always marked by an oblique. You know it very well that when a tone-group is too long, you are supposed to pause in appropriate places so that you maynot have to lose the sense. So another name of the tone group is *sense group*. Let's see some examples :-

1. // When I went to meet Radha / she was not at home //

2. // In Hyderabad, / I used to stay at the university hostel //

3. // Unfortunately / we couldn't go out for inclement weather //

4. // // Last Monday / I wanted to go to office earlier, / so I caught a train / about an hour before my usual one / and arrived there before everyone else //

Sometimes use of punctuation helps us a lot to mark the sense group. For example,
a) // I went to see the doctor, / but he wasn't there. //
b) // There are two reasons of the downfall of the dynasty: / corruption and arrogance. //
c) // I thought Chanchal was at the chamber; / his car was at the portico. //

ii) **The Nucleus :-** Every tone group has its **nucleus**, the syllable where the pitch tone movement is initiated. It is also called the *tonic syllable*. For example, in the sentence,

/ / I'm 'flying for 'London nest `Friday./ /

Generally the last stressed syllable of the sense group, is the nucleus. But any one in the group can be the nucleus depending on the meaning the speaker wishes to convey.

1 / / I'm ' leaving for ' Hyderabad to`morrow, morning / / [not today].

2. / / I'm ' leaving for `Hyderabad tomorrow, morning / / [not for any other city]

3. / / I'm `leaving for Hyderabad to,morrow ,morning / / [not staying]

{Note :- the symbol [,] denotes a stressed syllable after the tonic.}

3.3.4 Exercise:-

I] Read the following utterances carefully and indicate what tone would you like to use for each of them while pronouncing them, in the space provided:-
1. How nice to see you. _____
2. Good afternoon ! _____
3. When will you be available(friendly)? _____
4. Are you coming? _____
5. It was a nice picture, wasn't it? _____
6. Come and join us for the trip. _____
7. Stand up. _____
8. She's always well-dressed (but………….) _____
9. You can SMS me (but can't ring me) _____
10. Your father is an engineer, isn't he? _____
11. You can meet me after twelve noon. _____
12. It was an interesting movie. _____
13. I can come tomorrow, we won't go out for dinner. _____

14. It's very cold today.   _____
15. You have done well (But you could do better)   _____
16. If it rains tomorrow, we won't be out.   _____
17. What can I do for you?   _____

II] Transcribe the following passage phonetically. Mark stress [primary and secondary both], sense group, weak forms, and intonation:-

You remind me of my brother. He was always on the move. He had a passion for the peanuts and monkey nuts. He wouldn't touch a piece fruit cake. I called him Robin. My mother called him Robin too. I don't know who you are. Perhaps you live somewhere near the post office, don't you?

3.4 Let's sum up :-

In this unit we discussed the segmental features (monophthongs and diphthongs and consonants) and supra-segmental features of speech sound. The vowels are articulated with an open approximation of the articulators. We also learnt the criteria to describe vowel sounds like the position and height of tongue and the position of the lips. During the production of vowels there is no change of quality while in diphthongs the vowel quality changes from one vowel to another. We have also discussed the description of consonants and their criteria like the nature of air-stream mechanism, the state of glottis, the position of velum, the articulators and the stricture of articulators. Consonants can be classified according to the place and manner of articulators. We have suggested the three-term level of the description of consonants pointing out whether the sound is voiceless/ voiced, the place of articulation and the manner of articulation. We have discussed in detail, the definition and structure of English syllables, and how the syllable division is made in English. The basic structure of the syllable is the CVC. Besides, we have mentioned the fact that the stress determines the prominence of the syllable.

Finally we have shown how English utterances are divided into tone groups, pitch and the different intonations.

3.5 ❑ Recommended reading :-

1. *A Course in Modern Linguistics: Hockett, C.F.*

2. *A Textbook of English Phonetics for Indian Students: Balasubramanian*

3. *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English: Gimson, A.C.*

4. *An Outline of English Phonetics: Jones, D.*

5. *Better English Pronunciation: O'Connor, J.D.*

6. *Elements of General Phonetics: Abercrombie, D.*

7. *English Phonetics and Phonology: Roach, P.*

8. *Intonation of Colloquial English: O'Connor, J.D.*

9**.** *Phonetics: Theory and Application: Tiffany and Correll.*

Unit 4 ❑ Standards of Pronunciation & Teaching Implications

Structure

4.0 ❑ Objective :-

When you go through this unit, you will -

1. Get an overview of the changes in the pronunciation of English sounds and words and the reasons for these changes.

2. Have an overview of the standards of pronunciation now being followed, their respective acceptability and the reasons for their acceptability.

3. Acquaint yourself with the field of English pronunciation teaching.

4. Choose the strategy/strategies most suitable for your need(s) while teaching pronunciation and

5. Help your learners to produce correct English sounds and/or correct their production of sounds to an acceptable standard.

4.1 ❑ Introduction :-

The language spoken in England has undergone a series of changes over the years as any living language does. The changes concern not only its pronunciation but also its morphology, syntax and vocabulary. A modern day Englishman will understand Old English neither in its written form nor in its spoken form. The pronunciation of a language changes continuously and that is the mark of a living language. The pronunciation of a sound may differ between older and younger generations.

In the area of sounds the most important change may manifest itself in the realization of a phoneme in all its occurrences. Such changes may be internal (for example *house* was pronounced as / hu:s / in middle English which is generally pronounced as / haus / in modern English). Besides such changes in quality, there are changes involving *quantity* and *stress* or accent. For example the vowel sounds in *path* or *half* was short about 300 years ago but it is now long in South - England. Changes are really noticeable in words which have come into English from French. For example, in words such as *village* or *necessary* the stress was retained to the penultimate syllable even in Middle English (/ vɪ'la:dʒə /) or (/ nese 'sa:rɪə /). Now the main stress has been shifted to the first syllable in English fashion such as / 'vɪlɪdʒ / or / 'nesəsərɪ /.

This is a short introduction to some of the changes that have come into English pronunciation over the centuries for various reasons. In this module, however, we are concerned with the standards of the pronunciation: what kind of pronunciation we should use and teach and how, as teachers, we teach a spoken form of the language that is intelligible to a maximum number of people.

4.2 ❑ Standards of pronunciation : historical perspectives:-

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

4.2.1 History

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

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

RP is often believed to be based on the Southern accents of England, but it actually has most in common with the *Early Modern English* dialects of the *East Midlands.* This was the most populated and most prosperous area of England during the 14th and

15th centuries. By the end of the 15th century, "Standard English" was established in the City of London. A mixture of London speech with elements from East Midlands, Middlesex and Essex, became known as RP. However, the notion that one variety of pronunciation was socially more acceptable than others has existed in England. For reasons of politics, commerce and presence of the Royal Court, the pronunciation of south-east of England, and more particularly that of London region became more prestigious. Even the Public Schools of the nineteenth century also helped in the dissemination of the speech of the ruling class. With the spread of education a bulk of educated people whether belonging to the upper class or not, and those who heartily aspired for social advancement, changed their accent to sound more like the socially accepted standard.

4.2.2 Standards of pronunciation: The situation now:-

Like all accents, RP has changed with time. For example, sound recordings and films from the first half of the 20th century demonstrate that it was usual for speakers of RP to pronounce the /æ/ sound, as in *land*, with a vowel close to [ɛ], so that *land* would sound similar to a present-day pronunciation of *lend*. RP is sometimes known as **the Queen's English**, but recordings show that even Queen Elizabeth II has changed her pronunciation over the past 50 years, no longer using an [ɛ]-like vowel in words like *land*.

The 1993 Oxford Dictionary changed three main things in its description of modern RP, although these features can still be heard amongst old speakers of RP. *Firstly*, words such as *cloth, gone, off, often* were pronounced with /ɔ:/ (as in General American) instead of /ɒ/, so that *often* sounded close to orphan. The Queen still uses the older pronunciations, but it is rare to hear them on the BBC any more. *Secondly*, there was a *distinction between horse and hoarse* with an extra diphthong /ɔə/ appearing in words like *hoarse*, *force*, and *pour*. *Thirdly*, final y on a word is now represented as an /i/ - a symbol to cover either the traditional /ɪ/ or the more modern /i:/, the latter has been common in the south of England for some time. Before World War II, the vowel of *cup* was a back vowel close to *cardinal* [ʃ] but has since shifted forward to a central position so that [ɐ] is more accurate; phonetic transcription of this vowel as ⟨ʃ⟩ is common partly for historical reasons.

In the 1960s the transcription /əʊ/ started to be used for the "GOAT" vowel instead of **Daniel Jones's** /oʊ/, reflecting a change in pronunciation since the beginning of the century. **Joseph Wright's** work suggests that, during the early 20ᵗʰ century, words such as *cure*, *fewer*, *pure*, etc. were pronounced with a *triphthong* /iuə/ rather than the more modern /juə/.

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

4.3 ❑ **Teaching implications :-**

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

Before taking up the do's and don'ts of the teaching, let us browse over the situations of the middle of the last century:-

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

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

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

It is said that in the 1980's, with the introduction of the communicative language teaching, sufficient exposure is not given in pronunciation teaching and this type of negligence creates obstacles for the learners to communicate effectively.

It is important to note the changes that the socio-linguistic view of language has brought about in the definition of objectives in teaching pronunciation -

Firstly, it is now accepted that acquisition of a native-like pronunciation is no longer necessary. The most important consideration is that the learners' pronunciation should be *intelligible to the native speakers*.

Secondly, attention is paid mostly to the acceptability of the pronunciation (may be considered a social criteria). It means that learners should avoid any feature(s) of pronunciation that might in any case be very offensive irritating to the native listeners. It is, therefore, advisable that *learners should be taught to articulate clearly using a neutral pronunciation avoiding strictly local characteristics*.

Thirdly, greater attention is now paid to the teaching of rhythm, stress and intonation. It is specially important to keep in mind that the changes in pronunciation occur when we utter larger units of speech than when we utter isolated words or sentences out of context. This is the area where discourse analysis has particularly influenced teaching pronunciation.

Psycholinguists have also attributed to the teaching of pronunciation. Once it was believed children are superior to acquire correct pronunciation than adult learners. But recent researches in psycholinguistics have totally discarded this view. According to them when a learner (whether child or adult) perceives the difference between a native sound and a sound of the target language, s/he is able to produce that sound accurately. Researchers do not uphold this view. Even when s/he is given the feedback on the deficiencies in his/her production of sound, it does not necessarily help him/her to rectify that deficiency.

From the discussion above you can realize well that it is important to train up a student with a standard pronunciation if an intelligible as well as meaningful communication has to be established between two communities. May be, because of the long 190 years of British colonization, the Indian people always prefer RP or near RP

model as the standard variety of English pronunciation. By this time, I expect, you have gathered a fair idea regarding RP scripts from the unit - 3 of your course material. Our aim should be to teach the learners a model that is intelligible and acceptable to native speakers of English of any variety - British, American, Australian, or any other.

4.3.1 Difficulties with pure vowels:-

While teaching pronunciation the difficulties teachers may face, crop up from the confusions regarding the vowel sounds. Some examples are given below :-

1) Pure vowels / i: / and / ɪ /:- In the production of these vowel sounds learners may not face any problem. However, it is true that in some East-Indian languages like Bengali, Assamese, Oriya etc. there is a general trend to replace one phoneme with another and to produce a phoneme in between. This is because, though both the vowels theoretically exist in the language (there are short and long *ee* sounds in the languages) it is not mandatory to maintain the distinction between the sounds in production for avoiding the misunderstanding. This mother tongue influence can any time be reflected in the pronunciation of English words and they produce a centralized phoneme having an indiscriminate length between these two phonemes. For example, the speakers pronounce / ʃiːp / for *ship* and *sheep* both. It, no doubt, creates a much confusion in communication. To overcome the problem the learners should be -

i) made aware of the difference in length between these two phonemes with sufficient and suitable examples.

ii) exposed to a lot of practice with minimal pairs with these two phonemes, eg, *heel* and *hill*, *seat* and *sit*, *still* and *steel* and so on to raise their awareness. Sentences with such words should also be used to bring out the difference between words with these two phonemes.

2) Pure vowels / e / and / æ /:-. /e/ does not produce problems serious enough to create unintelligibility. However, Indian speakers may tend to equate English /e/ with the half-open variety /æ/. Besides, in some dialectic varieties of East-Indian languages /æ/ may not be as open as in English. In such cases the opposition between / e / and / æ / sounds may be emphasized by making the sound longer in examples such as *met* and *mat*, *neck* and *knack*, *men* and *man*, *bed* and *bad*.

3) Pure vowels / ʃ / and / a: /:-. As such, there is no serious problem with these. However, if any problem arises, it can be overcome by transcribing the English vowel /a/ instead of the traditional / ʃ /. As / ʃ / is not used as a distinctive phoneme in the language referred

to, it may create inconvenience to learners. To avoid this, the retracted nature of RP /a/ should be insisted upon. To achieve this, minimal pairs such as *cart*, *cot; calf, cuff*; and words like *much*, *march; hut*, *heart; bun*, *barn* may be compared to underline the differences between these sounds.

4) Pure vowels / ɒ / and / ɑ: /:-. Short back open vowels in Indian languages often differ from /o/, in that they are somewhat closer or more centralized or pronounced with stronger lip rounding. The extremely open vowel sound / ɑ: / and the / ɒ / should be compared to each other with the use of minimal pairs like *pot, part; hot, heart; dock, dark; cough, calf.*

Sometimes / ɒ / that exists in the East-Indian languages may be confused with long /ɔ:/ by learners thereby creating a serious communication gap. In that case students must be given sufficient exposure with the continuous drilling of minimal pairs like *pot, port; cod, cord; cot, court; stock, stork;* and so on. Besides Oriya speakers use / ɒ / in place of / ʃ /. For example they pronounce other as / ɒðə /. The remedy is the same - sufficient drilling of minimal pairs like *otter, utter;* etc.

5) Pure vowels / ʊ / and / u: /:- The first one of these two is short and the second one long. But confusion may often arise with the quality of the length of these two. Due to the lack of distinctive nature of these phonemes in the mother tongue learners may make mistakes frequently in the target language, i.e., English. But both the sounds are qualitatively and quantitatively different. The difference of quality may be heard in the pair *foot-boot* and that in both quality and quantity may be exemplified in *good-food*. Some of the minimal pairs for these sounds are *full, fool; pull, pool; wood, wooed*; etc.

6) Pure vowels / ɜ: / and / ə / :- /ɜ:/ causes problems for almost all the East-Indian speakers and is often replaced by the /a:/ sound which is of retracted nature with lips neutrally open. To have an acceptable sound an articulation with spread lips should be insisted upon. The degree of raising of the tongue is also to be emphasized. Words such as *father, further; bard, bird; hard, heard; cart, curt; cut, curt; bud; bird; bun, burn;* etc may be used to bring out the difference between the various sounds.

On the other hand, as foreign learners we must remember that the pronunciation of / ə / never leads speakers' lips to be rounded and that it is a short vowel; moreover at the time of articulation of this sound along with /r/ (vowel + r) learners must be careful not to pronounce the [r] sound. Students may be reminded repeatedly through practice that / ə / always occurs in the unaccented syllables : *father* / 'fa:ðə /; *famous* / 'feɪməs /; *woman* /'womən /; *suppose* /sə'pəʊz/.

