

A COURSE BOOK IN PHONETICS AND ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

A Text Book

Prescribed by

Swami Ramanand TeerthMarathwada University, Nanded

Under

Choice Based Credit System (CBCS)

For

Post graduate studies in English (MA)

2019-20

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English Vowels and Consonants

English Vowels (20) and English Consonants (24)

A) Pure vowels : (12)

Symbols	Examples
/i:/	seat /si:t/
/ɪ/	sit /sɪt/
/e/	set /set/
/æ/	sat /sæt/
/ɑ:/	cart /kɑ:t/
/ɒ/	cot /kɒt/
/ɔ:/	court /kɔ:t/
/u/	full /ful/
/ʌ/	shut /ʃʌt/
/ɜ:/	shirt /ʃɜ:t/
/ə/	about /əbaʊt/
/u:/	fool /fu:l/

B) Diphthongs: (08)

Symbols	Examples
/eɪ/	gate /geɪt/
/aɪ/	five /faɪv/
/ɔɪ/	boy /bɔɪ/
/əʊ/	go /gəʊ/
/aʊ/	how /haʊ/
/eə/	hair /heə/
/ʊə/	poor /pʊə/
/ɪə/	here /hɪə/

C) English Consonants (24)

Consonants are further classed into seven categories. They are as follows.

1. Plosives : (06)

/p/	Pin	/pɪn/
/b/	bin	/bɪn/
/t/	tin	/tɪn/
/d/	din	/dɪn/
/k/	cap	/kæp/
/g/	gap	/gæp/

2. Affricates : (02)

/tʃ/	church	/tʃɜ:tʃ/
/dʒ/	judge	/dʒʌdʒ/

3. **Fricatives** : (09)

/f/	fan	/fæn/
/v/	van	/væn/
/θ/	thin	/θɪn/
/ð/	this	/ðɪs/
/s/	same	/seɪm/
/z/	zoo	/zu:/
/ʃ/	shame	/ʃeɪm/
/ʒ/	pleasure	/pleʒə/
/h/	height	/haɪt/

4. **Nasals** : (03)

/m/	might	/maɪt/
/n/	night	/naɪt/
/ŋ/	sing	/sɪŋ/

5. **Lateral** : (01)

/l/	light	/laɪt/
-----	-------	--------

6. **Frictionless Continuant** : (01)

/r/	right	/raɪt/
-----	-------	--------

7. **Semi Vowels** : (02)

/j/	yes	/jes/
/w/	wet	/wet/

Unit I: Introduction to linguistics

1.0 Introduction

English is the native language and is spoken as the first language in United Kingdom, United States of America, Australia, Canada and New Zealand across the world. English is a non-native language of Asia and Africa and hence is spoken as second language, their respective native languages being their first language. In a country like India, where there are 22 native languages recognized by the Government and Hindi written in the Devanagari script as the official languages of the country, along with English as the co-official language, English language is a second or third language as according to the state policy. By second or third language, it is meant that English is learnt as compulsory subject at school and college level. In countries like Russia, China, Japan and Korea, English is a foreign language learnt by the people who require the use of it according to their career prospects. By foreign language, it is understood as the language learnt if required, not as a compulsory subject in the education system. A second language is one which is used for various purposes within the country while a foreign language is used for international purposes.

Learning a language essentially means to master the four basic skills of it-Listening (L), Speaking (S), Reading (R) and Writing (W), which all together enables the learner to communicate better. Whereas learning the first language or the native language, which is also called as the mother tongue (ML) is very natural for a child following the same order of L, S, R, and W to master it; learning a second language poses to be artificial and unnatural as it follows the order of R and W, followed by L and then very less emphasis given to S. Over the years, across the world much research went into second language acquisition processes, proposing modern approaches, methods and techniques to make the learning of second language as acquisition, but with varying success rates.

Language essentially is spoken and the child acquires the mother tongue with a constant exposure to the language and ample practice. But in a second language situation, especially in learning a language like English, neither exposure nor practice is sufficiently provided to make the child master the language. Moreover, when the child acquires the first language, only one language is learnt but when it learns the second language, it has already learnt its mother tongue and hence the rules interfere, thus making the second language learning a bit more difficult.

This course book on **Phonetics & English Phonology** aims at developing the Listening and Speaking skills with a greater care and practice. It is an established fact that the more careful one listens, the better one speaks. A deaf person obviously is dumb as well; because if one does not listen to the correct type of expressions, it becomes difficult to pick them up. Every language selects its sounds and the script to represent the sounds. For example, Hindi has 15 vowels and 36 consonant letters which make a total of 51 letters. The pronunciation of each letter is unique which is learnt as the vowel-consonant combination and once mastered; the language can be read, written and spoken with no difficulty. It is so for any Sanskrit derived Indian languages like Marathi, Telugu, Bengali, Gujarati etc.

But English is not such a language and there is no one-to-one correspondence between letters and sounds, and hence it is even more essential to learn pronunciation. Look at the following examples.

The letter 'c' in the word- 'cake' is pronounced as /k/; cease is pronounced as /s/; church is pronounced as /tʃ/. The vowel 'u' in the word – put, tub and universe has different pronunciations. This is applied to all the English letters. The spelling and pronunciation parity is missing in English and this aspect adds to difficulty of a second language learner.

Another difficulty is the type of dialect to be selected to learn the language. Dialect is the geographical variation of a language that one observes within the same language. As one observes a Konkani dialect, Vaidarbhi dialect, Marathwadi dialect, Puneri dialect in Marathi Language with respect to the corresponding regions in Maharashtra, similarly, British English, American English, Australian English are the broad distinctions in English language; together with the British variety of Scottish dialect, Irish dialect, Welsh dialect, educated England dialect and uneducated England dialect. Each dialect has difference in pronunciation, accent, intonation, vocabulary and sometimes syntactic expression of the same language. The model for the non-native situation is chosen as the **Received Pronunciation** (R.P.) from the South-east England as the model for historical reasons.

Teaching of English pronunciation is essential in the second language situation and hence, pronunciation details and practice have been incorporated in the text books of local medium schools of Maharashtra, right from the first standard onwards for developing better English speaking in the country.

1.1 Definition of Language

Language is a system that is special only to the human beings and it consists of the development, acquisition, maintenance and use of complex systems of communication. Language is a method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way. The English word *language* derives 13th century French *langage* which is from the Latin *lingua*, 'language; tongue', though the etymology goes back to Proto-Indo-European expression *dnghu* meaning 'tongue'. Humboldt considers language to be very essential as he says, "Man is man through the use of language alone."

Edward Sapir (1921) defines language as, "language is purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced sounds".

According to Charles Francis Hockett (1958), "Language is the most valuable single possession of the human race."

Oxford Advanced Learning Dictionary, (1989) defines language as a "System of sounds, words, patterns etc. used by humans to communicate thoughts and feelings".

Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) insisted on the systematic nature of language and says that a 'language is a system of systems' and adds "language is a structure, a functioning whole in which the different parts are determined by one another".