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4.3.2 Difficulties with dipthongs:-

The another sphere where you may have to face impediments on your teaching, are the diphthongs. Here also problems crop up with the length of sound. In some sounds the native speakers of RP give sufficient length to the first element but not the same to the second one, some sounds are not retracted by them while these may not be perceived by East-Indian learners. That is why you should have a clear concept regarding the remedies for these problems. Some problematic zones in teaching diphthongs along with some remedies have been highlighted below:-

Diphthongs	Remedies suggested
/ eɪ /	The foreign learners should give enough length to the first element of the diphthong and lightly touch upon the second element that should not be fully closed as in /ɪ/. Learners should be provided with sufficient examples - *late, day, eight, rain, fate* etc
/ aɪ /	Care should be taken to avoid retracting the first element too much so that it remains within the limits of the RP vowel. Again care should be taken not to glide too close as for the vowel /ɪ/. Practice should be given on *time, climb, high, die, either* etc.
/ ɔɪ /	Care should be taken so that the quality of the first element is between RP sounds / ɔː / and / ɒ / and the glide does not extend beyond the half-close front level. Practice should be given on *boy, noise, toil, boil, coil, point* etc.
/ əʊ /	For this sound the learners must learn how to pronounce / ɜː / and then modify it by lip-rounding for the second vowel. This way ***fur*** may be modified to *foe, four, burn* to *bone*.
/ ɑʊ /	Learners should be made careful to get the first element correct, that is a variety which is not fronted or raised. It should be prominent and the second element should be lightly touched upon. For practice words like *sound, cow, mouse, foul* etc. should be used.

/ ɪə / / eə / / ʊə /	For the first of the three diphthongs the first element should be nearer [ɪ] rather than [i:]. The [r] which occurs frequently in the spelling of this diphthong sound should not be pronounced finally or before a consonant. The same suggestion should be given for the second sound also. For the third diphthong of this group, the first element should be a half-close kind rather than a sound resembling / u: / . The /r/ sound following, should not be pronounced. For practice use words like *peer, pair, poor; tear, stair, tour;* etc.

4.3.3 Difficulties with consonants:-

You may not face much problem in case of teaching pronunciation of the consonants. The problem areas in the consonants are the plosives, affricates and fricatives. Now these problems are discussed through a table.

Consonants	Remedies suggested
/ p, b, t, d, k, g, /	The main thing we should keep in our mind is their i) places of articulation, ii) manner of articulation, iii) aspiration, iv) voicing, v) length of preceding sounds. These areas should be given the priority. Foreign learners may be advised to pay attention to the aspiration of /p, t, k/ when these phonemes occur in the accented syllable. Necessary minimal pairs should be highlighted.
/ tʃ, dʒ /	Learners should be reminded that to articulate these affricates a considerable friction occurs approximately at the point where the plosive is made. Besides, the first sound /tʃ/ poses no problem while the Bengali speakers very often use /dʒ/ with /z/. This should be taken care of providing the practice for minimal pairs like *jam-zoo; jute-zoom; judge-buzz etc.*
/ f, v, ?, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ/	East-Indian students, specially the Bengali students, having their bilabial aspirated sounds in their language(s), confuse the place of articulation of the first two sounds / f, v /. They use bilabial sounds for the labiodentals. That is why you should let them have enough drilling with minimal pairs like *pan-*

	fan, fan-van etc. For the next two they have the same problem as they have parallel dental sounds in their languages. So they should be given practice of pronouncing minimal pairs like *three- the, thank- than* etc. Besides, they pronounce *thank, then* with dental sound without any hissing sound of passing of air. You should take care with it properly. The last four sounds may be taken together as in many cases both the / s, ∫ / and /z, ʒ/ distinction is lost. In these cases besides getting the learners' attention to the place of articulation, practice with minimal pairs containing these sounds should be suggested.

Any of the native varieties of English produce unique stresses on the language. English is a stress-timed language. Indian native languages are actually syllable-timed, like Latin and French. Indian-English speakers usually speak with a syllabic rhythm. Further, in some Indian languages, stress is associated with a low pitch, whereas in most English dialects, stressed syllables are generally pronounced with a higher pitch. Thus, when some Indian speakers speak, they appear to put the stress accents on the wrong syllables, or accentuate all the syllables of a long English word. Certain Indian accents are of a "sing-song" nature, a feature seen in a few English dialects in Britain, such as Scouse and Welsh English.

4.4 ❑ Objectives of pronunciation teaching :-

When we decide to teach pronunciation, we must be clear about the objectives of such teaching. We may state our objectives of teaching pronunciation in the following way :-

- The learner should be able to recognize and discriminate significant sound features.

- S/he should be able to produce sounds in an intelligible and acceptable manner - with segmental as well as supra-segmental value(with stress/intonation).

- S/he should be able to interpret written language phonologically (read aloud) and recreate spoken language graphically (eg. taking dictation, note taking).

- We should always aim to produce a native like pronunciation.

- We should aim at intelligibility and acceptability using a model of clear and careful diction.

- Our learners should also distinguish between casual, formal and declamatory speech and identify and understand slight social and regional variants of L2.

- For those who intend to achieve higher level of phonological competence as language teachers or interpreters, teachers should attempt to give them sufficient exposure to achieve mastery over a wider range of speech varieties.

4.5 ❑ Syllabus for pronunciation teaching :-

Teaching pronunciation should always be considered a continuous process within the framework of a language syllabus. It means teaching pronunciation should be designed as an integrated part of that syllabus. It should never be neglected. Language learning can never be complete until and unless pronunciation is learnt. On the other hand, there is no reason to think that learners will find it so easy to deal with a number of sound features in a new language at a time. **It must be a gradual process and must be taken together with the other language activities.** A pronunciation syllabus should be taken together with a grammatical and lexical syllabus into which a larger and newer number of sound features should be incorporated slowly keeping pace with the needs and level of the learners.

As discourse analysis tells us, speech sounds are produced in a continuous chain. In a discourse individual sounds are influenced either by preceding or by the following sounds. Under such circumstances vowels-consonants are sometimes treated at a later stage in the presentation while the earlier units deal with intonation, syllable, stress and rhythm.

Another effective practice nowadays is followed - sufficient exposure to varieties of speech from different speakers and various situations. This kind of syllabus designing effectively makes them aware of the body-languages, gestures, facial expressions and so on which are the obligatory part of the communicative language teaching. There must be one or two varieties of examples followed by huge activities based on those real life situation. These activities should be considered as the important parts of the course module, i.e., during the regular speaking and listening activities. The focus of these activities is the attention to sound features which may not be focused on in ordinary communication. At the context of listening-speaking activities it should be kept in mind that the course modules must include a number of well designed CDs and cassettes (for each and every unit) which will enhance the proficiency in learners' pronunciation.

This assumption in the activities is that being able to perceive a sound will make the learner produce that sound. Though it is true that we cannot produce a sound feature that we cannot perceive, it is also true that we do not automatically produce a sound feature that we are able to perceive. However, learners should be given enough opportunities to absorb sound features through exposure besides having opportunities to produce and practice producing these features through repetition of meaningful speech in relevant situation.

4.6 ❑ Let's sum up :-

Pronunciation can be taught so that the learners can produce a sound pattern intelligible to the native speakers. Unless the learners have very specific needs for acquiring native-like pronunciation, intelligibility should be the main criteria. Whether you allow your learners to develop fluent and spontaneous speech habits before you deal with correct pronunciation will have to be decided by specific needs and objectives. We would like to emphasize here that fluency is an important criteria that cannot be neglected at all. Even for the development of the learners' pronunciation proficiency the teacher should cultivate learners' capability and this way s/he should detect their problems some of which might be already fossilized or some of which might be the impact of typical Indian English or his/her mother-tongue influence. These problems must be alleviated by the teacher immediately. Fluency practice and pronunciation teaching may be taken up simultaneously with a syllabus suitable for the purpose.

4.7 ❑ Exercise :-

1. What should you consider when you choose a standard pronunciation to teach?

2. Write a brief note on the changing trends of pronunciation teaching from the 1940's through the 90's.

3. Identify at least two problem zones (each in the consonant and vowel sound features) that your students find difficult to master. How would you alleviate these problems? Suggest two exercises for each of these areas.

4. What should be the objectives of pronunciation teaching? Suggest objectives from your own experiences and for your needs.

5. Suggest the ways of achieving the objectives you have mentioned in the answer to the question no. 4.

6. How would you find a useful and workable syllabus for your students while teaching pronunciation?

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Paper 2

MODULE - II:

Unit 1 ❑ What is Grammar And Why Study It

Structure

1.0 ❑ Introduction

Participants! In the first unit we have tried to explore what the word 'grammar' actually means. We have also discussed about different kinds of grammar. Our main objective is to help you not to be a good grammarian; we don't intend to motivate one of your students to write another "Grammarian's Funeral" in memory of you. We rather, want you to be a good teacher of English language.

Now, may I ask you a frank question? What is your feeling about grammar? What do you mean by it? What do you associate grammar with? The answer, I expect, would be very straight forward ---------- "Sir, it is utterly boring". Exactly, in my schooldays, the image of a grammarian was really like that of a 'dull lifeless' person. Probably Robert Browning was not free from that and that is why he wanted to teach us how to visualize a 'grammarian's funeral'. Has anyone ever spoken about a grammarian's birthday or wedding party? But is it not surprising for you that etymologically 'grammar' is in proximity to 'glamour'? Please don't cry, "Impossible!!!" But I must say, on the contrary, Grammar , if not a glamorous subject, can be an interesting as well as an exciting subject to study. We are, rather, trying to make it and present to you so.

1.1 ❑ What is grammar ?

How can we define a grammar? The dictionaries [both Oxford and Cambridge (Advanced Learner's Dictionary)] define 'grammar' as the "rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences". According to McArthur (1883:37)"grammar is not a precise term, in the way that 'phonology' or 'anatomy' or 'sodium chloride' may be considered precise terms …………. It behaves pretty much like the majority of words in a language; it has a core of generally agreed meaning, but is fuzzy around the edges". This refers to the fact that the term 'grammar' can possess several types of interpretations. Try to think of all the probable definitions that you can.

Activity - 1:-

What does grammar mean to you?

Discussion

McArthur (1883:38) gives a few sentences to show the range of meanings that the term 'grammar' can have. Work out the meaning of grammar from each of the sentences.

1. Grammar is the rules people use when speaking or writing a language.
2. The boys went to the local grammar school.
3. That language was never written down, so it doesn't really have a grammar.
4. English is a language that doesn't have much grammar.
5. 'Grammar' and 'Syntax' is really the same thing.
6. People who know the language, work from grammars inside their heads.
7. The grammar of a language includes how to spell it and pronounce it .
8. Descriptive grammar is very different from prescriptive grammar.
9. Traditional grammar and modern theories like transformational generative grammar both seek to describe and explain actual language.
10. John's spelling is OK but his grammar is horrid.
11. Nesfield's grammar was a best seller in India for a long time.
12. English has a lot of grammar but my mother tongue hardly has any.
13. Ivy's grammar is quite correct but her vocabulary is quite limited.

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14. I have to follow grammar very strictly when I speak in English, but in my mother tongue I'm free to speak as I like.
15. Transformational-Generative grammar is far more insightful than tagmemic grammar.

Vygotsky, the eminent psychologist has posited the interesting hypothesis that learning grammar and mathematics is important for the mental growth of a child. The ancient Greeks and Romans too considered learning grammar a source of disciplining the mind.

Activity - 2:-

List the problems you have faced in the learning of grammar.

You might have recorded a response which is basically a list or lists of grammatical items which have proved to be difficult. You might have listed grammatical items also. You need to go beyond the details of grammatical items to the principles of teaching and learning grammar.

1.2 ❑ Implicit and explicit grammar :-

Before defining the implicit and explicit grammar, I would like to post a few sentences which are not so called grammatically acceptable sentences. Their unacceptability is marked by an asterisk (*) -

*1) My car was detained by a herd of sheeps on the road.
*2) Though my nephew is six, his parents still haven't sent him to the school.
*3) An ill person cannot take part in a race.
*4) Finally she made us to realize the fact.
*5) Those guys was trying to kill me.
*6) When he came here?

Would you really accept these sentences? I expect, no; not only that, I believe, by this time you have taken the initiative to make them acceptable. You have re-written the sentences like this -

1A) My car was detained by a herd of sheep on the road.
2A) Though my nephew is six, his parents still haven't sent him to school.

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3A) A sick person cannot take part in a race.

4A) Finally she made us realize the fact.

5A) Those guys were trying to kill me.

6A) When did he come here?

But can you tell me why you have done this? Even one of my friends (a non-teaching person) whom I showed these sentences (1-6) flatly refused to accept all these sentences and corrected each one like the sentences in the 'A' series but could not explain why he called them wrong. Then I placed these to one of my colleagues who teaches English. He not only corrected each one, at the same time explained the causes. He explained like this:-

Sentence (1) is wrong because 'sheep' is a noun that does not undergo any changes when it is converted to plurality.

When used as an institution, 'school' cannot be preceded by an article. It is preceded by the definite article 'the' when its status is that of a building. So the sentence (2) is wrong.

Ill is an adjective which is always used predicatively but cannot be used attributively before a noun. Whereas sick is an adjective that can be used both predicatively and attributively. That is why the sentence (3) is unacceptable.

Since the verb 'make' can only be followed by a bare infinitive but not by the infinitive with 'to', the sentence (4) is incorrect.

Since there was wrong subject-verb agreement (because of the wrong concurrence of singular subject and plural verb), the sentence (5) is wrong.

In a question the word order should be *V-S* (*V* = verb, *S* = subject), not *S-V* (that is of a statement). So the last sentence is wrong.

This way my colleague explained the rules that have been violated in these sentences. Then my question to him was how he found his students reacting to grammar in the language (English). He said, "they are not at all interested to do grammar exercises but I make them to do". --------------- such a ridiculous thing! He pointed out the sentence (4) as wrong but while in a talking mode, he is making the same mistake. If the his utterance would have been presented to him as a written sentence or as a grammatical item he could have pointed out the mistake. What does it prove? It, I believe, proves that my colleague has consciously learned the rules behind the sentence-formation but has not internalized those rules - he was using those rules but not following them while talking. So we can distinguish two types of linguistic abilities -------

i) ability to use the language by virtue of which acceptable sentences can be framed.

ii) ability to talk about the language (using metalanguage) by virtue of which we can produce sentences, explain rules involved.

From these two abilities two kinds of knowledge can be derived. The first kind of knowledge can be called ***implicit knowledge*** that enables a person to speak, write and perceive English and to distinguish between grammatically acceptable and unacceptable sentences The second kind of knowledge is called ***explicit knowledge*** that enables us to state the rules of sentence formation in English and how they can be observed.

Further we can say that here, we have two types of grammar. ***Grammar-A*** refers to the ***implicit grammar***, an internalized knowledge of rules of a language and it is always in operation unconsciously when we use it in a language. ***Grammar-B*** is called the ***explicit grammar***, an explicit knowledge of the rules of the language in question and it enables us to speak in a formal, technical way about the language. All ***native speakers*** of English or other languages possess the ***implicit grammar*** while the ***foreign learners*** of English or other language possess the ***explicit grammar***.

Activity - 3:-

Say whether the following sentences are acceptable. Would you like to use them yourself? Even if you would, have you ever heard anyone say that sentences like these are not correct?

i) a] Who do you want?

   b] Sonali is a girl I spoke to.

   c] She only died last month.

   d] Has everybody got their sheets of paper?

   e] Raju is shorter than me.

   f] One cannot be thinking of his own problems all the time.

Discussion:-

All these sentences are acceptable as they frequently come in the use of educated native speakers of English systematically. However, there are others who depend much more on the rules and vehemently refuse to accept those sentences as correct ones. According to them the correct forms will be :-

ii) a) Whom do you want?

    b) Sonali is a girl to whom I spoke.

    c) She died only last month.

    d) Has everybody got his sheets of paper?

    e) Raju is shorter than I.

    f) One cannot be thinking of one's own problems all the time.

1.3 ❑ Prescriptive and descriptive grammar :-

To repeat, all the sentences cited in the section - i) above are acceptable as they frequently come in the use of educated native speakers of English systematically. However, they are discarded by a group of people - even some best sellers of English grammar reject them as ungrammatical or "bad English". Often they show reasons in favour of their rejection. For example, according to them , sentence i) b) is wrong because of ending the sentence with a preposition 'to' or sentence i) d) is wrong as 'everyone' is singular and for that reason the subsequent pronoun should also be singular.

So it again proves that those so called grammarians are blindly in favour of the rules.

One way to evaluate a person's progress in learning a new language is to measure his vocabulary: how many words does he know? But it does not make a sense to ask, "How many sentences does this person know?" Vocabulary items (words, idioms) are typically learned one at a time, but we do not 'learn' sentences that way. A person who even knows only a limited number of words can frame a large number of sentences with those limited number of vocabulary. Now when we say that a speaker of English 'knows' the rules for forming sentences in that language, we do not mean that the person is aware of this knowledge. We need to differentiate between two kinds of rules. There are some rules about using language that must be consciously learned, the kind of rules we often learn in school. Rules of this type are called the ***prescriptive rules:*** the rules that define a standard form of the language, and which some authority must explicitly state for the benefit of other speakers.

    Another set of rules we are interested in here are those which are used by native speakers of a language and children learn them not from any book but from the speech of their parents as well as other family members and members of their speech community. All languages, standardized or non-standardized have rules of that kind which constitute the grammar. This grammar is called ***descriptive grammar.*** Our primary goal should be to observe, describe, analyze what speakers of a language actually say rather than trying

to tell them what they should or should not say. The term 'grammar' is often used to refer to the complete set of rules needed to produce all the regular patterns in a given language. This is ***Prescriptive Grammar***. Another way of using grammar is there where "all the structural properties of a language" except phonology, i.e., the structure of words, phrases, sentences, texts etc are present. This is called ***Descriptive Grammar.***

Perhaps the distinction between descriptive and prescriptive grammars will become clearer to you if you can compare it with the distinction between natural laws and the laws of the Government. Laws like the law of gravitation or the law of planetary motion actually describe the phenomena found in nature. On the contrary the laws of the Government prescribe what we should do or what we should not. The rules of the Descriptive Grammar are like the natural laws stated by scientists, base on actual usage and those of Prescriptive Grammar are like the laws of the Government : they tell us how to use the language.

1.4 ❑ Linguist's grammar, Learner's grammar and Teacher's grammar :-

On the basis of the purpose for which the grammar is intended, we can divide grammars into three kinds :

i) Linguist's Grammar :-   Linguists are interested in studying language as a system of signs, how language is acquired, how it is comprehended, how it is produced and so on. One school of linguistics today is interested in setting up a Universal Grammar to view all linguistic activities in terms of certain transformational processes and operations. The goal is to understand the human mind through the study of the human languages.

ii) Learner's Grammar :-   It helps the learners to learn how to use the language a learner's grammar is basically the result or end-product of certain theoretical discussions about the nature of language learning. But these theories are not described or mentioned in the grammar itself. In other words a learner's grammar today presents a minimum of formal information (sometimes do's and don't's), but it mainly attempts to induce and reinforce the mastery of grammatical skills through contextualized, meaningful tasks.

iii) Teacher's Grammar :-   The teacher's grammar mainly makes the valuable insights of linguists available to the teachers so that they

can filter them still further and pass them on and exploit them properly for the learners. A teacher's grammar is, therefore a link between the linguist's grammar and the learner's grammar.

1.5 ❑ Why should teachers study grammar ?

It may be hypothetical that each and every teacher must have a thorough knowledge of language. There is an unending debate about whether formal English grammar should be taught to learners, especially in a situation where the status of English is that of neither a mother tongue nor a foreign language, and if it is taught how much of it should be taught, how much should be exploited and how the exposure should be given to the learners. A teacher's grammar will help a teacher to discuss the questions in an 'intelligent and informed' way and arrive at a workable decision. It will also help a teacher in the matter of syllabus design, class-room teaching and testing (especially remedial teaching and testing).

There is another way in which Teacher's grammar is very much helpful. It definitely helps the teachers in establishing a sound descriptive basis for the prescriptive grammar which may have to be taught to the students. For example, look at these sentences:-

a) The book to which you referred is not available.

b) The book you referred to is not available.

A teacher's grammar (basically a descriptive grammar) will surely enable a teacher to see that while both of the sentences are acceptable, the first one is more formal than the second. The teacher, therefore, won't mark either of these sentences as wrong or ungrammatical : s/he would simply point out the difference between the two.

1.6 ❑ Excercises :-

1.] Look at each of the statements below and say whether you would assign it to a prescriptive grammar or to a descriptive grammar. If the statement is a prescriptive one, say whether it is based on actual usage or it ignores usage in some way:-

i) A preposition is always followed by a noun or a pronoun which completes the phrase introduced by the preposition. The preposition cannot move away from the rest of the phrase.

ii) That it is a solecism to begin a sentence with and is a faintly lingering SUPERSTITION. The OED gives examples ranging from the 10th to the 19th C.; The Bible is full of them.

iii) In American English and in very informal British English, …….. one frequently hears sentences such as I'll see you Sunday, in which the preposition on is omitted before a day of the week standing on its own.

iv) How can I expect the compound like "vacuum cleaner" and "bathing pool"? Surely nobody would like to clean a vacuum; and surely, there is no pool which can bathe.

v) The foreign student of English must remember that, apart from (some) expressions ……..a preposition is not used after verbs like answer, approach, ask, attach, enter.

2.] Examine the sentences below and say whether they are acceptable or not. If not say why. Compare your words with your partners'. :-

i) When he went back?
ii) The girls was trying to say something.
iii) The Government is contemplating to amend the relevant article of the Constitution.
iv) Michael has resigned on Thursday following the Calcutta High Court judgement on telephone scam.
v) I want the door locking.
vi) One cannot be highlighting of his own interests all the time.
vii) Sandeep is in a fix.
viii) The delegates are requested to stay put.
ix) The President conveyed her hearty condolences to the families of the victims of the plane crash.
x) Can we come and see you this evening?

1.7 ❑ Let's sum up :-

In this unit we have scrutinized closely at the term 'grammar'. We first saw it could mean either (a) the ability to use a language (English for our purpose) in an acceptable way, or (b) the formal knowledge of the rules or conventions that underlie such acceptable use of the language. We then classified grammar first into i) descriptive, and ii) prescriptive ones and then, into a) linguist's, b) learner's, and then c) teacher's grammars. We have

also tried to show how the present course, which attempts to present a teacher's grammar, may be useful to you as a teacher of English.

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Unit 2 ❑ Usage : Acceptability And Related Factors

Structure

2.0 **Introduction**

2.1 **Grammar and usage**

2.2 **Collocations**

2.3 **Indian English and its features**

    2.3.1 Some features of Indian English:-

2.4 **Let's sum up**

2.5 **Bibliography**

2.0 ❑ Introduction :-

We have considered, in this unit, the question of acceptability in a language, especially the criteria for distinguishing between acceptable and unacceptable sentences in English. Touching collocations in English very briefly, we have gone on discussing about the dialectical and registral varieties of English. The clear concept in this phenomenon, no doubt, posits the clear analysis of a discourse. In the last unit we have discussed about grammar in various senses. In this unit we have talked about what we normally expect a grammar to do. We expect a grammar of a language to say what is ***acceptable*** and what is ***unacceptable***. Not only that, we have used these two broad terms instead of 'correct' and 'incorrect' because the terms 'correct' and 'incorrect' suggest extreme norms while language in use is determined by whole lot of relative criteria. The terms like 'acceptable' and 'unacceptable' suggest norms which are relative and even fluid and variable. I'd like to initiate my discussion leading your interest towards some sentences.

2.1 ❑ Grammar and usage :-

Some of you may be surprised that we postulate "grammar and usage" as a dichotomy for all grammar should be a description of usage. So grammar and usage should not aim at different directions. But it is not an easy deal. Firstly, the prescriptive grammar, implicitly

or explicitly presents sentences or rules thereby vitiating actual usage. Secondly, on the other hand descriptive grammar has also to face another problem. Though usage does not vary at any given time, it always keeps changing and that is why, it has to keep pace with all the changes. And these changes, while keeping its records, cannot be accommodated within a certain frame of the grammar book.

Activity - 1:-

Comment on the acceptability of the following sentences. If unacceptable, say why it is so:

1. The escapee was eventually caught.
2. The labourers were scapegoated in the movement.
3. Do you have any children?
4. My father left my mother and I when I was about five years old.
5. No one told me I would feel like I did.
6. The media is not playing the ideal role in our country.
7. To pas the A-level in computer is a criteria for the post.
8. The process of appointing the heads of the faculties are cloaked in great secrecy.

Discussion :-

All the sentences may appear as unacceptable to you. If so, you have to discuss the reasons for this rejection. You have to show why you are discarding these sentences. You have to check whether these utterances are used by the native speakers of English. If so, what grammar would you accept or follow.

If you browse over the sentences given minutely, you can notice that some rules have been violated in all the sentences. May I, however, point you out to you the fact that all these are the sentences which are or have been already uttered by the native speakers of English. Not only that, the speakers belonged to the high educated or family background. For example, sentence - 4 was once spoken in a popular TV interview programme by an airline entrepreneur who was knighted and the sentence - 5 was uttered by Princess of Wales, Diana while she was referring, in an interview, to her morning sickness during her early pregnancy.

But don't you think that these sentences (as uttered by the natives) are highlighting the changing trends in usage but only very few of them would be indicated in grammar

books and dictionaries (especially British). Besides, sentence-3 indicates the American trend of usage in stead of British trend.

My intention in citing these sentences, is not to ask you to 'accept them but rather to make you aware of the inevitable gap between grammar and its usage in reality. Teachers of English should be well-conversant with the facts of English usage. Secondly we are to insist on our students' using of a particular form, and we must convince them to accept it, telling that the form is preferable as it is accepted in any standard variety of English. Any way, can't we hope that all the sentences above (in their deviant usage) will shortly be, regularly and systematically, used by almost all the native speakers of English? As a consequence, they will be considered quite grammatical.

2.2 ❑ Collocations :-

Look at the following pair of sentences:-

I] One has to put in a lot of interest in whatever one is doing.

II] The President conveyed her hearty condolences to the families of the victims of the plane crash.

Just think in the perspective of the prescriptive grammar. Are they accepted sentences.

Yes, you're right, the prescriptive grammar discards the sentences as unacceptable. According to that both the sentences are unacceptable because of using odd-collocation. "put in", as used in the sentence - I], never collocates with interest (rather collocates with 'effort', 'work') and condolence, as posted in the sentence no.- II] can never be a 'hearty' one. 'Hearty' rather collocates with 'greetings'. But descriptive grammar does not discard it. Even in he stylistic writing by the native speaker we come across odd-collocations('nuclear umbrella', mushroom growth' and so on). So:-

Collocation refers to the way some words regularly occur in the company of some others. When we say that two words collocate, we mean that one generally 'goes with' the other. So we are supposed to use the expressions like 'strong coffee' but not 'powerful coffee' or "agog with excitement" but not "agog with activity".

Collocation is a difficult area to deal with especially for the non-native writers of English since it's not dominated or guided by any specific logical or clearly defined rules but simply by convention. So there is no logical reason why we should not say, "An early reply will be highly appreciated" in stead of "An early reply will be greatly appreciated" as used by a conservative British. But problems crop up with the non-native users like

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us. We have English as our second language rather than strictly a foreign language. So w are supposed to learn collocation item-by-item rather than forming a general rule. Which we can do in the cases of grammatical areas like subject-verb concord / article usage.

Collocation is defined as a lexical phenomenon which determines which lexical word (noun, verb, adjective and adverb) goes with which other lexical word (noun, verb, adjective and adverb). But we always distinguish ***collocation*** with the ***colligation***, a co-occurrence of grammatical items. For example, that 'want' is always followed by an infinitive ('to') but not a 'that' clause is the rule of ***colligation.***

Activity - 2:-

Here is a letter that a teacher received from one of his students. Go through it and pick all the wrong collocations. Please tell the correct collocations also.

Dear Sir,

Namaskar. How are you? I' sorry I couldn't write you all these days. The fact is I had an accident two weeks ago and hospitalized for a few days. I will tell you now how it happened. My scooter dashed against a car and I was almost run over. To speak the truth, I must own responsibility for the accident. The car wallah is not to be blamed. As I came later he tried his best to avoid an accident. But I was driving my scooter too fast and too recklessly. You see, my mind was troubled by all sorts of things. You may remember I have still not got my B.Com. Degree though I completed the course last year. I still have to clear two papers in English. In fact, I was going to give my exams in a few days when this accident happened. Now I can give the exams only in May next year.

Sir, you know me. I'm a modest fellow. I don't make tall claims about my English. I can't speak such a chaste English as you can. My grammar, actually, needs a lot of toning up. I'd like to tone up my grammar. Can you suggest some book which will be highly useful in this regard?

With regards,
Yours truly,
Aurvind Swami.

Discussion:-

You have to check the answer with an important point in mind, you have to detect the use of odd collocations. Then you have to consult books and to find out the correct collocation, the co-occurrences of proper words.

2.3 ❑ Indian English and its features :-

Participants! What do you mean by Indian English? Do you consider the term descriptive? How do you react with this term, 'Indian English'? Do you think that there is a separate entity called 'Indian English'? Do you regard yourself as a user of Indian English? If so, would you like to regard it as your deficiency?

Perhaps all these are odd questions having fairly obvious answers. But it is true that there definitely exists an entity or, a phenomenon, called as Indian English. It is like other international varieties of English - American English, South-African English or English of New Zealand.

Our attitude to 'Indian English' is indeed complex : we are aware of it as consisting in certain clearly distinguishable features, we might even sometimes defend their use and our right to adapt or bend the English language to suit our needs and purposes but at the same time, considering the social status that English enjoys in this country, we might be anxious not to get caught using Indian English. For example, while introducing my wife's sister's husband what should I say? Generally it may be brother-in-law but in Indian perspective we say this relation is 'co-brother'. We think we should always clearly distinguish and carry out three different kinds of task :-

1. We should first observe and record objectively and comprehensively the features that distinguish Indian English from the native variety of English.

2. Our next concern is to check which of these features we would like to accept and which we would like to change or get rid off.

3 Finally, out of the list of distinguishing features that have been made, the third step should be, I believe, to evolve materials and teaching procedures for carrying out the remedial teaching. This is strictly a matter of pedagogy.

2.3.1 Some features of Indian English:-

A short list of features that characterize Indian English is given below. Study it.

1. Pluralization of non-count nouns.

Eg.- equipments, informations, advices, aircrafts [instead of equipment, information, advice, aircraft].

2. The use of nouns alone which appear only in the partitive phrases in British English. Eg.- Can you give me a chalk? (….. a piece of chalk)

My daughter is two only but she already knows many alphabets (instead of letters of the alphabet.).

3. An extended use of compound formation in cases where British English would use a noun and a prepositional phrase. Like a welcome speech (a speech of welcome). A water bottle (a bottle for water) etc.

4. Deviant article usage:-

a) Definite article is not used Eg.- Prime-minister postponed the meeting (The Prime-minister…..)

b) Indefinite article not used. Eg.- My eldest daughter is professor (…. a professor).

5. Use of prepositions.

I)   Omission of prepositions

I applied casual leave yesterday (applied for ..)

II) Addition of preposition - We shall return back tomorrow.(return)

III) Different prepositions-He tore off the cloth in anger (tore up).

6. Word order : inversion in questions:-

a) Direct questions with no subject-verb inversion

  Why you have left this lucrative job? (Why have you left this lucrative job?)

  b) Indirect questions with inversion.