Lewis Thomas considers language to be a gift and says, 'the gift of language is the single human trait that marks us all genetically, setting us apart from the rest of life.'

Hence language is a system of communication, a medium for thought, a vehicle for literary expression, and in fact language is in and around man, whether awake or dreaming.

1.2 Origin of Language

Language primarily is spoken, not written. No one knows exactly how languages have originated. Some chief theories regarding the origin of language are as following. Some believe that there is a divine source that provided humans with language. While some proclaim that the earliest speech was produced by man's attempt to imitate some characteristic sound of the creature or the object to which he was referring. There are a few who argue that a natural rhythmical relation exists between music in nature and man's natural response to it.

Charles Darwin, in his *Descent of Man* (1871) proposed that like man himself, language also developed from a more primitive form, probably from the expression of emotional interjections evoked by pain, surprise, pleasure, wonder etc. Wilhelm Wundt and later re-started by Sir Richard Paget in his book *Human Speech* suggested the gesture theory. Signs and gestures made with the hands are the earliest method of communication. The sounds accompanied by gestures are poised in due course of time and thus man passed from sign language to spoken language.

Even though these are some explanations to the origin of language, none in itself is really satisfactory and complete. Perhaps each theory is correct up to a certain point and the puzzle as to how language began is still a million dollar question. Many philosophers, thinkers of the past thought about the origin of language. Thinkers such as Rousseau have argued that language originated from emotions while others like Kant have held that it originated from rational and logical thought.

“Continuity theories” built on the idea that language exhibits so much complexity that one cannot imagine it simply appearing from nothing in its final form; therefore it must have evolved from earlier pre-linguistic systems among the primate ancestors. **“Discontinuity theories”** take the opposite approach—that language is a unique trait which cannot be compared to anything found among non-humans, must have appeared fairly suddenly during the course of human evolution. Some theories see language mostly as an **innate faculty**—largely genetically encoded. Other theories regard language as a mainly **cultural system**—learned through social interaction.https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Noam_Chomsky Noam Chomsky, a prominent proponent of discontinuity theory, argues that a single chance mutation occurred in one individual in the order of 100,000 years ago, installing the language faculty (a component of the mid-brain) in "perfect" or "near-perfect" form.

Whatever the reasons are for the origin of any language, language must have evolved because humans needed it for various purposes like the following.

- To convey emotions and feelings.
- To express one's ideas and thoughts.
- To ask questions.
- To give factual information.
- To convey commands
- To put up requests.
- For aesthetic reasons like poetry.
- To establish intra personal and interpersonal relations.
- To maintain social contacts on a friendly level.
- To relieve nervous tension.
- To sell your ideas.

1.3 A Short History of English Language

Languages which show some common features and some shared properties are said to belong to 'one family'. These similarities might be because they must have descended from the common parent i.e., at some point of time, there was a language spoken at a given geographical area, which over a period of time fragmented into a number of sibling varieties; with the passage of time, these sibling varieties became sufficiently different from each other to be considered as separate languages. For example: the **Indo-Aryan Language family** of the great Northern plains in India gradually bifurcated into Hindi, Marathi, Punjabi, Bengali, and Gujarati. Similarly, **the Dravidian language family** bifurcated into Telugu, Tamil, Kannada and Malayalam.

The Indo-Aryan family shows similarity with the **Indo Iranian Family** which in turn was a member of **Indo-European family**. Indo-European is the ancestor of very large number of languages spoken in Asia and Europe today. **Semitic** (Hebrew, Arabic among others), **Hemitic** (Berber languages of North Africa), **Indo-Chinese** (Chinese, Japanese, etc), **American Indian** (Languages of Americas and Mexico) and many more are some of the language families analysed so far.

Though the European visitors to the Indian subcontinent began to notice similarities among Indo-Aryan, Iranian, and European languages as early as 16 century, the hypothesis reappeared in 1786 when **Sir William Jones** first lectured on the striking similarities among three of the oldest languages known in his time: Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, to which he tentatively added Gothic, Celtic, and Persian; followed by **Franz Bopp** in 1816 who wrote *On the conjugational system of the Sanskrit language compared with that of Greek, Latin, Persian and Germanic* and between 1833 and 1852 wrote *Comparative Grammar* that marks the beginning of Indo-European studies as an academic discipline.

Indo-European languages are believed to derive from a hypothetical language known as **Proto-Indo-European**, which is no longer spoken. It is highly probable that the earliest speakers of this language originally lived around Ukraine and neighbouring regions in the Caucasus and Southern Russia, then spread to most of the rest of Europe and later down into **India**. The earliest possible end of Proto-Indo-European linguistic unity is believed to be around 3400 BCE. The Indo-European languages have a large number of branches: Anatolian, Indo-Iranian, Greek, Italic, Celtic, Germanic, Armenian, Tocharian, Balto-Slavic and Albanian.

The shared Characteristics of the Eurasian languages could be as understood accordingly. The Proto-Indo-European was an inflected language, in which the grammatical relationships between words were signalled through inflectional morphemes (usually endings). Similarities in grammatical endings, obvious and state-able phonetic rules could be the possible reasons for the thinking of this common parental ancestry. There could have had a consonantal shift from Proto-Indo-European to Sanskrit-Greek-Latin-German-Celtic- English to form the Eurasian languages. As an example, in English, one of the Germanic languages, the following are some of the major changes that happened:

1. The plosives sounds reduced gradually from twenty sounds of Proto-Indo-European to fifteen and then to twelve and to six as in English.
2. The verb inflection system became simplified-many distinctions of tense and aspect was lost. A simpler verb conjugation with only two tenses (one to express past and one to express present and future) including a two-fold classification of strong (irregular) and weak verbs (regular verbs) evolved.

3. Declensions of adjectives became weak (Modern English has lost all the declensions of the adjective) with a two classification of weak (predicative) and strong (attributive) adjectives.
4. In Indo-European, any syllable of a word could be stressed; in Germanic, the first syllable came regularly stressed; followed by specific rules for stress in English and French. This fixed word accent gradually lead to drop the unstressed vowels and the consequent weakening of the inflectional endings.
5. **The Great Vowel Shift:** The change of pronunciation in the vowels in the first phase and the pronunciation of long vowels as the diphthongs in the second phase marked a tremendous vowel shift

First Phase of Great Vowel Shift		
Word	Vowel Pronunciation	
	1400	1550
Bite	/i:/	/ei/
Meet	/e:/	/i:/
Out	/u:/	/ou/
Boot	/o:/	/u:/

Second Phase of Great Vowel Shift			
Word	Vowel Pronunciation		
	1400	1550	1640
Meet	/ε:/	/ε:/	/e:/
Mate	/a:/	/a:/, /æ:/	/ε:/
Boat	/ɔ:/	/ɔ:/	/o:/

6. **The great consonantal change:** As in the other Germanic languages, the Germanic sound shift changed the realization of all stop consonants, with each consonant shifting to a different one:

$b^h \rightarrow b \rightarrow p \rightarrow f$

$d^h \rightarrow d \rightarrow t \rightarrow \theta$

$g^h \rightarrow g \rightarrow k \rightarrow x$ (Later initial $x \rightarrow h$)

$g^{wh} \rightarrow g^w \rightarrow k^w \rightarrow x^w$ (Later initial $x^w \rightarrow h^w$)

Each original consonant shifted one position to the right. For example, original d^h became d , while original d became t and original t became θ (written *th* in English). This is the original source of the English sounds written *f*, *th*, *h* and *wh*. Examples, comparing English with Latin, where the sounds largely remain unshifted:

For PIE *p*: *piscis* vs. *fish*; *pēs*, *pēdis* vs. *foot*; *pluvium* "rain" vs. *flow*; *pater* vs. *father*

For PIE *t*: *trēs* vs. *three*; *māter* vs. *mother*

For PIE *d*: *decem* vs. *ten*; *pēdis* vs. *foot*; *quid* vs. *what*

For PIE *k*: *centum* vs. *hund(red)*; *capere* "to take" vs. *have*

For PIE *k^w*: *quid* vs. *what*; *quandō* vs. *when*

7. Various further changes affected consonants in the middle or end of a word:
 - The voiced stops resulting from the sound shift were softened to voiced fricatives (or perhaps the sound shift directly generated fricatives in these positions).
 - **Verner's law** also turned some of the voiceless fricatives resulting from the sound shift into voiced fricatives or stops. This is why the *t* in Latin *centum* ends up as *d* in *hund(red)* rather than the expected *th*.

- Most remaining *h* sounds disappeared, while remaining *f* and *th* became voiced. For example, Latin *decem* ends up as *ten* with no *h* in the middle (but note *taihun* "ten" in Gothic, an archaic Germanic language). Similarly, the words *seven* and *have* have a voiced *v* (compare Latin *septem*, *capere*), while *father* and *mother* have a voiced *th*, although not spelled differently (compare Latin *pater*, *māter*).
-

1.3.1 The English Language

England was called as **Britain** as it was occupied by the Britons, a Celtic race till around 450 AD. The English language today has resulted from a fusion of the Germanic dialects spoken by three tribes who came to Britannia. It was invaded by the German tribes of **Angels, Saxons and Jutes** and mixed the Germanic language into the Celtic. The name England and English came into existence because of the domination of Angels, who started calling the land as Angla-land, which slowly became England; their language was known to Angla-language, that slowly became English. The second invasion was by the **Latin and Greek** languages when St. Augustine and his followers converted England to Christianity. The language was subtly enriched by the **Danes** and finally transformed by the **French-speaking Normans** (966 AD).

In the 1500 years of its existence, English has developed continuously. In this development, it is possible to see three main periods. It is only a matter of convenience to make such a distinction with certain characteristic features and the three periods are:

Old English 450-1100

Middle English 1100-1500

Modern English 1500-the present

- i. **Old English(450-1100):** This period marks the Germanic invasion of the Britons. The period had four dialects-Northumbrian, Merican, West-Saxon and Kentish, of which the West-Saxon dialect gradually gained its prominence. Grammatically, Old English is a synthetic language with more inflections for nouns, verbs and adjectives. Vocabulary wise, the word formation was by using prefixes and suffixes. A large number of self-explaining compound words featured in the old English vocabulary. The Old English period was a multi-lingual period with Celtic, Germanic, Greek, Latin, Danish and Scandinavian influences. The Old English literature, though poor, flourished with the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle in Prose and a few anonymous and fragmented war and sea poems like *Beowulf*, *Wanderer*, *Seafarer*, *The Ruin*. Most of the literature had Christian themes. Language wise, the Old English was essentially assimilative and accommodative.
- ii. **Middle English(1100-1500):** This period marks the French invasion into the Anglo-Saxon Britain. This is the period of levelled inflections. It is in fact a period in which changes occurred in every aspect of the language. The most important reason for the change is the conquest of England by the French, known familiarly as the **Norman Conquest**. Normans were from Normandy, which is in the north of France, right across the English Channel. With William the conqueror becoming the king of England, the entire English nobility is replaced with French language and culture. Only gradually, with the loss of Normandy, the process of rehabilitation of English began in the forth-coming centuries. In October 1362, the British Parliament first opened with English and the proceedings went on in English. Though French remained as the language

of prestige as far as 1731, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, people were bilingual with French as the official language and English as the language of the lower ranks. However, English reasserted itself in the fourteenth century with **The Hundred Year's war** that made the French as the enemy to the English. The commercial middle class of the fifteenth century along with the scanty surviving poor class from **The Black Death** increased the economic importance of the labouring class and with it the importance of the English language which they spoke rose in England. In the Fifteenth century, French became the language of culture and fashion, and English became the language of literature and expression in England. **Geoffrey Chaucer** (1350-1400) as **the Father of English Literature** came out with the *Canterbury Tales*, *Troilus and Criseyde* as the finest English expressions. **William Langland's** (1362-87) *Piers Plowman* and **John Wycliff's** translation of the Bible into English enriched the English language with vocabulary and expressions. Prose writers like **Malory, Lydgate** and **Caxton** ripened the language to the finest expression of the Elizabethan writers like **Shakespeare** and **Milton** who are on the threshold of the modern period.

- iii. **Modern English(1500- till date):** Standardisation is the key for the Modern English. Grammatically English settled down as an analytical language. In the hands of **Shakespeare, Milton, Dr. Johnson** and others, it was perfected as a fit medium for both prose and poetry. Spelling reforms were undertaken, dictionaries were composed, and English was transplanted in other lands giving rise to non-native varieties of English. **Renaissance** was the first great change making event in this period; the second was **industrial revolution**; the third was **migration** to and settlement in USA, Australia, Canada and New Zealand; the fourth was the **Scientific progress**; the fifth was the **imperial colonization** of Asia and African lands- all these added to the growth of the English language across the globe in the modern age. One of the most important aspects of English becoming a global language is its ability to adopt and adapt new vocabulary items from all the languages of its contact across the world.

Thus is the brief history of English language. Externally, the history is a record of political, social and economic events that befall the speakers of a language and internally, the effect of those events on the sounds, the vocabulary and the structure of that language.

1.4 Communication

Communication is the process of sharing information, ideas, concepts and messages between two or more persons. Communication is a two-way process, which begins in the minds of the person who are communicating. This desire in the mind of the communicator is communicated to the other using the medium of speech. It is here that a fairly good knowledge of language helps the communicator express himself /herself. But there is no limit to the number of media that can be used for communication. E.g. use of audio-visual aids, Internet call-center etc. Man has been using language as a tool of communication for centuries. Language has enabled man to interact with the environment and to regulate his/her social behavior. Though there are a number of other means of communication, language is the most sophisticated system of symbols.

1.4.1 Definition of Communication

The term communication has been defined differently by different people.

Communication is the activity or process of expressing ideas and feelings or of giving people information. *Oxford advanced learner's Dictionary*.