Eg.- I asked him why had he done this (instead of why he had done….)

7. Verb patterns.

i) Transitive verbs used intransitively. Eg.- We would appreciate if you could send us the details soon (appreciate it if …).

ii) Deviant use of V + that-clause / V + infinitive

I want that you should go (I want you to go)

He suggested me to go (He suggested that I should go)

8) Stative verbs used in -ing forms in finite verb phrases

I am having a scooter (I have ….)

9. The use of the same tag-question (isn't it?) for all kinds of sentences

These units are boring, isn't it? (aren't they)

10. Yes-no confusion in responses to negative questions

Question: Didn't you see me in college yesterday?

Answer : Yes I didn't see you yesterday in the college.

(No, I didn't see you…..)

[* The expression of British English is given in the brackets]

Activity - 5 :-

An extract from Nissim Ezekiel's Very Indian Poems In Indian English is given here. Study it carefully and find out the features of Indian English that the poet provides.

I am standing for peace and non-violence.
Why world is fighting fighting,
Why all people of world
Are not following Mahatma Gandhi,
I am simply not understanding.
Ancient India's wisdom is 100% correct.
I should say even 200% correct.
But Modern generation is neglecting -
Too much going for fashion and foreign thing.

Other day I'm reading in newspaper
(Every day I'm reading Times of India
To improve my English Language)
How one goonda fellow
Throw stone at Indirabehn
Must be student unrest fellow, I am thinking
Friends, Romans, Countrymen, I am saying
(To myself).

Discussion :-

Participants! Before starting the activity it will be better to browse over the short list that bears the features of 'Indian English' once more. Now think on its frame and it will be easy enough to solve the problem. (Hint:- first see if there is any -ing form of stative verbs etc.)

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2.4 ❑ Let's sum up :-

In this unit we have mainly discussed the usage of grammar. In this context we have talked about the acceptability of the sentences in the light of knowledge that you have gathered from the previous unit. Besides, we have discussed up to what extent the sentences can be used to serve our purpose. In his perspective we have analyzed the usage of collocations. Next we have categorized the unacceptable sentences on the basis of linguistic and non-linguistic factors. We have highlighted the differences between British and Indian English.

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Unit 3 ❑ Word And Sentence

Structure

3.0   Introduction

3.1   Word study

    3.1.1   Word and lexeme

    3.1.2   Lexical categories: nature, scatter, set and collocation

    3.1.3   Meaning

        3.1.3.1   Meaning and information

        3.1.3.2   Componential analysis

        3.1.3.3   Sub – lexical semantics

        3.1.3.4   Selectional restrictions

3.2   Word classes and phrases

3.3   Sentence structure: the simple sentence

    3.3.1   What is a sentence?

    3.3.2   Types of sentences

    3.3.3   Basic elements

    Subject

    Object

    Complement

    Adjunct

3.4   Sentence structure: the Complex Sentence

    3.4.1   Finite and non-finite verbs

    3.4.2   Clauses

    3.4.3   Noun Clauses

    3.4.4   Reported Speech

    3.4.5   Adverbial Clause

3.5 Let's sum up

3.6 Bibliography

3.0 ❑ Introduction :-

For your convenience this unit has been divided into three parts - i) Word study, ii) basic sentence and iii) compound and Complex sentences. The first part has given you a fair idea about the importance of word study in grammar. Since grammatical analysis is mainly based on sentences, we have devoted the other two parts to sentence study. The second one attempts to give a proper definition of the sentence. Besides, the basic parts of the sentences are discussed in it . Here we have discussed the broader sub-divisions of the sentence, simple, compound and complex. We have also highlighted the S-V-O pattern and the clausal elements of the sentences. In the third part we have a detailed study of compound and complex sentences. Our objective in the unit is to -

 ◆ help you to look at word from the graphological, phonological, grammatical and semantic view points

 ◆ identify the relationship between the word grammar and the clause grammar

 ◆ make you aware of the sentence and its components

 ◆ help you to identify the sentence structure, clausal elements and structure of the compound and complex sentences.

3.1 ❑ World study :-

When we study words, we discuss it from different angles like grammatical, lexical etc.

3.1.1 Word and lexeme:-

The two terms, 'word' and 'lexeme' are frequently used interchangeably and that convention is followed here. The word is a grammatical unit. It is identified by morphological and syntactic criteria. The following are different words:

Broad, breadth, broadly; or play, playful, playing, playfully.

But all these words in the first set are derived from the lexeme ***broad*** and in the second set from the lexeme ***play***. A lexeme is an identifiable semantic unit. For example, we can have different words like ***be, is, was, were*** as different units of the underlined lexeme, ***be***. It is lexemes that are usually listed as head words in a dictionary.

3.1.2 Lexical categories: nature, scatter, set and collocation:-

When we analyze a lexeme we should consider some basic parameters. They are nature, scatter, set and collocation.

Nature:- It refers to the fact whether it is a simple, compound or complex item. This is what we call the *nature* of a lexeme. For example :-

Simple - man, fish, sweet, tiger, flower, net, baby, child, mother and so on.

Compound - rice-cake, pressure-cooker, blackboard, chopstick and so on.

Complex - make-up, set in, put on, father-in-law and so on.

In the complex item, one is the basic item while the other(s) is(are) subordinate to the basic item.. In the compound lexeme, you can find the combination of two words.

Scatter :- It refers to the different grammatical forms of a particular lexeme.
For example: beggar, beggars, begging, beggary, constitute the scatter of *beggar*. Similarly, do, did, done, doing, deed, and has, have, had, having are the scatter of *do* and *have* respectively.

Set :- It refers to the items that exist with the main item as part of a specific semantic field. There are two lexemes used in English that look alike but are parts of two different sets. Let us select three words and two sets for each:

i) **bank -** a) bank, river, shore, water
      b) bank, cheque, encash, cash, vault, safe-deposit, loan, interest, money, EMI.
ii) **wind -** a) wind, breeze, air, gas.
      b) wind, turn, twist, revolve.
iii) **bed -** a) bed, pillow, cushion, bed-cover, bed-sheet, sofa, cot.
      b) bed(for cultivation), seed-bed, seed, sowing, ladder.

Collocation :- It refers to the co-occurrence of two lexemes to denote a special meaning. While collocation operates the on syntagmatic axis, set operates the on paradigmatic axis. While *tea* and *coffee* or *strong* and *light* are the sets, *strong coffee* and *light tea* are the examples of collocation. There may be two types of collocations like, *normal/ unmarked* and *abnormal/marked*. For example:-

1.Unmarked = strong coffee, black tea, palatable dish, delicious food, blatant partnership.
2. Marked = nuclear umbrella, mushroom growth, delicious death, admirable partnership.

[* Generally marked collocations are used in the stylistic piece of writing to highlight a symbolic overtone]

Activity - 1 :-

Select any ten lexical items and analyze them in terms of nature, scatter, set and collocation.

3.1.3 Meaning:-

Words are often defined by reference to their similarities or differences with other words. For example :

- Different words but same or similar meaning (synonyms).
- Different words and opposite meaning (antonyms)
- Different words but same word family or lexical field (hyponyms).
- Same word but different meaning (homonyms).
- Same word and similar meaning (polysemes)

Using the above categories, identify the sense relation between the underlined words in the following extracts (from *The Gate of Angels* by Penelope Fitzgerald).

a)   He took a taxi to St. Angelicus to fetch his gown.

Fred asked the cab to wait.

b)   'I hoped you young gentlemen slept sound,' she asked us the first morning.

There was a sound like a vast heap of glass splintering ...

Some more activities:-

i)   Though the girl tried to provoke the man with her alluring dress and manner but it came to be very repulsive according to his test.

ii)   'Duranta', the fast passenger for New Delhi from Sealdah, has become very much popular for its fleet movement.

iii)   Students of Sociolinguistics need a tremendous practical exposure through social interaction. But the concealment at home cannot provide it.

iv)   The British fleet sailed from Southampton early this morning.

Christopher Rice became the fleet admiral of US Navy.

v)   You should avoid sweets to prevent obesity. Don't be deceived by the sweet manner of that lady.

3.1.3.1 Meaning and information:-

Meaning subsumes almost everything that tends to transpire between the 'encoder' and the 'decoder' of a massage through a code. We have to compare words like meaning, sense, denotation, reference and message. Sense refers to the related lexical items. For example, the word 'horse' is related, in specific sense, to mare, stallion, pony etc. On the other hand, denotation of horse tells us of a class of entities which is a proper subclass of the class of entities denoted by animal.

Reference also is a relation between an expression and the outside phenomena. For example,

i) Hyderabad is a well-populated city.

ii) The capital of Andhra Pradesh should be subjected to versatility of employments.

Here both Hyderabad and the capital of Andhra Pradesh have the same referential value.

Message is the totality of information, conveyed from one to another. It also has the extralinguistic information available in a given context. For example, an expression like, "on the other side of the Vindhyas" refers linguistically to the same whether the speaker is from New Delhi or from Chennai. But the message is totally different depending on the context.

3.1.3.2 Componential analysis:-

The components of our conception of a word can be represented as a set of generally recognizable labels. Let us exemplify with words like, boy, cow, nephew.

Boy:-	Cow:-	Nephew:-
|	|	|
[Human, Male, Non-adult]	**[Animal, Bovine, Female]**	**[Human, Sibling's offspring, Male]**

Using the above categories, analyze the following words componentially:-

Master, husband, wife, ox, bull, bullock, girl, son, niece, daughter.

3.1.3.3 Sub lexical semantics:- The components we attribute to a word are not of equal value. They are called sub-lexical. For example, in your previous example, nephew, human is the background component while offspring and male are the foreground or sub-lexical component.

3.1.3.4 Selectional restrictions:- It refers to another lexicogrammatical consequence of the semantic component. Let us consider the following example to understand it.

Die => [event, cease-to exist, animate-affected] or assassinated => [action, cause-to-die, conspirational-agency, prominent person affected]

Activity - 2:-

1. Attempt componential analysis of the following words:-

flower, bee, bird, cat, house, water, juice, swim, niece, queen, king

3.2 ❑ Word classes and phrases :-

3.2.1. Word classes:- Can you match the term in this list with their definition below. The first one is done for you.

noun,   pronoun,   verb,   adjective,   adverb,   preposition,

determiner,   conjunction

i) A word that functions either to specify the time, place or manner of the verb, or as an intensifier, or a connector. *Adverb*

ii) A word that can substitute for a noun.

iii) A word, used in front of a noun to express, for example, number and quantity.

iv) A word that names things : people, places, objects, activities, feelings, ideas etc.

v) A word that relates noun to other elements, the relation being one of time or place, for example.

vi) A word that joins one clause to another or one word to another.

vii) A word that typically expresses an event, process or state.

viii) A word that typically identifies an attribute of a noun.

Task :- Now can you find an example of each word class in this extract?

In the early summer of 1933, I started out for my first working tour. I let my grandfather's house at Henfield in Sussex one evening and walked towards the river. My aunt seemed

pleased to be rid of me. She speeded me on my way rather too gaily and quickly. [Ref:-
I Left My Grandfather's House by D. Welch]

3.2.2. Groups:- In the text of the task above, it should be clear that many of the
words in the sentences cluster into groups. For example, which analysis of the first
sentence best reflects the way the words are grouped?

a) In the early | summer of 1933, I | started out for | my first working | tour |

b) In the early summer | of 1933|, I started | out for | my first working tour |

c) In the early summer of 1933,| I | started out | for my first working tour |

d) In the early summer of 1933,| I started | out for my first working tour|

3.2.3. Phrases :- These groupings of words as mentioned above, that function like
individual parts of speech, are traditionally called Phrases. There are five types of phrases
in English. They are :-

noun phrase (NP)

verb phrase (VP)

adjective phrase (Adj. P)

adverbial phrase (Adv. Phrase)

Task :- Look at the following example from the extract. Identify the phrase type for
each.

i) pleased to be rid of me

ii) rather too gaily

iii) my grand father's house at Henfield in Sussex.

iv) started out

v) towards the river.

3.2.3.1 Phrase heads:- Notice that in the first four phrase types, the phrase can be
reduced to just one word: *pleased, gaily, house and started*. This is the **head** of the
phrase. The word class of the head indicates the type of the phrase. **Gaily** is an **adverb**;
rather too gaily is **an adverbial phrase**.

Task:- What phrase type is each of the underlined phrase? What is the head of each?

I felt excited but also a little unhappy and alarmed. I wished that I had not started out in
the evening.

When I got to the river bank, the sun still seemed high but it was turning orange. I spoke
to an old man who was smoking his pipe near the water and asked him if it was Steyning
that I could see on the other bank.

3.2.4 Modification:- the words that precede the head of phrase are called Pre-modifiers and that follow the head are called the Post-modifier. **Eg.-**

Pre-modifier	Head	Post-modifiers
My grandfather's	house	at Henfield in Sussex

Task: - Subdivide the following underlined phrases in the same way:-

I made my way from Exmoor to the edge of Dartmoor. I had yet another great-aunt in view to provide my next night's bed. She was the sister-in-law of the uncle I had stayed with at Petersfield, and she had a house not very far from Okehampton.

3.2.5 Prepositional Phrase:- Prepositional phrases have two parts: a preposition followed by a noun phrase. Eg:-

- at Henfield

- on my way

Task:- Identify the prepositional phrases in the extract of the task of section **3.2.4**.

3.3 ❑ Sentence structure : the simple sentence :-

The basic unit of language analysis is the sentence. A grammar is essentially or at least traditionally about how sentences in languages are formed. Although the sentences are neither the largest nor the smallest units in a language, they are more compactly constructed than the other larger elements.

3.3.1 What is a sentence?

Many of us do not face any difficulty to define a sentence: **A sentence is the expression of a complete thought.** Modern grammarians 'define' the term 'sentence' in a variety of ways at the same time. In the *Collins Cobuild English Grammar* (1990) a sentence is glossed as :-

A group of words which express a statement, question or command. A sentence usually has a verb and a subject and may be a simple sentence, consisting of one clause or a complex sentence consisting of two or more clauses. A sentence in writing has a capital letter at the beginning and a full stop, a question mark or an exclamation mark at the end.

Activity - 3:-

1. Identify those groups of words that form grammatically complete sentences in the following two extracts (from Alan Ayckbourn's A Small Family Business). What are the other group of words?

a) We appear to be looking at a cross- section of a modern or recently modernized house, perhaps on an executive type estate. Ours is a rear view. Four rooms, two up an two down. Downstairs, to one side, is the sitting room. Modern furnishings, fitments, with hi-fi etc., a settee, armchairs, low tables. Neutral carpeting. It is a fairly large area, being two rooms knocked into one.

b) Poppy : How did it go then?

   Jack : All right. You know. Fond farewells. Usual thing. We shall miss you for ever thank God he's gone at last ……. I'm not that late, am I?

   Poppy : Only a little.

2. Look at this sentence from the text given below. Which of the following groupings best represent its internal structure?

a) A plan to star | pop queen Madonna | in a film version of Evita has been | vetoed by composer | Andrew Lloyd Webber.

b) A plan to star pop queen Madonna in a film version of Evita | has been vetoed | by composer Andrew Lloyd Webber.

c) A plan | to star | pop queen Madonna in a film version | of Evita | has been vetoed | by | composer Andrew Lloyd Webber.

3.3.2 Types of sentence:-

From the discussion above, I believe, you have come to the point that sentences can be broadly categorized into two:- Simple and Multiple [Complex & Compound]

i) Simple Sentence = A type of sentence that has one and only one clause. Eg.-

Only an antacid was needed.

ii) Complex Sentence = A type of sentence that has two or more than two clauses. Eg.- *Cement had been poured over their plumbing before they checked the pipe connection.*

iii) Compound Sentence = A type of sentence that has two or more than two independent clauses. Eg.- *There was a heavy downpour during the monsoon but early repair of city sewage system could not let the roads be water-logged.*

Activity - 4 :-

Look at the following sentences and say whether they are simple or multiple sentences. If multiple, mention whether they are complex or compound:-

1. A man and his partner, both plumbers, were voicing irritation at the construction site of a hospital.
2. Sure enough that there was a leak but they couldn't say where.
3. It would be a major job to break up the floor.
4. Just then a doctor dropped by to see how things were progressing.
5. Learning of their predicament, he placed his stethoscope in his ears and got down on his hands and knees.
6. Crawling along the floor, he soon located the leak.
7. Only a minor surgery was needed.

3.3.3 Basic elements:-

The basic clausal elements in a sentence are the:-

i) subject(S) = Chandra has complained to the police.

ii) Object(O) = Remo has sent **the file**.

iii) Complement = a) subject complement - The lady in the news was **Kanimojhi.**

                    b) **object complement -** The Committee appointed Yamini **the Vice-President.**

                    c) **adverbial complement -** I took Raima **home.**

iv) Adjunct =   **i)** Come up **quick**.

               ii) They walked **extremely fast**.

               iii) Why did he marry her **in such unseemly haste**.

               iv) Didn't I see you **last year?**

               v) He ran **as though his life depended on it.**

               vi) Some people love **to eat**.

Task:- A] *Can you divide the following sentences into their basic elements?(the number of elements is shown in the brackets).*

1. Australia's most senior female politician has resigned. (2)

2. The All Black side to play the British Lions in the first test in Christchurch on Saturday was predictable.(3)

3. Hundreds of angry Afgans sacked the Pakistan Embassy.(3)

4. The counting of votes from thousands of expatriates gave the Prime-Minister a majority of one seat.(4)

5. A Pakistani court cleared Asif Ali Zardari, husband of Benazir Bhutto, of bank scam.(4)

B] *Now do the same for the following sentences :-*

1. It's a free country.

2. My friend lent them to me.

3. She gave me a false name.

4. I was educated privately in Cardiff.

5. We'll use the front door this time.

6. Poppy doesn't get on too well with Harriet.

3.4 ❑ Sentence structure : the Complex Sentences :-

Complex sentences are those that consist of two or more clauses, hence two or more verbs.

3.4.1 Finite and non-finite verbs:-

Finite verbs are those which are marked for tense and/or number and/or person, as in *She works or she has worked* . Non-finite verbs do not express these contrasts. They are the **participles and infinitives :** *working, worked and to work.*

Task:- *Read the text and identify the verb phrases:-*

Desperate action

A young Dunedin man suffered a severe electri- room before the interview had finished. He pulled a wire from his

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cal shock in the Income Support Service office after walking out of an interview.

The incident left staff as well as the man badly shaken.

The young man walked out of the interview

clothing and plugged it into a wall socket receiving a severe shock. A stuff member swiftly disconnected the plug and the man Was taken to hospital

3.4.2 Clauses:-

In the text in the preceding task there are more verb phrases than sentences. Each verb phrase marks the presence of a clause. Use this definition to find examples of the following:-

- a simple sentence:	A sentence that contains only one clause.
- a multiple clause:	A sentence that contains more than one clause. It can be a compound or a complex sentence.
- an independent clause:	A clause that can stand on its own to form a sentence. It is sometimes called the **main clause**.
- a dependent clause:	A clause that can't stand on its own to form a sentence. It is sometimes called the **subordinate clause**.
- a finite clause:	A clause whose verb is finite.
- a non-finite clause:	A clause whose verb is non-finite.
- a compound sentence:	A sentence consisting of two independent clauses linked by co-ordination, for example, and/or/but.
- a complex sentence:	A sentence that has only one main clause and one or more dependent clauses. The dependent clause is subordinate to the main clause.

3.4.3 Noun Clauses:-

A dependent clause that functions like a noun phrase, i.e., they function as a subject, object or complement.

Task:- Identify the noun-clauses in the sentences from the following extract *from (Alan Ayckbourn's A Small Family Business)*. What are their function - subject, object or complement? [One has been done for you.].

i) I don't know *what he is supposed to have done*.(**noun clause as object**)

ii) So. That is what's gong to happen.

iii) Are you saying I steal things?

iv) Anybody here object to killing people?

v) She does what she likes, I do what I like.

vi) All I did was stand up to blackmail.

vii) What I'm saying is we're trying to keep this in the family.

viii) I'll see what he wants.

ix) Listen, I don't know what you think you're doing.

3.4.4 Reported Speech:-

Two kinds of noun clauses - that -clause and wh-clause are often used to report what someone is saying or has said.

- Bebeto said (that) he liked your speech.
- Won't you tell me where you're going?

Task:- Identify the reporting clauses in the following extract. What, do you think, were the actual words spoken? How are the reporting clauses affected by the reporting verb? What would happen if the reporting verbs were in the past (Charles said ….) ?

Extracts of Charles and Di's ding-dong involves a potentially embarrassing squabble over the custody of their children.

On the transcript Charles says he's Doing nothing but think of Di and the children ever since their troubles started.

Di replies that she doesn't believe that and tells him to stop being so self-centred …..

Their conversation reveals that Charles was determined to have the children with him at Sandringham over Christmas.

Charles says three days are hardly a lifetime.

Diana asks him exactly what he means by three days.

Di asks him if he has considered the implications of a custody battle over the children.

Charles tells her not to be silly and that he hasn't.

Di warns him that this is what would happen and that the boys would suffer...

Activity - 5 :-

Here is an activity designed to practice reported speech. How language-productive do you think it might be?

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Work in pair:-                                  │
│                                                  │
│  Student A :  Think of something that you feel   │
│               strongly about (.. every mother    │
│               is a working mother ..)            │
│  Student B :  Report what student A said ( Sima  │
│               said that every mother was a work- │
│               ing mother…)                       │
│                                                  │
│                                                  │
│  Change role when you have done it.              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

3.4.5 Adverbial Clause:-

These supply circumstantial information about time, place, manner, purpose etc. They can be finite or non-finite. They are traditionally classified according to their meaning --- time, place, condition, purpose etc.
- I listened in the morning *when I was going*. [time]
- I'll shout if *I need you*. [condition]
- John's coming home to run the business.[purpose]

Task:-

I] *Look at these examples of students' writing. Each example contains a problem with adverbial clauses. Can you identify the type of adverbial clauses? Correct the error and provide the explanation of the rule that has been broken.*
1. When I'll come back, I'll phone you to go out.
2. He' from New Jersey but he went to Chicago for look for a job.
3. In spite of you're lass free I'm more interested in a cars than in a motorbikes.
4. All the sky over Tibidabo was really lighted, like if they will be stars.
5. If you would have worked more hard you would have passed the exam.
II] You should now be able to analyze these sentences into their clauses, and the clauses into their respective clause elements. The first one has been done for you.
a) I didn't know before I came
Ans:- *main clause : I didn't know*
      dependent adverbial clause of time : before I came.
      subject : I
      verb : didn't know

conjunction : before
subject(dependent clause) : I
verb(dependent clause) : came

b) I listened to the song in the morning when I was jogging.

c) I'll shout if I need you.

d) I'm at Des's so I won't talk for long.

e) They say this is what happens.

3.5 ❑ Let's sum up :-

In this unit we have looked at word as a grammatical unit and its semantic counterpart—lexeme in terms of its meaning bearing potential. The way a word 'acquires' or 'exudes' grammar was also dealt with briefly under 'word grammar' We have examined the basic sentence pattern in English, its various types and constituents. We have also studied the criteria by which we can identify parts of sentences like subject, object and so on. We have distinguished between compound sentences and complex sentences with subordination.

3.6 ❑ Bibliography :-

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Unit 4 ❑ Noun Phrase

Structure

4.0 ❑ Introduction :-

We shall, in this unit, study the noun phrase in English. I believe, you can remember the definition the Noun Phrase (NP) which has been given in the previous unit. We have designed the present unit with its functional and formal characteristics and various types of components that constitute an NP. Our discussion also include the other two prominent features of NP, number and gender. By the end of this unit, I hope, you will be able to analyze the structure of the NP with regard to all sort of modifiers.

4.1 ❑ The basic noun phrase :-

When we analyze a sentence, we, at first break it in to small phrases, like noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase and so on. Let us analyze the following sentence:

An exquisitely beautiful thrush was singing melodiously on a slender branch.

This sentence consists of a noun phrase (*An exquisitely beautiful thrush*), a verbal (*was singing*), an adverb phrase (*melodiously*), and a prepositional phrase (*on a slender branch*). The noun phrase includes an adjective phrase (*An exquisitely beautiful*) and the prepositional phrase includes an NP (*a slender branch*). After identifying this formal labels we can further assign the functional labels like subject, object etc. Thus, in the mentioned sentence the NP is functioning as subject, the prepositional phrase is functioning as an adjunct and so on.

4.1.1 Function and form of noun phrase:- An NP can take various types of function. It may function as **subject, object** (**direct** and **indirect** both), **a complement** (both **subject** and **object**), or **an adjunct**.

From the discussion above do the task, given below:-

Task:- Identify the proper functions of the following NPs from the italicized expressions:-

1. Harun wrote a book with *an interesting title*.
2. Lit the *sparkle of wisdom in your mind*.
3. Harun gave *his readers* some innovative thoughts.
4. Harun is a *magician-turned-writer*.
5. His innovative thoughts in the book highlighted Harun *a great literary figure*.
6. Sarine gave me Harun's book *last month*.

We have listed the functions of noun phrase. Now I'd like to give you the concept of the various forms of an NP. Each NP has a noun as head and it may or may not have a pre-modifier and/or a post-modifier.

From the discussion above, do the task, given below:-

Task:- Identify the examples of pre- and post- modifiers in the text that follows.

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Filling a gap in an existing team isn't just a case of finding someone with the correct skills and experience. So, before we send anyone for a job we check they'll fit it. Carlyle Parts, who amongst other things, replace damaged coach windscreens, discovered this recently. They hadn't been able to find anyone suitable for their vacancies. But we did. The people we found were offered to Carlyle Parts on a work trial. Within days they had taken them on permanently. ………….. We'll also find the people you need. Whatever the job. Give your local jobcentre a call. They'll give you all the help you need.

4.1.2 Pre-modifiers:-

Participants! By this time you have gathered a fair concept of pre-modifier from the preceding part of this unit. Now we are proceeding to systematically list the pre-modifiers. A noun in an NP which is preceded by the following items: ***determiner, ordinal, quantifier, classifier*** and ***adjective phrases***.
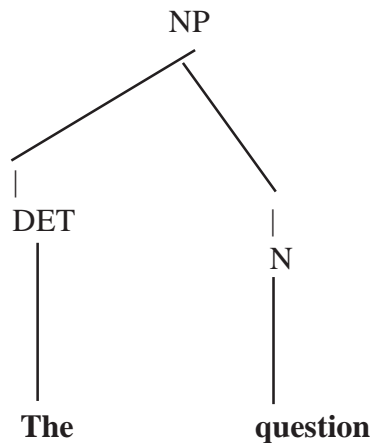
4.1.2.1 Determiners:- Determiners are words that indicate the kind of reference a noun phrase has. They include articles(definite and indefinite), possessive pronouns, genitive possessives attached to noun or NP ('s), relative words (*whose, which*), negatives (*no*), interrogatives (*what, which, whose*) and so on.

Now with this idea try to solve the following tasks:-

Task - 1:- There are eight different determiners in the following text. Underline them.

Wayne and Shirley Dwyer snapped up a bargain Nikon camera in the duty free shop at Charles de Gaulle airport in Paris in the last summer. The couple were off to Berlin a few weeks later, and were still on the first roll of film when the camera broke, which meant missed photo opportunities in Berlin. They contacted the Nikon UK to find out what their rights were under the guarantee. Nikon agreed to look at the camera, and to repair any fault free of charge, but when the camera was returned, it was still faulty. In the end Nikon did replace the camera, as a gesture of goodwill - but they were under no obligation to do so.

Now consider the following sentence. How can you analyze with tree structure?

The question he asked was so easy

The tree diagram of the NP (italics in the sentence):-

```
                    NP
                   /  \
                  /    \
                 |      |
                DET     N
                 |      |
                 |      |
                The   question
```
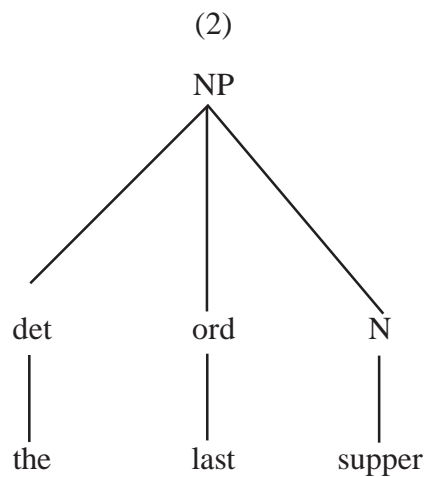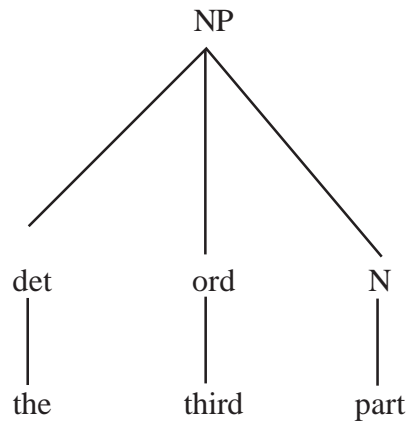
Task - 2:- Analyze the following NPs using the tree diagram.:-

1. *The earth* is globular in shape.
2. Do you have *an eraser*?
3. Have you got *a pen*?
4. *Whose wood* is it ?
5. It is *my ignorance* that has brought about this misfortune.
6. *Which Minister* did the court indict?
7. I want *this bag*.
8. I want *some sugar* please.
9. *Each person* can do it as per his ability.
10. *Every Indian* knows the fact.

4.1.2.2 Ordinals:- The next in order after the determiner in an NP are ordinals. Eg.- *first, second, third*…and also general ordinals like, next, past, other, last and so on.
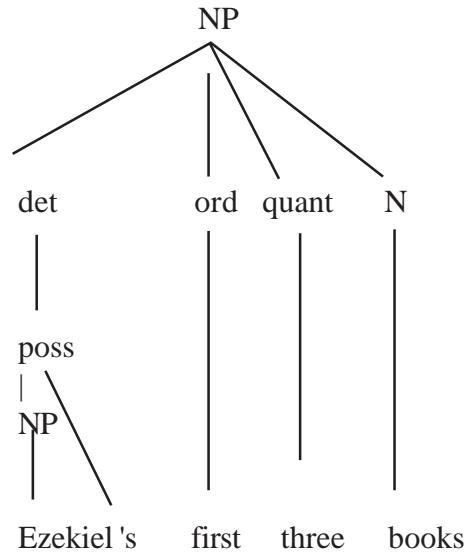
Consider the following NPs and their tree structures:-

1. The third part   (1)

2. The last supper.

NP
```
        NP
       /|\
      / | \
     /  |  \
   det ord  N
    |   |   |
   the third part
```

(2)
```
        NP
       /|\
      / | \
     /  |  \
   det ord  N
    |   |   |
   the last supper
```

4.1.2.3 Quantifier:-

It includes i) numbers (one, two, three, four ……..), ii) amount indicating words (many, much, few, several, little, large). When both ordinal and cardinal(quantifier) occur in the NP along with a determiner, the order should be like, determiner first, ordinal second and cardinal third. Let's analyze the following sentence with tree-diagram:-

Ezekiel's first three books

```
                              NP
              /               |    \      \
           det              ord  quant    N
            |                |      |      |
          poss               |      |      |
            |                 |      |      |
           NP  \              |      |      |
            |    \            |      |      |
        Ezekiel 's         first  three  books
```

4.1.2.4 Adjective phrase:- An adjective phrase consists of an adjective and an intensifier (traditionally adverb). Let's consider the following sentence.