Communication is the act of exchanging information and communicates means to exchange ideas. *Webster's Dictionary*.

Communication is a process of passing information and understanding from one person to another. *Keith Davis*.

Communication is the process by which information is passed between individuals and/or organizations by means of previously agreed symbols. *Peter Little*.

Communication is the intercourse by words, letters or messages, the intercourse of thought or opinions. It is the act of making one's ideas and opinions known to other. *F.G. Mayer*

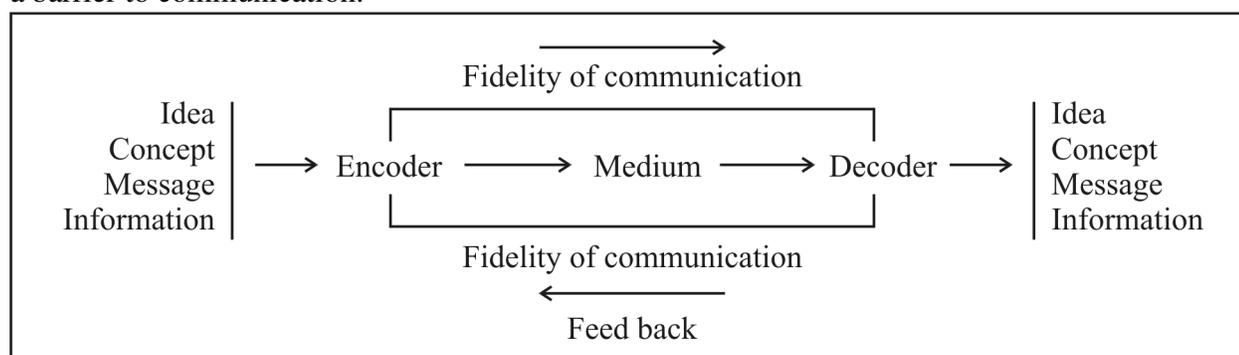
Communication is a process which involves the transmission and accurate replication of ideas ensured by feedback. For the purpose of eliciting actions, this will accomplish organizational goals. *William Scott*

Communication is any behavior that results in an exchange of meaning.

The American Management Association.

David Berlo in his book *The Process of Communication* explains the process of communication as following.

An idea, concept, message or some information is encoded by the encoder (the sender of the message) using a medium, which can be understood by the decoder (the receiver of the message) who in turn processes it in his mind and responds to it. If the decoder understands the message completely, fidelity of communication is said to be 100 percent. Anything that obstructs communication is said to be a barrier to communication.



Communication is a two-way process, initiated by the encoder and this elicits a response or reaction from the decoder depending on how well he/she has understood the communication or how interested she/he is in it. This response or reaction is also known as feedback. Feedback need not be in the form of words; it could be with gestures, claps, facial expressions etc. Communication is thus a network of interaction and naturally the sender and the receiver keep on changing their roles.

1.4.2 Animal and Human Communication

It is said that animals have a communication system as opposed to human beings who have language. We had a detailed discussion as to what language is in the earlier part of this unit and established the fact that language is a special gift to human beings. The logical question is therefore to differentiate between human language and the communication system of animals. First let us see as to what the communication system of animals is.

Man is the only living species with the power of speech and no other living species can be performed to have had the power at some earlier time and to have lost it since. The appearance of language in the universe—at least on our planet—is thus exactly as recent as the appearance of man himself. Although *Homo sapiens* are the only living species with the power of speech, man is by no

means the only animal which carries on communication of some sort. The examples of non-human animal communication are as following.

- i) **Bees:** When a worker bee finds a source of nectar, it returns to the hive and performs a dance. It has been shown that certain features of the dance transmit to the other workers information about the location of the source of nectar. One feature specifies the direction of the source from the hive and another feature specifies its distance. The semantic conventions of the system are built into the bee by its genes and do not have to be learnt or taught. But bees cannot communicate about anything else except nectar.
- ii) **The court ship behavior of a type of fish known as the Three Spined Stickle Back:** Both in natural environment and aquaria, during the breeding season, the male fish builds a nest on the floor of ocean, river or aquarium, swims upwards, locates the spices of female whose abdomen is distended with eggs and performs a zigzag dance around her, turning the spine towards her here and there. The reaction of the female is to follow the male, who then leads her to the nest. The behavior is undeniably communicative under any reasonable definition.
- iii) **The pattern of caring for the young manifested by Herring Gulls, a kind of bird:** Soon after the eggs have hatched, the brooding parent rises and the lets the chick up. They begin to beg for the food by aiming pecking motions at the parents' bill. The parent responds by giving a bit of hay digested food (regurgitating), taking a piece of it between the bill tips, and offering it to the chicks. There is also some learning by the chicks—nest building, and caring of the young ones.
- iv) **The calls of Gibbons:** Gibbons stimulate each other's in various ways, like—posturing and gesturing, but the most *language like* of their communication is their system of calls. They have at least nine different calls, differing from each other in sound and there by in consequences. This differentiation may rest entirely on genetics but it is also possible that this might be due to cultural transmission.
- v) **The bird songs:** Especially of nightingale or cuckoo is seen only sung by the male birds to attract the female birds during mating season. Similarly is the dance of a peacock. Apart from these animals expressing themselves, there are other means of communication as well—
 - i) The telegraphic messages with dot and dash.
 - ii) The computer language with a binary code.
 - iii) The traffic signals with
 - Red light—to stop
 - Orange----- to start
 - Green----- to goThe road signboards also may be regarded as means of communication.

But of all these means of communication, it is the human language that has achieved perfection to communicate all the emotions, thoughts and feelings.

1.4.3 Characteristics of Human Language

One of the best ways to understand human language is, to try and understand its characteristics. Language, according to the linguists, is a special gift to human beings. Only human beings have the power of speech. Hocket (1955) has listed the following characteristic features of human languages.

1. **Duality of structure or patterning:** Human language displays two levels of patterning: (a) where meaningless units (i.e. phonemes) are combined to form arbitrary signs (i.e. words) and (b) these signs in turn are recombined to form new meaningful larger units (i.e. sentences). In other words

in languages investigated so far two levels of structures are found: primary level—compounding of sounds into words—and secondary level—compounding of words into sentences.

Level I	S+P+O+T = SPOT
(Compounding of sounds or phonemes)	T+O+P+S = TOPS O+P+T+S = OPTS
Level II	spot+the+topd+of+the+pots=
(Compounding of words)	spot the tops of the pots

There is no evidence of this type of patterning in any known animal communication system. Therefore, we can say that one major difference between human language and the animal communication system is the duality of structure present in human language.