          Pramod Dasgupta was *an absolutely honest politician.*

Now we can show the NP (italics in the sentence) through a diagram:-

```
                         NP
               /          |        \
             det       adj. ph.     N
              |          /  \        |
            poss        /    \       |
              |        /      \      |
             NP       /        \     |
              |      /          \    |
              N    int         adj   |
              |     |           |    |
             An  absolutely  honest  politician
```

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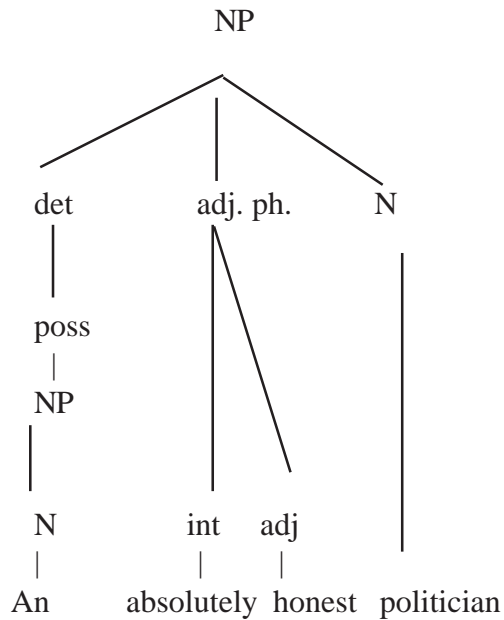
Task:- Now analyze the following NPs with tree diagrams:-

1. tedious lessons
2. a pious rogue
3. a lot of ripe apples.
4. the first golden rule.
5. five exciting matches.
6. a beautiful blue sari.
7. a meritorious student.
8. a nice black wooden cottage.
9. a truly remarkable incident
10. an absolutely unbelievable story.

4.1.2.5 Classifiers:-

It refers to a noun or adjective or a clause which classifies the referent as part of a group or sub group. Ex.:-

i) a commerce student.

ii) the green-house effect.

iii) UGC Pay Scales Implementation Issue.

iv) a come-hither look.

v) The career advancement scheme.

Can you identify the various types of intensifiers. Point out each one clearly.
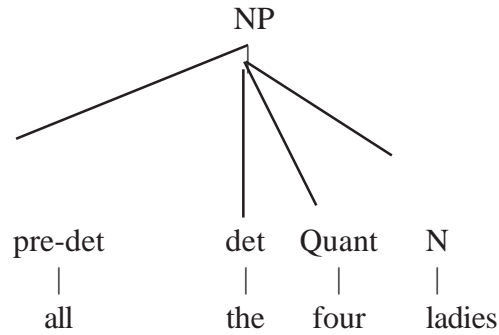
4.1.2.6 Pre-determiner:-

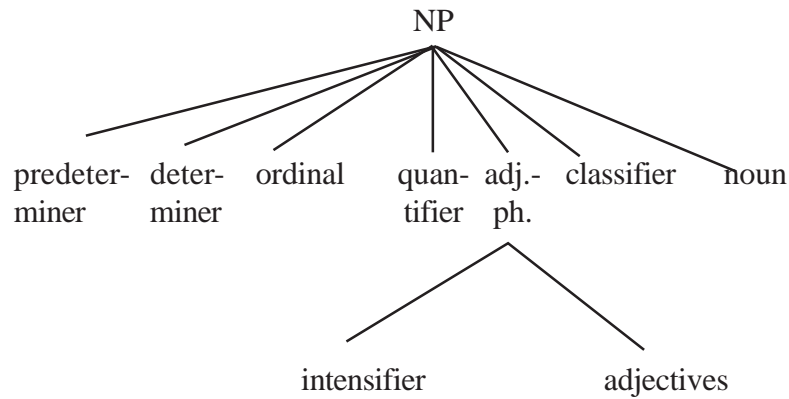Consider the italics in the following phrases:-

1. *all* the four ladies.
2. *many of* your problems.
3. *both* the children
4. *half* the time.
5. *such* a pain!

All the italicized words/expressions precede the determiners and some times function like quantifiers [q. no. 2 and 4]. These particles are called Pre-determiners.

Eg.-

```
                                    NP
                        ┌───────────┼──┬───┐
                     pre-det       det Quant N
                        │           │   │   │
                       all         the four ladies
```

Now we can represent an NP with a tree diagram like:-

```
                              NP
         ┌────────┬───────┬────┼────┬──────────┬──────┐
     predeter- deter-  ordinal quan- adj.-  classifier noun
     miner     miner           tifier ph.
                                     ┌─┴──┐
                               intensifier  adjectives
```

Task:- *Analyze the structure of the following NPs drawing tree diagrams:-*

1. Reader's digest.
2. The Sharjah Cup cricket.
3. An extremely embarrassing question.
4. A very large slice of bread.
5. An outrageously worded statement.
6. Many of the world's famous sportsmen.
7. All those utterly fruitless afternoon meetings.
8. A never-to-be forgotten experience.
9. Next week's examination.
10. Very few of the post-graduate students.

4.2 ❑ **Number**

English language has a two-term contrast as the basis of its number: singular (denoting 'one') and plural (denoting 'more than one'). Number in English is basically a property of nouns but it also affects the subject-verb agreement. We have the clear classification of numbers in English,

I] Singular in variable nouns = a category that includes non-count common and proper nouns (generally occur in singular). Eg.- *gold, zink, Lenin, music.*

II] Plural invariable nouns = these nouns occur only in the plurals. It also includes some proper nouns. Eg.- *cattle, scissors, trousers, the Himalayas* etc. Sometimes it includes NPs with adjective heads. Eg.- *the downtrodden.*

III] Variable nouns = nouns occurring with either singular or plural number:
The village is   or the villages are. There are, again, two sub-classes:-
a) Nouns with regular plurals:-
      Bat - bats, lad-lads, bus - buses
b) Noun with the irregular plurals:-
 i) voicing and -s plural   ***leaf - leaves***
ii) mutation plural   ***foot - feet***
iii) -en plural   ***ox - oxen, child - children***
iv) zero plural   ***sheep - sheep.***
v) foreign plural   ***phenomenon - phenomena***

Dear Participants! Hope, by this time, you have a fair knowledge regarding the number. So, it's high time to check up to what extent you have achieved proficiency in it.

Task - 1 :-

Say whether the following nouns are singular or plural. If singular give its plural form (if it is acceptable) and vice versa:-

audience, stationery, news, measles, luggage, data, innings, offspring, archives, arms, customs, humanities, Chinese, the impossible, the downtrodden.

Task - 2 :-
Give the plural forms of the following nouns:-
crisis, p (meaning page), MS (meaning 'manuscript'), tableau, chassis, grown-up, man-of-war, brother-in-law, mouthful, woman-hater, stigma, index.

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4.3 ❏ Gender :-

Gender is the system of marking words as being **masculine** or **feminine** or **neuter**. Unlike other languages, in English gender is notional, i.e. it affects only nouns and their co-referential pronouns. For example, nouns which refer to male human beings serve as antecedents for the pronouns, he, him, his and himself and in case of female, they are she, her, herself and in case of animals it, itself, its etc.

We can divide English nouns into four categories on the basis of gender distinctions:-

a) Morphologically not related :-
father - mother, husband - wife, son - daughter   nephew - niece

b) Morphologically related :-
god - goddess, steward - stewardess ,   waiter - waitress

c) Personal dual gender having male-female both:-
artist, friend, cook, sender, performer, teacher, writer etc.
(for example, the artist ended *his/her* programme.)

d) Nouns that can both be personal and non-personal, are common gender nouns.
A child first recognizes his/her/its mother first.

4.4 ❏ Let's sum up :-

We began this unit by listing the functions of the noun phrase (NP). We outlined the structure of the NP and then proceeded to the detailed discussion of the pre-modifiers in an NP. We also discussed, though in a nut shell, number and gender system in English language.

4.5 ❏ Bibliography :-

Quirk, Randolph, et al. 1985. A *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman.

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Unit 5 ❑ Verbs And Auxiliaries
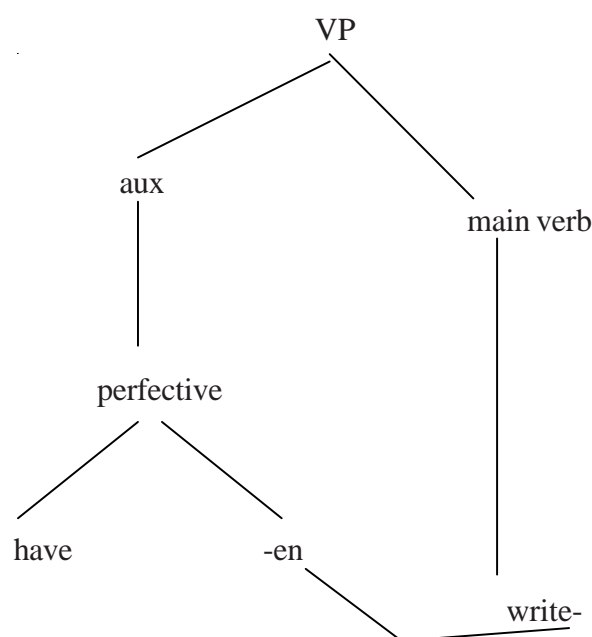
Structure

5.0 ❑ Introduction :-

In the first half of this unit we will take a close look at main verbs and auxiliaries. We will be particularly concerned with the structure of the verbal element of the sentence. In the second half we will take a look at the semantics of the verbal element— like tense. While tense as an obligatory part of a finite verbal aspect is optional, the interplay of tense and aspect gives us different types of verbals.

5.1 ❑ Main verbs and auxiliaries :-

Auxiliaries are actually the 'helping verbs' which are always followed by the main verb. While auxiliaries function an operator, the main verbs never do so.

5.1.1 Function of auxiliaries:- As you know, modals are not the only verbs which function as auxiliaries. The perfective verb *have* (other forms - *has* or *had*) also functions as auxiliaries.
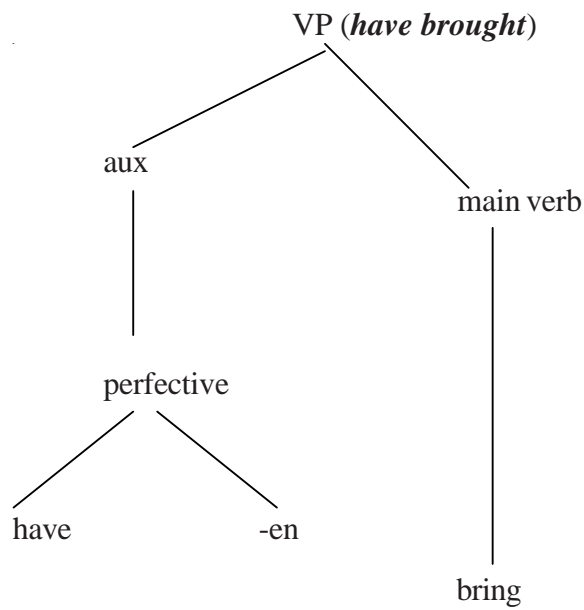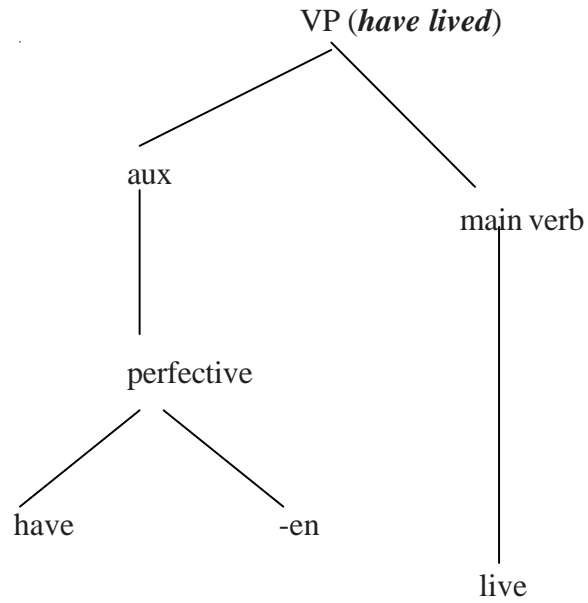
They have written few essays. Here *have* is performing the role of an operator. When the perfective aspect occurs the verb following it, occurs in the participle *-en* form. Thus *-en* have has done, had gone, have seen and so on. Let us analyze the verb phrase(VP) of the sentence mentioned above:

```
                        VP
                       /  \
                      /    \
                  aux      \
                    |        main verb
                    |            |
                    |            |
              perfective         |
                  /  \           |
                 /    \          |
             have    -en         |
                        \        |
                         \    write-
```

So we can say *-en* moves and is added to main verb. The participle *-en* is not always realized as *-en.* It is realized differently with different verbs. Thus we have:- *live* + *-en* = *lived, drink* + *-en* = *drunk, cut* + *-en* = *cut*. So whether the verb phrase is have done, have sent or have proved perfective auxiliary can be represented by *have* and -en. Now let's analyze the following VPs with tree diagram:-

i) have lived

ii) have brought

VP (***have lived***)

- aux
  - perfective
    - have
    - -en
- main verb
  - live

VP (***have brought***)

- aux
  - perfective
    - have
    - -en
- main verb
  - bring

Now let's consider the progressive aspect as represented by ***be*** and ***-ing***. You already know that be is represented by am, is, are, was, and were depending on the number, the person of the subject and tense of the verbal. Consider the following sentence where ***be***-verb plays the role of an operator.

Tom is playing a guitar .