2. **Creativity/ productivity:** This feature refers to the fact that human language has the ability to produce new messages on any topic at any time. A sentence never heard of before can be created by human beings. That is, the same limited sets of phonemes are combined in a novel form to give novel messages. For example: if I say “last night I had a pleasant meal with a leopard on top of a tree” it would be a novel sentence which I don’t think I have ever heard or read anywhere. The construction of such a sentence, therefore, involves creativity/ productivity. The following quotation sums up this feature of language.
The most striking aspect of linguistic competence is what we may call the “creativity of language “that is the speaker’s ability to produce new sentences, sentences that are immediately understood by other speakers although they bear no physical resemblance to sentences which are familiar. (Chomsky as quoted in Verma and Krishnaswamy 1989:147)
3. **Interchangeability:** This feature means that all members (male or female) of the species can both send and receive messages. This is obviously true of human language. This is not the case with animal communication system. Bee dance is done only by foragers and birdsong is performed only by males. The calls are not interchangeable between the sexes in the animal communication system. But they are fully interchangeable in human language.
4. **Cultural transmission:** Language is a set of conventions that have grown as a result of the common living of a large number of people. These are, therefore, conventions common to the entire social group which uses the language. This implies that languages have to be learnt. They cannot be transmitted through heredity. Charles Hockett (1955) points out that the system of convention particular to each language is culturally transmitted. (i.e. not acquired through heredity.)
5. **Displacement:** Displacement implies that users of the system are able to refer to events remote in space and time. Animals cannot communicate about imaginary past or future which humans are able to do with language. In other words, animal communication is context-bound but human language is context-free. Human being can talk about experience without actually living them because human language is not controlled by stimulus.
6. **Specialization:** Specialization implies that there should not be a total physical involvement in the act of communication. Human beings can talk while engaged in activities totally unrelated to the subject under discussion. For example they can talk about cricket while cutting vegetables. A bee in a bee dance, however, is completely involved physically in the communication process. At that point it cannot do anything else.
7. **Arbitrariness:** This feature implies that there is no natural or inherent connection between a written word (or sounds) and its references (or symbols). This is overwhelmingly true of human

language with the possible exception of a few onomatopoeic terms. That is, the relationship between words and their meanings is quite arbitrary: it is a matter of conventions. For example, there is no logic behind why a word like rose refers to a flower and not to a horse or a cat or a pencil or a mouse! The decision that rose should refer to a flower of a specific kind is purely arbitrary. There is nothing scientific about it. A few people decided to call it a rose and the society accepted it as a word of the English language. The animal communication system generally does not have any arbitrariness, although Vervet (a kind of a monkey) alarm calls are said to have arbitrariness.

8. **Redundancy:** There is a lot of redundancy in human language. For example, when we speak a sentence like: are you coming? There are two markers to show that it is a question.
- i. The placement of the helping verb at the beginning, and
 - ii. The rising tone with which the question would be asked. And when we write the sentence there are also two markers to show that it is a question.
 - iii. The placement of the helping verb at the beginning, and
 - iv. The punctuation (the use of question mark) at the end of the sentence to show that it is a question.

This kind of redundancy i.e., two or three markers to show the same thing does not exist in the animal communication system.

9. **Discreteness:** Bee dancing or bird-song seems to have very few discrete units, which can be recombined. Human language has phonemes, syllables, morphemes, and words etc. which are discrete units and can be recombined to mean different things. That is, language consists of isolatable, repeatable units. For example, with the help of three discrete units like p, a and t we can create pat, tap and apt. This is not possible in the animal communication system.
10. **Reflexiveness:** By reflexiveness, we mean the ability to use the communication system to discuss the system itself. No evidence exists that any other species writes grammar linguistics textbooks. Thus are the characteristic features of human languages which are very distinct from animal means of communication system.

1.4.4 Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication

Communication basically is of two types –the verbal communication, using language and non-verbal communication. The verbal communication is by the spoken and written form; hence essentially communication could be as the following:

- Spoken communication.
- Written communication.
- Non-verbal communication.

i. **Spoken Communication**

This is dyadic communication, which means an interaction between two persons. Even if more than two persons are present in a situation, it is only two communicators who play a fundamental role. Such a person-to-person or face-to-face communication is the commonest form of speech communications.

It provides ideal conditions, for close-range continuous feedback. The meaning exchange between the sender and the receiver is marked by high fidelity. Spoken communication being a part of communication through sound is usually used for speeches, dictations, conversations, discussions, giving instructions, putting orders, making requests, counseling, telephonic conversations and the like.

Interviews and group discussions make use of speaking skills whereupon the encoder is expected to have confidence in the following matters.

- A fair understanding of the subject.
- Good communication skills with appropriate phonetic and organizational skills.
- Alertness of the individual.
- Collaborative nature
- Concentration on the topic under perusal or discussion.
- Being courteous and cheerful.

Never be-

- Dogmatic and argumentative.
- Superfluous in using words and phrases.
- A victim of following mannerisms and over use of same expressions.

There are a number of advantages in spoken communication, if the encoder is efficient. Firstly the tone of the encoder is used to supplement the spoken words and add credibility to them; secondly, it is quick; thirdly it covers the entire range of topic; fourthly, it is direct from person to person and hence is very effective.

ii. **Written Communication**

The written communication is a tangible record of information, messages, enquiries and instructions. The basic inclusion of written communication is in writing letters (formal and informal), reports, précis writing, memos, circulars, notices, telegrams, fax messages, e-mail, advertisements, hand books, manuals, research papers and articles etc. Even after the introduction of computers, written communication continues to serve as a legal record. Decisions arrived at after conversations, meetings, lectures and talks have to be confirmed in writing. It facilitates the transfer of a large number of details from the encoder to the decoder with the provision to refer to it whenever required. There is a possibility of details in a spoken communication to be forgotten but in written communication the individuals are helped to be more efficient.

Written communication requires equal or similar competence in language for both the encoder (writer) and the decoder (reader). Hence vocabulary, syntax, idiomatic use and language in general for both should be very good. While in face to face communication, the encoder's intentions and geniality are measured by the decoder, this cannot be possible in written communication. But still, written communication continues to be the most effective medium in business and academic spheres.

iii. **Non-Verbal Communication**

Non-verbal communication refers to all external stimuli other than spoken or written words, including body motion, characteristics of appearance, characteristics of voice and uses of space and distancing. All those are together known as body language. A systematic study has been made to analyze non-verbal communication which is also called as **Kinesics**. **Proxemics** is the name given to call the use of space and distancing. But some include the study of voice quality as part of vocal aspect of oral communications.