We should, therefore, treat the progressive aspect to be a part of auxiliary. The diagrammatical representation of the sentence is:-

VP (is playing)

aux

main verb

progressive

be   -ing
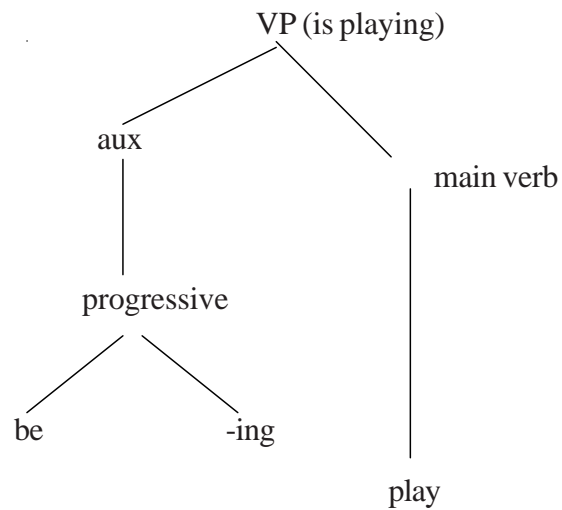
play

Like the perfective, here also the -ing participle of the progressive aspect is attached to the following verb. This is how we get *is **playing.***
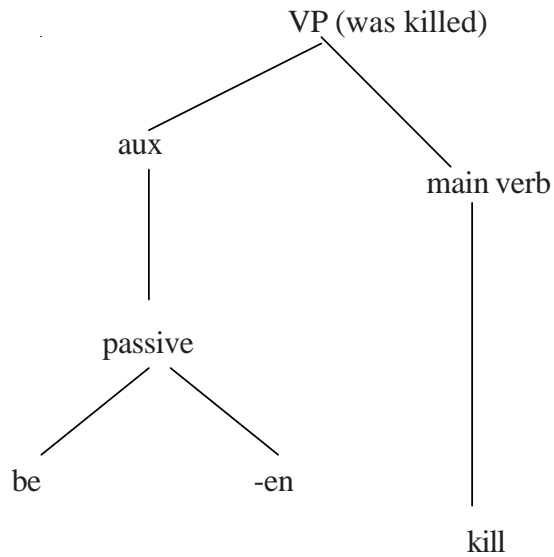
The diagrammatic representation is :-

VP

aux

main verb

progressive

be   -ing

play-
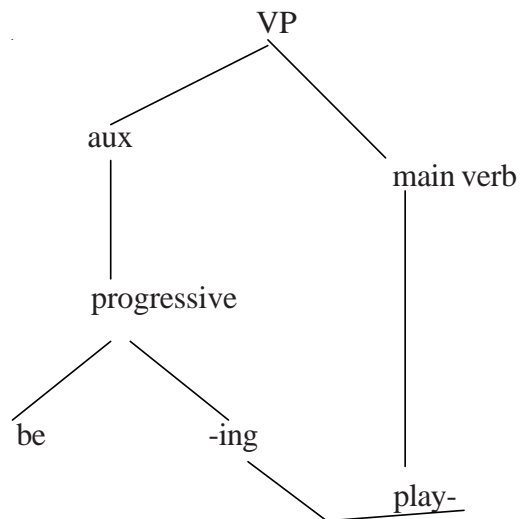
Next we consider the passive voice. The passive is represented by be + -en. Consider the following sentence.
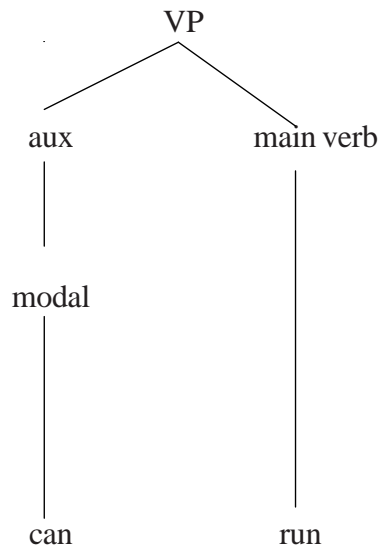
Ravana was killed by Rama

Here be-verb is the operator and the passive form is also a part of auxiliary. Let's see the diagram:-

```
                    VP (was killed)
                   /             \
                 aux           main verb
                  |               |
               passive           kill
                /    \
              be     -en
```

Our final consideration is the modal. Let's consider the following sentence:-

Ranu can run so speedily.

The verb phrase consists of a modal auxiliary ***can*** and main verb ***run***. . Let's see the diagram:-

```
              VP
             /   \
           aux   main verb
            |       |
          modal    run
            |
           can
```

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Task:- Draw tree diagrams of the verbal element of the following sentences:-

1. Prof. Banerjee has been teaching grammar for the last three years.

2. One of my friends has written an interesting grammar book.

3. His book has been used all over the country.

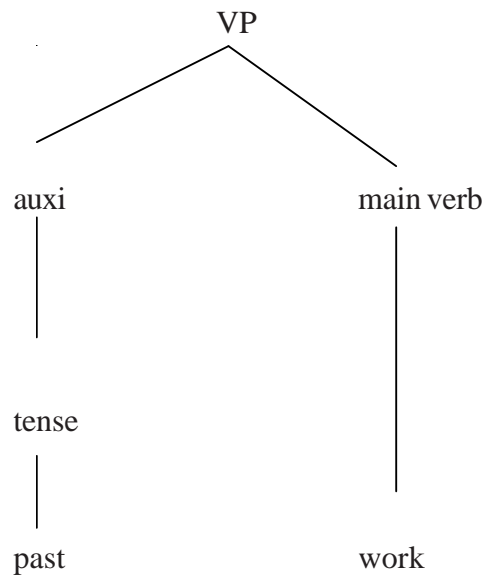4. He may again write a few more books.

5.1.2 Realization of tense:-

We find that English verbs have only two tense forms: past and present. For example, *go* and *went, write* and *wrote, see* and *saw* and so on. The auxiliary verbs have also these two tense forms : *will, would; can, could; may, might; have, had; is, was; are, were.* Another interesting fact is that although past tense in a large number of cases refers to an event that happened in the past and present tense to an event that is happening now, this is not always so. For example let's consider the following two sentences:-

> *1. She will write a letter tomorrow.*
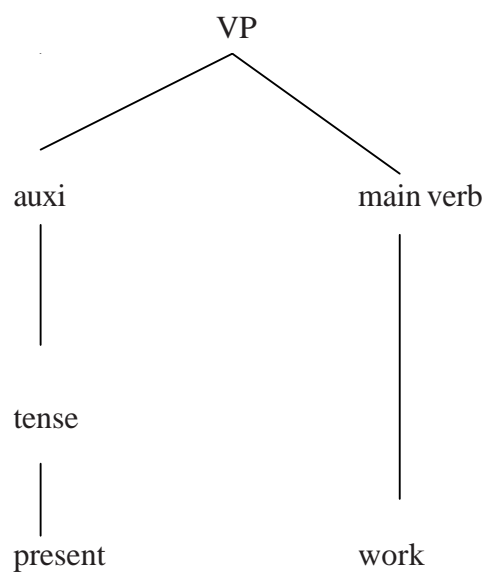> *2. The MD is leaving for Boston tomorrow.*

In sentence-2 the auxiliary *is* is in present tense but the sentence is about an event that will happen in future. Similarly, will in the sentence-1 is in present tense but refers to future time. In English, we do not have one-to-one correspondence between tense and time. So we need to separate tense from time. When we talk about tense, we talk only about the form of the verb. While we talk about the meaning of verb when we talk about time. When there is the auxiliary in the verbal element, tense is market in it (eg.- He *has* gone to Puri or I *could* reach my destination in time). But if there is no auxiliary in the finite clause, tense is marked on the main verb (They *left* the village before sun-rise, or I go to my institution every Thursday.). Let us represent the following sentences diagram-matically :-

i)   Ramu works from 3 to 11.

ii) Yesterday we worked from 3 to 11.

iii) Today we are working from 9 to 5.

i)

```
                          VP
                     /          \
                  auxi          main verb
                    |               |
                    |               |
                  tense             |
                    |               |
                  past            work
```

ii)

```
                          VP
                     /          \
                  auxi          main verb
                    |               |
                    |               |
                  tense             |
                    |               |
                 present          work
```

iii

```
                              VP
                         /          \
                     auxi          main verb
                      /  \             |
                     /    \            |
                   tense  prog         |
                    |     /  \         |
                    |    /    \        |
                   past  be   -ing   work
```

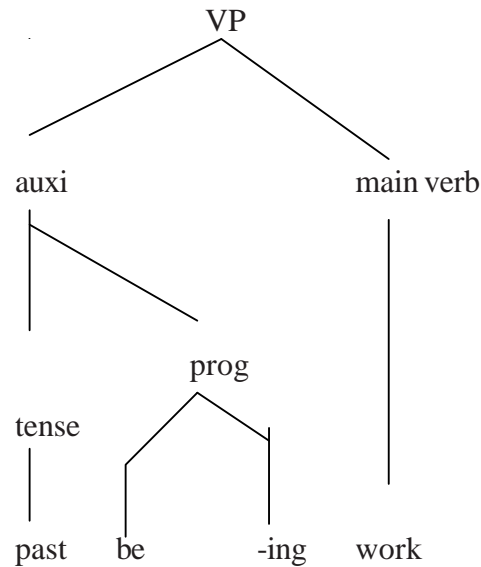## *Task :- Give tree diagrams of the following VPs:-*

1. Holders of complementary tickets will not have to be kept waiting.

2. The main force of the enemy seemed to be withdrawing.

3. People from all parts of the country were expected to attend the funeral.

4. Those interested ought not to attend the meeting.

5. We were looking forward to the party so eagerly.

6. He arranged with John for Mary to come at once.

7. He was reminded of the agreement.

8. Good use has been made of the house.

9. The building was not being built at that time.

10. The army was strongly opposed to the new system.

11. All countries might soon be clamouring for such a leader.

12. Workers will have to fight for their right.

13. Let's do it then.

14. Don't get involved in it.

5.2 ❑ Tense :-

Tense is an obligatory part of a finite verbal. It refers to the fact that a finite verbal has to be either in the present or in the past tense. On the other hand, a verbal may or may not have aspect, i.e., aspect is optional. The interplay of tense and aspect gives us different types of verbals.

Now let's consider the following sentences:-

1. *She teaches grammar [Simple present].*
2. *She taught grammar [Simple past].*
3. *She has taught grammar [Present perfect].*
4. *She had taught grammar [Past perfect].*
5. *She is teaching grammar [Present progressive]*
6. *She was teaching grammar[Past progressive].*
7. *She has been teaching grammar [Present perfect progressive]*
8. *She had been teaching grammar [Past perfect progressive]*

Before we discuss different types of verbals it is better to differentiate between *stative* and *dynamic meaning*. By the stative meaning we refer to any uninterrupted, continuous state of affairs while by the term dynamic meaning we refer to a series or a number of events.

9. The Government has that policy for ages.

10. The Government has confronted the Opposition for several times with the IT issue.

While sentence (9) illustrates stative meaning, sentence (10) illustrates dynamic as it is possible to say the Government has confronted the Opposition several times.

5.2.1 Simple present:-

When verb refers to (with stative meaning) the current state or (with dynamic meaning) current habit or event, we call it Present tense. Eg:-

i) **Kolkata is India's cultural Capital (state).**

ii) **She walks to school everyday (habit).**

iii) **Barato passes the ball to Doglus (event).**

Sometimes the simple present is used to describe the past or future time. Eg.-

iv) *Chaucer is a master of gentle satire [ref. of past]*

v) *The flight for Heathrow is taking off at around 5 in the evening [ref.of future time].*

5.2.2 Present perfect and simple past:-

Participants! Could you please look up page 21 where there is a letter from David who is informing Lucy and Fred regarding the birth of their girl-child.

Before that frame the following questions:-

1. Who has arrived?   *2. When was it born?*   *3. Was it a boy or girl?*

4. What have David and Theresa called the baby?

5. Was it their first issue?   *6. How was Theresa?*

Now write down the answers you got on a piece of paper and check the verbals . (Two sample answers are given:-

4. David and Theresa have called the baby Francis.

6. Theresa was wonderful.

What tense can you find here?

Answer is obvious - either present perfect or simple past.

Note:-

We use *present perfect* tense to talk about recent events. It is often used for announcing news of something that has happened recently. We use it when we are not interested to know/express the when of action. Eg:- **i) Sara has got engage. ii) There has been a plane crash at Heathrow airport**. But on the other hand, when we talk about something that has already happened along with the when of action we call it *simple past*.
In the present perfect, if we want to focus on what has happened rather than on who has done the action we often use the **passive voice.** Eg:- *i). A thief has been arrested[by the police]. ii) A new motor way has been built.*

Activity - 1:- Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of verbs in the box. Choose between simple past and present perfect.:-

He	make
Decide	offer
find	
	tell
go	
show	

a) Actress Lana Bernstein and her fourth husband _____ to separate after only two months of their marriage. They _____reporters yesterday that they both needed more time to follow their own career.

b) Great news! Nina _____ a job at last. She _____ for an interview last week, and _____ her the job straight away. It's only four days a week, but the pay's good. And we _____ someone to look after he children, too.

c) I'm having a great time since I came to Barcelona. I _____ lots of new friends. I _____ out almost every night. Some friends of mine _____ me round the town too, so I _____ most of the sights already.

5.2.3 Past perfect:-

Activity:- Read the following extract of the text and put the corresponding number in the blank provided.:-

Flashbacks

1) Sophie wandered aimlessly from room to room. The flat, 2) felt empty, too big for the person. 3) She wondered. 4) There was a heavy silence everywhere. She could not even put any music on. 5) She made herself a cup of coffee and 6) sat at the kitchen table at a note with its familiar handwriting 7) *C/o Ewa Gradowska, ul. Smolna 30 m 21, oo-837 Warsaw*, she read. No telephone no. She wondered who Ewa Gradowska was. 8) Not that it mattered really. There would be no emergency, she was sure of that. 'Just in case

there's an. _____   which had once seemed
    emergency   so small   _____

Had he known her for a long time?   Why had she let
 Years perhaps?   _____   him leave so easily _____

Or had they only just made _____ He'd taken the cassette player.
           She'd agreed to that   _____

He had left his address   Why hadn't she
In case she neeeded to get in touch. _____   asked him _____

Note :- Past perfect tense is used to describe the past in past.

Activity - 1:- Now again look at the extracts of flashback and fill in the blanks below:-

At the top of the hill he stopped his car and looked down at the village where ……….
He saw the grey houses, the church, the park and the old school house. Where ……………
It was all exactly as he remembered it : the smoke rifting up from the paper factory; the old garage which had only a petrol pump; the hotel with its bright yellow walls. And there, in the distance, was the old farm. With a grin, he remembered the day, twenty years before, when ……………
          He drove down to the hotel and went into the bar to get some lunch. He sat at the table by the window, where ………. . Where was she now, he wondered. Was she living here? Or …………………?

Activity - 1:- Read the descriptions below and say what the guests had done or had not done:-

As soon as I got home, I realized that it was a great mistake for me to let them use my flat.

- All the lights were on.
- The front door was open.
- There was no-one in the flat.
- There were cigarette burns in the carpet.

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- There were piles of dirty dishes everywhere.

- There was no food in the fridge.

- The plants were all dead.

5.2.4 Perfect progressive:-

Look at the following sentences and find what is common (in sense) in all of them:-

1. The woman has not been sleeping well.

2. The man has been trying to find a job.

3. The woman has not been working very hard.

4. The man has been sitting around and doing nothing.

5. They haven't been getting on well for some time.

Participants! I hope you can perceive the common factors. Actually these sentences highlight the Present Perfect Progressive tense.

Note :- We always use the Present Perfect Progressive Tense to talk about the recent activities. It answers the question 'How have you been spending your time'.eg.-
a) I have been writing letters. b) I have not been working very hard. Like Present Perfect this tense never uses any past time expressions, but we can use for it expressions such as recently, this week, over the last few days. Eg.-
a) I have been writing lots of stories recently.
b) I have not been working hard over the last few days.

Forms of the Present Perfect Progressive tense:-

I've S/he's	been working hard.
Have you Has s/he	been working hard ?

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Activity:- Recent activities and actions:-

Some people have assembled in a place. They are busy in some activities.
Now tell:
What have these people been doing? Add one more thing that each person has/hasn't done yet:- One example is given.
I've planted some vegetables and I've cut the grass.
1. She has been working in the field.
2. She hasn't watered the plants yet.

a) *We've done some jigsaw puzzles and painted some pictures but we haven't been to the playground yet.*

b) *I've washed the vegetables and put the meat on the table.*

c) *I've bought some paper hats but I haven't ordered the cake yet.*

d) *We haven't been to the Buckingham palace yet, but we have been to all the museums.*

e) *I've paid the electricity bill and the rent.*

5.2.5 Present and past progressive:-

Study the following sets of sentences:-

1. Bulu raises his hands.   2. Benu played ludo.

1a) Bulu is raising his hand.   2a) Benu was playing ludo.

In both the sets (present and past respectively) sentence 1), present simple and sentence 2), simple past suggest the prompt and instantaneous action but 1a) and 2a) suggest slow movement and some duration. They are present progressive and past progressive tense.

Activity:- Look at the sentences and convert each to present and past progressive tense. You can use expressions indicating a span of time like, a few minutes ago, at present and so on. One is done for you:-
    Kurchi jumps on the yard
Kurchi is jumping on the yard.
Yesterday Kurchi was jumping on the yard.
1. Noa nods her face annoyed at his comment.
2. Jayamma lives in Chennai.
3. He winks at her.