It is opined that 35 % of the message is carried verbally, while 65 % is conveyed non-verbally. Mehiabian (1971) has analyzed the impact of message as 7% verbal, 38% vocal and 55% non-verbal. Non-verbal communication spontaneously accompanies a person's speech. The elements of non-verbal communication are---

- 1) Personal appearance.
- 2) Posture
- 3) Gestures

- 4) Facial expressions
 - 5) Eye contact
 - 6) Space and distancing.
- **Personal appearance** is the way an individual is dressed, the make-up she/he puts on and the hairstyle she/he maintains. Always remember that you are never fully dressed unless you wear a smile.
 - **Posture** refers to the way one stands, sits and walks. The movement of the hands and legs and other parts of the body reveal an individual's personality, whether one is arrogant or diffident or confident or careless etc. one needs to be relaxed always with the guiding principle of 'be relaxed but alert'. Shifts in the posture have to be cultivated. One must learn proper ways of gestures with one's hands and how to shift the weight of the body on the legs while speaking. Gesture is the movement that one makes with one's hands, head, and face to show a particular meaning like 'yes', 'no', 'keep sitting', 'be silent', etc. However all oral communications are accompanied by gestures such as shrugging of the shoulders, movement of the head, eyebrows, lips, eyes etc. To learn and make appropriate gestures, it would be useful to practice before a mirror, seeking guidance from friends and colleagues who are considered effective in communication.
 - **Facial expressions** like a smile (friendliness), a frown (discontent), raising the eyebrow (disbelief), or tightening the jaw muscles (antagonism) can add meaning to the verbal communication. A wooden expression on the face may prejudice the listeners while brightness in the eyes may keep their interest sustained. For a smooth flow of communication, gestures and facial expressions add to its effectiveness.
 - **Eye contact** is the most important aspect of body language. Eye contact is a way to get the feedback to the speaker and to keep the listener's attention intact. A good speaker looks at all different sections of his audience, and not on the ground, the ceiling or the door.
 - **Social distancing or space distancing:** In a social communication, a zone ranging from 4 to 12 feet is maintained as a personal territory around the speaker called as **social distancing or space distancing**. In a large group or in public speaking it may be much greater ranging from 12 to 30 feet depending upon many other considerations. Space distancing differs from culture to culture. For example, an American may find an Indian too close (distance—wise) to him while talking. However, in heightened emotional states of mind (e.g. Anger, shock, danger) the normal distancing is ignored.
 - **Tonemodulation:** An important non-verbal medium, which is linked to the **tone**, is **modulation**. If tone refers to sound with reference to pitch, quality and strength of the voice and variation of the voice to express emotion, modulation is the way in which a speaker varies his tone or pitch while speaking. Tone and modulation of voice reveal the attitude and cultural attainments of a speaker.

1.4.5 Barriers of Communication

There might be some barriers to communication, which reduce fidelity of communications. This loss of fidelity may result in partial or total misunderstanding of the message or information, communicated by the sender. This in turn can lead to negative responses and feedback. The major barriers to communication are as following:

- **Perception:** Perceptions differ from person to person and hence the perceptions of the encoder and decoder may differ. This differing perception of the person sending the message and the person receiving it create barrier.
- **Language:** This is also called as semantic barrier and is of three types.

a. **Pronunciation barrier:** confusion occurs frequently with the pronunciation of word pairs like

Sixteen---sixty

Fifteen ---fifty

Words like excess, access, success etc also may create a barrier. The Indian pronunciation with general Indian English accent and intonation might create problems of comprehension to the Americans or Australians or to the natives.

b. **Contextual and referential meanings:** Words have contextual meaning and referential meaning. For e.g. the word 'Motion' in the following three sentences has three different meanings.

The motion was passed unanimously in the assembly.

The patient's motion was for jaundice.

The iron ball was set to motion by the piston.

In each of three sentences, the context decides the meaning of the word. When you say, 'I have a big dog or my dog is a big dog,' the word 'big' is being used with its referential meaning, which is with reference to what we have seen or what we have experienced.

c. **Syntax:** The third barrier is because of inadequate knowledge of idioms, word order, punctuation or sentence structure.

He wanted an armchair for an old man with wooden legs.

Naturally, there is an ambiguity in this sentence as to the armchair has wooden legs or the old man.

d. **Cultural differences:** This is especially so between the oriental and occidental countries. Non-verbal communication and phatic communication vary in each country, which might create obstacles to communication.

e. **Personal traits:** The status of a person, his/her emotional heightening, the resistance to change act as psychological barriers to communication. Communication may also fail partially or even completely if the encoder is preoccupied with some other task and lacks proper attention.

f. **External disturbances:** Noisy environment may prove to become the barrier to communication.

Thus psycho-physical factors, language or code selected and environment all or any one may become barriers to communication.

1.4.6 Methods to Overcome the Barriers to Communication

The barriers to communication can be overcome by adopting the following measures:

- Communication should be clear and well organized.
- The ideas of the encoder are to be properly and logically organized.
- These organized ideas should be expressed using simple language-spoken or written.
- Due importance is to be given to consider the feedback.

- Proper medium is to be selected for communication.
 - A habit of listening to others is to be developed for efficient communication.
-

1.5 Linguistics:

The word linguistics comes from the Latin word *Lingua* which means “tongue”; and hence deals with language. A systematic study of language is called as linguistics. Languages of the world differ in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and relationships between speakers. Linguistics is a field that provides a terminology to talk about these aspects of language which can be used by lexicographers, language teachers, speech therapists, translators and others. Linguistics also is useful for psychologists interested in language learning, the encoding in the human mind/ brain, how this knowledge of language is used by human being to perform different functions etc. David Crystal calls ‘linguistics as the science of language’. It is a scientific enquiry into human language or a scientific study of the principles underlying human languages in a systematic way.

If language is a special gift to human beings for expressing every single emotion/feeling/ thought/logic with certain characteristic features as discussed earlier for effective communication; human languages are unlimited with great structural complexity so much so that every language spoken by a community looks unique. Even the linguistic dialects appear to be entirely different from other dialects of the same language. Linguistics is the scientific study of each language, dialect, variety for all its features individually; it also aims at comprehending certain similarities and difference between the languages. Thus explanation of the observed data of natural languages, both alive and dead by constructing theories, rules and laws is the most important contribution of a linguist. Like a scientist, a linguist also needs to predict that which constitute potential though not actual. A general principle explains what has already been observed in the data (explanation), and it predicts what has not been observed as yet. This could be achieved, if the language is looked very objectively and the linguist studies the mechanism of it i.e., a linguist studies the way a language works. Hence linguistics is a **systematic study of language**. Thus the subject matter of linguistics is all natural languages, both living and dead. Linguists employ the methods of careful methods to observe, record, analyses the languages commenting on the commonalities and differences between languages through principles and parameters.

1.5.1 Linguistics in Historical Context

As every branch of knowledge evolves, linguistics as a science to study languages also has its course. Broadly speaking, the development of linguistics is understood in three different phases: the traditional phase, the Structural phase and the Cognitive phase.

i. The Traditional Approach of Linguistics

Language has been a subject of serious study for over 2000 years. Panini, an ancient Sanskrit philologist, grammarian of the 4 century BCE with his *Ashtadhyayi* is considered as the Father of Linguistics, for his excellent analysis of Sanskrit language in the East. His sutra style or rule based grammar written in eight chapters with 3, 959 verses or rules becomes the base for Sanskrit linguistics, syntax and semantics. His aphoristic text attracted numerous *bhashyas* (commentaries), of which Patanjali's *Mahābhāṣya* is the most famous in Hindu traditions. Katyayana, Patanjali are the later grammarians who followed Panini's rules in to-to. His formalization of language seems to have been

influential in the formalization of dance and music by Bharata Muni. His ideas influenced and attracted commentaries from scholars of other Indian religions such as Buddhism.

His contemporary in the West is Plato who during the Classical period in Ancient Greece, is founder of the Platonist school of thought, and the Academy, the first institution of higher learning in the Western world. Later Aristotle, Dionysius Thrax, Protagoras commented on the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of Greek language in an organized way. Both Eastern and Western scholars were interested in the written form of a language and they thought that the language of the great writers was 'pure' and 'correct' and any deviation from the rules thereby formed is corrupt and decayed form of the language. Later, the Latin grammarians followed the Greeks and applied the Greek model to analyse Latin language. As the rules of Sanskrit grammar is applied to the description of any Indian modern language the rules of Greek language is applied to the description of any modern European language.

Linguists in the traditional period favoured the meaning based definitions of the grammatical categories. They believed that grammar or syntax which is the way the words are put together in the clauses and sentences followed 'logically' from meaning. They believed that the structure of a language was a product of reason is a tool for analysing reality. The linguistic description of a language was prescriptive in nature i.e. the rules of the language formed by analysing the texts of great writers. What ought to be used is more the point of attention and hence the rules are memorized for the expressions. Hence linguistics was considered subordinate to logic and Philosophy.

To analyse the word classes of a language with Major and Minor word classes, rules of tenses, clauses and sentences, rules of sentence transformation occupied the goal of the linguists. This type of prescriptive rule based grammar model continued till the 19 century. The linguists like Leibniz and Sir William Jones in the 19 century have been to India and studied Sanskrit grammar and were struck by the similarity that Sanskrit bore to Greek and Latin. Sir William Jones is particularly known for his proposition of the existence of a relationship among European and Indian languages, which would later be known as Indo-European parent language of Western and Eastern people. Researches during the period stated systematically comparing different languages and tracing them to a common origin. Such a way of analysing languages is known as Comparative philology, which established a methodology for setting up language families. Comparative philology also developed a general theory of linguistic changes and linguistic relationships between languages by observing Facts of the language rather than speculations.

ii. The Structural Approach of linguistics

The second phase of linguistic development started during the late nineteenth century with the emergence of Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) in Europe and Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1947) in America. By this time European nations have established their colonies all across the globe.

The effect of colonialism is the realization that there were many more languages in the world other than the languages of Europe and that there were many extinct languages as well. If the languages were not used or spoken due to colonization or they were forced to switch over to the colonial language, languages could become extinct. A gradual change in the languages possible due to continuous use is also noted. Linguists like Ferdinand de Saussure, Benjamin Lee Whorf, Roman Jakobson from Europe and Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, Franz Boas from America travelled extensively to places where

the languages were spoken so as to learn enough about the languages to describe them as fully as possible.

The discovery of new languages made the linguists analyse each language in its own terms, as against the traditionalists way of applying prescriptive rules to analyse all languages. Without trying to force a language into the grammatical principles of other language, was analysed independently with its own rules and principles. This automatically enabled the linguists to reject the superiority of the classical languages, because for the first time linguists could see that language essentially is spoken and not written, as many new languages that they were analysing (most African and Red Indian languages) were only spoken with no script at all. So the dialects (language variation with respect to region), registers (language variation with respect to profession) became important data for analysing rather than written text by authors. The grammars proposed in this time became descriptive as against the prescriptive grammar of the traditional times.

The use of meaning based descriptions of grammatical categories was also rejected as the meaning was not objectively verifiable; hence though unscientific and subjective, the form based and use based description of the grammatical categories has become obvious in this structuralist period. There was an attempt to formulate some common rules applicable to all languages of linguistic description more scientifically and objectively so that languages could be identified, described, analysed, classified and studied. The question of the commonality underlying in the human languages was thought about for the first time.

Linguists around 20 century began to generalize about the sounds that were common to the languages of the world and tried to propose rules and principles that were common to any language of the world. Similarly, attempt was made to discover common grammatical rules underlying in any language. Charles Hockett differentiated human and animal means of communication, Joseph Greenberg proposed the common rules of grammar in a wide range of languages, Zellig Harris proposed a general method of analysing a language. It was Ferdinand de Saussure who introduced the notion that language is a system of systems. Every element in a system derives its significance from its relationship with other elements in the system. Accordingly, Saussure proposed the concepts like Synchrony and diachrony; language and parole; Syntagmatic and paradigmatic; signifier and signified in his book of *Cours de Linguistique Generale*, translated into English as *A Course in General Linguistics* (1916) all of which form the basis for Structuralist approach to study a language.

As the languages of the colonies presented a different structure from that of the European languages, field methods were borrowed from anthropological researchers to record the local language spoken by the natives; analysing the languages which the linguist could not speak; and which had no written script. Bloomfield's *Language* (1933) is another seminal text in this period that proposes various techniques employed to analyse the sound system, grammar, vocabulary of a language, along with identification and classification features of sentence structure of a language.

Such a systematic, scientific study of languages of the world along with an attempt to propose principles applied to any language raised the status of linguistics to an autonomous science. In the traditional school, linguistics was subordinate to Logic and Philosophy, and now Linguistics became an independent science of analyzing world languages. In the first International Congress of Linguistics in 1928, Millet spoke of the autonomous linguistics and Bloomfield laid the foundation of a science of language by delineating its domains and sharpening the instruments of its methodology.

iii. The Cognitive Approach to Linguistics

this latest phase in the development of Linguistics developed during the 1950s with Noam Chomsky's publication of *Syntactic Structures* (1957). Chomsky rejected the structuralist's view that the function of linguistics was simply to provide classification and terminology to talk about the language. He argued that the linguistic theory must be able to capture the psychological aspect of language. According to Chomsky, the aim of language is to understand and explain the following:

- The human mind that can speak a language as against an animal;
- The knowledge in the human mind regarding language;
- Is the linguistic capability innate or learnt or acquired or both?
- How does a man learn his/her native language?
- How is the knowledge put to use in speech?

Chomsky argued that in answering all the above questions, the role of the native speaker is very important. For him a linguist who tries to learn and describe a language that is different from his/her mother tongue is different from his/her own ability to produce a good description as the structuralists did but not the explanation that his 'generative' grammar aspires for. So for Chomsky, the job of linguists is to construct a theory that would explain and predict facts regarding languages. He treats linguistics as a science and wants it to explain 'why things are the way they are'.

Chomsky gives a special name to the description titled **Generative Grammar** or **Transformational Generative Linguistics**. By Generative, he means that the grammar should be able to generate all and only correct sentences or expressions and by transformational, he explains the means of achieving it. A grammar that is able to generate all and only correct sentences of the language by applying transformational rules is a transformational generative grammar. Chomsky believes that the person who has acquired knowledge of language has internalized a system of rules that relate sound and meaning in a particular way. The linguist constructing a grammar of a language is in effect proposing a hypothesis concerning this internalized system. Thus Chomsky has made Linguistics as a branch of Psychology. Linguistics today actively cooperates with all most all the disciplines of knowledge including, Logic, Poetics, Cybernetics, Neuropsychology, Anthropology, Artificial Intelligence, Sociology etc.