4. She cooks our lunch everyday.
5. Do you hear me clearly?
6. She always thinks for him.
7. She is imagining things.
8. He feels awkward.
9. I smell the perfume.
10. The cottage falls down in the storm.

5.3 ❑ Let's sum up :-

In this unit we have talked about the verbal element of a sentence. We saw that the finite verbals always had auxiliary nodes and the auxiliary always had a tense node. In addition, the auxiliary may have modals, perfective, passive and progressive. We also saw what an operator is and how an operator functions. Finally we saw the semantics of the tense system. We saw how this system interacts with verbs conveying different types of meaning.

5.4 ❑ Bibliography

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Unit 6 ❑ Teaching Implications

Structure

6.0 Introduction

6.1 The teaching of grammar

6.2 Consciousness-Raising

    6.2.1 C-R as an aid to learning

    6.2.2 The rationale for Consciousness-Raising

6.3 Methodology

6.4 Underlying Principles of Teaching Grammar

6.5 Developing Grammar Through Language Skills

6.6 Overt and Covert Grammar Teaching and Writing

6.7 Let's sum up

6.8 Bibliography

6.0 ❑ Introduction :-

Participants! By this time you have been introduced to various concepts and operations of grammar of English language. In your first unit you have gathered a fair knowledge of different types of grammar, for example, implicit and explicit grammar, prescriptive and descriptive grammar or linguists' grammar, teachers' grammar and learners' grammar. So it can be assumed that through this unit you have got a fair knowledge of what grammar is. But the theoretical knowledge of grammar and its teaching are not the same. Until and unless the theoretical knowledge can be applied in the teaching, until and unless this concept gets practical exposure, it has no implication. This unit has been designed to discuss the purposes and function as well as the principles and methodology of teaching grammar.

6.1 ❑ The teaching of grammar :-

The teaching of any language, no doubt, involves the teaching of its grammar. The history of language teaching will show, however, that grammar is a term that has been understood and defined differently over time resulting in teaching methodologies that range from the teaching of rules as an end in itself to the opposite extreme position (held, for example, by many CLT adherents) of no grammar teaching at all. The CLT position on grammar is expressed in Newmark's comment :

"The teaching of grammar is neither necessary nor sufficient for learning a second language. That it is not sufficient is proved by the second language learners' lack of success."(1971)

Today, Language Awareness (LA) studies advocate the conscious awareness of and sensitivity to the grammar of language and its role in human life. LA studies recognize the importance of the mother tongue, and its influence on the learning of a second language.

But how can you define grammar? I hope you remember, that you came across the range of meaning of grammar as given by McArthur, in the activity part of section 1.1 of the unit - 1. Do you remember? He also defined grammar. According to him(1883:38) " 'grammar' is not a precise term, in the way that 'phonology' or 'anatomy' or 'sodium chloride' may be considered precise terms … . It behaves pretty much like the majority of words in a language; it has a core of generally agreed meaning, but is fuzzy around the edges". It refers to the fact that the term 'grammar' can have several interpretations. Think of all the meanings the term 'grammar' has. Vygotsky(1972), the famous psychologist and the founder of the 'theory of proximity' in the field of applied language has posited the interesting hypothesis that learning grammar and mathematics is really very important for the mental growth of a child. The ancient Greeks and Romans too considered learning grammar a source of disciplining the mind. Therefore, teaching grammar means an awareness of rules and their use.

Activity - 1:-

Participants! Now look back section 1.2 of unit - 1 and tell me which type of grammar do you prefer as a learner of English? Which one would you like to prefer for your students?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Discussion:-

You are expected to record your personal experience, both as a teacher and a student. You can think of your deficiencies also. On the other hand, you should point out differences in exploitation and dealing with grammar between you and a native speaker of English.

6.2 ❑ Consciousness-Raising :-

There is a general consensus among the learning theorists, educational psychologists and language professionals that the learning of anything does not occur in a vacuum. That is, successful learning of whatever kind comes about only when what is to be learned can be meaningfully related to something that is already known. Learning, in other words, must take place within some kind of familiar context or framework. Naturally a question rises, which one is the ideal 'framework'-and one familiar to the learner - we might identify for the learning of second-language grammar. If we interpret 'familiar to the learner' in the broadest possible sense, then certainly we must include here what every language learner knows unconsciously - namely, the language universals.

Some teachers are very much emphatic about one thing: not even the best version of **Grammar-B** can really ensure that the student learns **Grammar-A**. The answer is to provide more and more practice, without wasting time over formalizations.

But it is very unrealistic to hope that the Indian learners can get enough practice in the use of English **Grammar-A** to be able to absorb it, as a native speaker does. There is not enough English around us for this to happen.

The teacher will have to compensate for the lack of available practice, and provide a short-cut to the learning process. This is where an insightful process can help. This is called the ***Grammatical Consciousness-Raising***.

To quote Rutherford:

In what way, we are entitled to ask, would grammatical consciousness-raising (C-R) fit into this roughly drawn, very general picture of language learning? We must, first, narrow the scope of enquiry a bit by asking exactly what it is that grammatical C-R is expected to accomplish. The unstated assumption of many language- teaching professionals, past and present, has long been that an essential part of language teaching is 'the teaching of grammar' (include in what we here refer to in more general terms as 'grammatical consciousness-raising'). A look at what has been written over the years on he subject tells us that this assumption usually has two parts to it:

1. A belief that a language is built up out of sets of discrete entities and that language learning consists of the steady accumulation of such entities by the learner.

2. A belief that the essential characteristics of the entities (e.g. the 'rules', for their information) can be directly imparted to the learners through teaching.

Grammar teaching, then, for those who hold these beliefs, is looked upon as a sort of channel for direct passage to the learners' competence of the discrete formal entities (and the simplified 'rules' that make these up) in the language s/he is trying to learn.

6.2.1 C-R as an aid to learning :-

First of all it would be rather, well to say that theories of grammar, though highly important to language pedagogy for other reasons, are not theories of language acquisition, after all, that grammatical C-R must be made to serve. Once we become accustomed to seeing grammatical theory in this light, light is shed on the sensible role of grammatical C-R in pedagogy. The object of grammatical focus there, as one well known researcher, S. P. Corder, has put it, is 'to help the learner learn whatever it is he learns, but are not necessarily what he learns. Pedagogical descriptions are aids to learning, not the object of learning; so long as we keep that firmly in our minds we shall not get confused by the ambiguity of the expression "teaching grammar" …(Corder:1973)

6.2.2 The rationale for Consciousness-Raising:-

Though all the language-teaching professionals do not believe in the importance of grammatical consciousness-raising in the classroom teaching or even some researchers never admit its place or utility in pedagogy, yet identification and availability of the proper inputs are still not enough for the grammar-centred curriculum as we envisage it here. One must be concerned with the choice of pedagogical instruments by which the data in question may be absorbed by the learners. And this instrument directly refers to the raising of the learners' consciousness or 'modes of operation'. Here and there we have cited particular examples of such instruments (for example, scrambled sentences, connecting lines for referential relations, propositional clusters, etc), but we want to take note of their broader characteristics.

The handiest form of reference for the concept of the instruments of C-R derives from what would have to be their two extremes; natural appearance of a grammatical phenomenon in 'authentic' text on the one hand, and context — less explicit formulation, on the other. Somewhere in between these extreme poles, would occur C-R in which the grammatical phenomenon would simply be highlighted or otherwise given prominence of some kind, the learner is expected to do no more than merely notice. In addition to the selection of the appropriate C-R instrument, one must also make decisions as to the proper intensity of exposure, i.e., how much attention, and for how long? There is a limit, however, to what may be specified in advance of the actual learning experience and the question we have just raised has as much to do with methodology and curriculum (the distinction between the two not being a sharp one). We will, therefore, offer a few comments here on methodology as it relates to a grammar- centred curriculum.

6.3 ❑ Methodology :-

Though it may seem paradoxical, what is to be taught in the name of grammar centred approach we have been discussing, is not grammar at all. If the learner is actually 'taught' anything, we would have to say that he is taught 'how to learn' or better still, 'how to manage his own learning' (Allwright: 1984). Target-language grammar enters the learner's experience not as an objectified body of alien knowledge to be mastered or as obstacles to be overcome. It does so as a network of systems in which the learner is enmeshed already, the full grammatical implications of which he alone has to work out on the basis of what he comes in contact with the interaction with what he himself contributes as an already accomplished language acquirer. Methodologically speaking, grammar in this sense is not so much 'in command of learning' as it is 'in the service of learning'. .

Several other methodological conclusions follow from the pedagogical role we have chosen for grammar. Since no attempt is being made to force classroom learning procedures into 'lockstep' pattern, there should be no barrier to learners developing at a pace consistent with their own predilections for hypothesizing, projecting, generalizing, and reanalyzing. One beneficial consistency of this is that if each learner follows his own individual learning schedule, learning has a little chance of being competitive. To the extent that learners often learn from each other as much as from their teacher, learning will in fact be co-operative.

Review Question - 1 :-

A. What is the distinction between the rule-based teaching of grammar and Consciousness - rising ?

6.4 ❑ Underlying Principles of Teaching Grammar :-

Today, most of the principles of teaching grammar are derived from the CLT methodologies. We are teaching grammar for communication.

1. The first general principle for an effective methodology is that grammar teaching should be done in context and in relation to language skills. It is the usage and analysis of texts (i.e., while reading, writing, listening and speaking) through which grammatical forms can be developed. A variety of contexts presents a wide spectrum of meanings and structures.

2. An analysis of contextualized grammatical use can be described as an inductive form of teaching, with a chronology like, examples/practice → rules. The emphasis on rules depends, of course, on the communicative needs of learners as well as on your perception of what language learning is. It is useful for the learners to know about the basic terms or grammatical items like *verb, noun* etc. The opposite method, i.e. rules → examples will happen only if our objectives are to learn the forms of the language first rather than communication through a particular language. But in today's scenario this cannot be our primary objective; it was relevant when the Grammar-Translation method was used for teaching language , especially the classical languages like Sanskrit, Latin, Greek and so on.

3. While teaching language the focus should be on meaning rather than on forms primarily. If meaning is interesting and continues to be so, it is, no doubt, possible to start an acquisition of a grammar, similar to Grammar-A. This automatic learning could be unconscious in nature.

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A corollary to this is that the conscious learning of rules, learnt contextually with a secondary emphasis, will also take place. This is the most common type of grammar intake that we have with the learning of grammar of a second language and is useful for, what Krashen (1981) calls, the monitoring of language. A knowledge of rules helps the second language learners as a device for self-correction.

4. What is being referred to here is the accuracy factor in language use, which is discussed in CLT. The opposite end of this dichotomy is the fluency factor which as per CLT methodology, is to be promoted before accuracy can be demanded. If accuracy occurs in the initial stages of the development of an L2 or indeed in the development of any kind of writing and speaking activity, the chances are that language will not develop and that the student might even not be motivated to use the language at all.

Review Question - 2 :-

What are the principles of teaching grammar ?

6.5 ❑ Developing Grammar Through Language Skills :-

This section mainly discusses how grammar can be developed through the practice of the language skills.

Activity:-

How can grammar be developed in functional way through language? Give your ideas in the space provided below:-

Reading : _____

             _____

             _____

Writing : _____

             _____

             _____

Speaking : _____

             _____

Listening : _____

_____

_____

Discussion:-

Reading : While reading, the students can be asked to do tasks and answer questions in context. They can be asked to analyze language forms.

Writing : Writing is an activity where much time can be spent on real-life, contextualized grammar learning particularly since writing does give time for the editing of texts.

Listening : Listening can be insisted on to encourage the analysis of grammar in context. Tenses can be examined, for example, to see how meanings change. Reported speech could be used for giving and taking messages, etc.

Speaking : Speaking always encourages self-monitoring. However, unlike writing, speaking skill demands quick monitoring. There is very little time for thinking about the rules of grammar. That is why the notion of fluency is particularly relevant here.

Review Question - 3:-

What skill is the best for promoting teaching and learning of grammar?

Overt and Covert Grammar Teaching and Writing:-

Editing, in the process of writing, is the last stage which involves checking grammar, spelling and pronunciation. This stage focusses on the accuracy of language. Focusing on the accuracy stage of reformulating texts and discourse is very important while writing. H.N.L. Sastri [1987] gives us a practical approach of grammar teaching:

After deciding in which part of the grammar s/he wishes to teach, in advance, the teacher should select passages from the text which can be analyzed to illustrate certain grammatical principles. And generally it is based on the known deficiencies of student as revealed by the error analysis. The problems are various like:-

i) Over-use of the present progressive tense, even in those cases where simple present would be more appropriate. It may be due to mother tongue interference or bad teaching.

ii) Confusion between simple present and present perfect or simple past and past perfect.

iii) Confusion between different form of expressing futurity. (shall/will/ going to etc.).

The students do not need any exhaustive description of tense system of English: they need to know only the relevant facts to help remove the confusions they might have. Grammatical explanation should be accompanied by illustrations from contextualized text. Teacher must choose such a passage which bear the contrastive analysis of, for example simple-past and present perfect, present simple and present progressive.

Grammatical pattern should be introduced, if possible, in contrast with other patterns, rather than in isolation. After circulating the text, the teacher, for taking attempt for the comprehension, should insist up on careful reading on the students' behalf: in this respect the grammar lesson is no different from any other. The teacher then draws attention to each pattern that s/he has already selected, explaining the principles involved, in the technical language. Mother tongue can be sometimes used to clarify some concepts but that should be strictly limited for teachers' use not by the students. After the grammatical principles are explained and illustrated, the learning must be reinforced through exercises. Then the students may be invited to construct a passage, similar to the ones used for the explanation of grammar. Finally, the lesson should be recapitulated for the main grammatical points.   .

6.7 ❑ Let's sum up :-

This unit looked at the basic issues of teaching grammar. It discussed the principles of teaching grammar as well as procedures that could be applied in the classroom. The review of some issues that have been discussed in this unit is given below:-

- Grammar A constitutes an intuitive knowledge of the language. It is the total mechanism which a language possesses and through it you can communicate to each other. You 'know' the rules because you use them - but you may not be able to describe the rules or pass an examination set on the rules of the language. Each language possesses a distinctive Grammar A, peculiar to itself although

some linguists maintain that though all Gls are different from one another they have an universal grammar or commonality between them.

- Grammar B is the grammar of linguists, which is the scientific study of languages. Such a grammar is based on the descriptions of languages that arise from a large data base or the corpus of languages. This kind of grammar can be described as knowledge about the language.

➢ The principles of teaching grammar are :-

➢ Teaching in context and consciousness raising

➢ Inductive teaching

➢ Meaning focussed teaching

➢ Fluency to be followed by accuracy.

- Perhaps writing is the best skill for promoting the learning of grammatical forms There is enough time here for the writer/learner to monitor his/her knowledge of the grammar of the language being used. Writing also involves the coherence and cohesion of paragraphs which means that any grammar teaching is necessarily related to the context which is here the learner's own and therefore highly relevant. This is then related to learners' needs.

- Which grammar is the most appropriate for the classroom?

- Most often we are exposed in the formal grammar context, but our aim should be to refer to this in a communicative way so that our students are able to master forms in a way that is closely similar to the acquisition of Grammar A by the native speakers.

- The demonstration of the grammaring skill enables the learners to learn. It is the conception of 'skill' in relation to 'language learning' that is most compatible with a truly serious approach to grammatical consciousness-raising. Therefore, it is not that learning grammar helps a student to demonstrate his skill but it is through exploitation of a skill that one learns grammar.

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Note

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