This historical progress of linguistics which started as a branch of humanistic studies became a natural science with structuralists, and later as a social science with the generativists. Gradually, the role of linguistics shifted from giving a mere description, identification and classification of linguistic facts to the construction of a theory which would explain and predict facts regarding languages. Below given is the tabular representation of the history of linguistics.

Sr. No.	Period of linguistics	Time period	Linguists	Status of linguistics	Concept of language learning
1	Traditionalists	5 BC to 19 AD	Panini, Katyayana, Patanjali, Plato, Aristotle, Dionysius Thrax, Protagoras, VAroo, Quitillian	Linguistics was considered subordinate to Logic and Philosophy	As discrete and independent rules
2	Structuralists	Early 19 AD to 1950	Saussure, Humboldt, Franz Boas, Edward Sapir, Bloomfield, Worph, Zellig Harris, Jacobson	Linguistics was treated as an autonomous science	Behaviorist's view of language learning
3	Cognitivists	1957 till now	Noam Chomsky and Others	Linguistics is a branch of cognitive psychology	Cognitivist's view of language learning

1.5.2 Branches of Linguistics

Linguistics can be studied from different perspectives as following:

- **General Linguistics:** Studying a language systematically by supplying the concepts and categories of analyzing languages is called as general linguistics. When linguists try to establish general principles for the study of all languages, it is said to be general linguistics.
- **Descriptive Linguistics:** Studying a particular language by applying the propositions and theories of general linguistics to the data of the language under analysis is called descriptive linguistics. When linguists concentrate on establishing the facts of a particular language system, they practice descriptive linguistics. However, both are overlapping.
- **Synchronic Linguistics:** It studies the characteristic features of a language at a particular point of time. Ferdinand de Saussure differentiates synchronic and diachronic study of a language. Synchronic linguistics is the study of a language states, regardless of its history. The study of English language at Chaucer's time or the study of Milton's English or the study of English language in the Modern age is the examples of synchronic study.
- **Diachronic Linguistics:** it traces the historical development of a language and records the changes that have taken place in between successive points in time. Diachronic linguistics is the study of language change. The study of Old English, Middle English and Modern English is the example of Diachronic study.

- **Theoretical Linguistics:** it studies language and languages with a view to constructing a theory of their structure and functions. The formulation of the satisfactory theory of the structure of the language in general.
- **Applied Linguistics:** Application of the concepts and findings of the linguistics to a variety of language tasks including language teaching, translations, . It is concerned with both the general and descriptive branches of the subject.
- **Micro Linguistics:** it adopts a narrower view and is concerned with the structures of the language system in itself and for itself. Micro linguistics talks of Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics and Pragmatics.
- **Macro Linguistics:** it adopts a broader view and deals with the way languages are acquired, stored in the brain and used for various functions. It also deals with the interdependence of language and culture; physiological and psychological mechanisms involved in language behavior. It talks about Sociolinguistics, Psycho- linguistics, Neuro-linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Computational Linguistics and Applied Linguistics.
- **Comparative Linguistics:** When the focus is on similarities and differences between languages, it is called as comparative linguistics.

1.5.3 Levels of Linguistic Analysis

Microlinguistics is a branch of linguistics that concerns itself with the study of language systems in the abstract, without regard to the meaning or notional content of linguistic expressions. In micro-linguistics, language is reduced to the abstract mental elements of syntax and phonology. It contrasts with macro-linguistics, which includes meanings, and especially with sociolinguistics, which studies how language and meaning function within human social systems.

For developing the ability to develop linguistic competence, mastery in micro linguistics is a must. They are also called as levels of linguistic analysis and the components of which are as following:

- **Phonetics:** It is a branch of linguistics which studies the articulation and perception of the speech sounds. Phonetics deals with the organs of sound production. It deals with the articulation, transmission and reception of the speech sounds of any or all languages of the world.
- **Phonology:** It deals with the patterning of speech sounds; it is the study of the organization of speech into syllables, and other larger units. The phonology of a language is the description of the systems and patterns of sounds that occur in a particular language.
Phonetics deals with the study of the production of sounds. On the other hand, phonology deals with the study of the characteristics of sounds and their changes. This is the basic difference between phonetics and phonology. Phonetics deals with the organs of sound production. Phonology, on the other hand, deals with the sounds and their changes. It can be said that phonetics is the subset of phonology.
- **Morphology:** it is the study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language. It analyses the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Morphology also looks at parts of speech, intonation and stress, and the ways context can change a word's pronunciation and meaning. Morphology differs from

morphological typology, which is the classification of languages based on their use of words, and lexicology, which is the study of words and how they make up a language's vocabulary.

- **Syntax:** It is the set of rules, principles, and processes that govern the structure of sentences (**sentence structure**) in a given language, usually including word order. The term *syntax* is also used to refer to the study of such principles and processes. The goal of many syntacticians is to discover the syntactic rules common to all languages. It talks about the combination of words in to phrases, clauses and sentences.
 - **Semantics:** It is the linguistic and philosophical study of meaning, in language, programming languages, formal logics, and semiotics. It is concerned with the relationship between *signifiers*—like words, phrases, signs, and symbols—and what they stand for in reality, their denotation. Semantics is concerned with meaning in all its aspects.
 - **Pragmatics:** It studies the ways in which context contributes to meaning. Pragmatics encompasses speech act theory, conversational implicature, talk in interaction and other approaches to language behavior in philosophy, sociology, linguistics and anthropology. **Discourse analysis** is the other name of pragmatics in the recent day.
- Thus is the introduction to Language, Communication and Linguistics.

Unit II: Speech Mechanism and Speech Sounds

2.0 Introduction

Human speech is the result of highly complicated series of events. A number of systems are involved in the production of speech. First of all the brain conceives the idea to say something, and this stage is **psychological**. Through the nervous system, the brain transmits this message to the organs of speech which make certain movements and produce certain patterns of sounds. Because there is an involvement of the speech organs which are mostly situated in the human mouth, this stage can be called as **physiological or articulatory**. The movement of the organs creates disturbances in the air in the form of sound waves and this stage is called as the **physical or acoustic**. The listener carefully listens to these sound waves and his/her ear catches the waves and this can be called as **auditory stage**. These sound waves are transmitted to the brain through the nervous system for cognition by decoding the sounds and this is again **psychological**. So these physical, psychological and physiological processes are involved in human speech, which occur so fast that communication looks very smooth and simple. To understand the speech mechanism and the organs of speech is essential to understand the entire process of speech.

2.1 The Speech Mechanism

Essentially, three important systems in the human body enable man to speak, which basically have very different functions but they work together as a unified whole to produce speech. The three systems are:

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

The primary function of respiratory system is for breathing air and providing oxygen to the body; the primary function of phonatory system is to produce sound; and the primary function of the articulatory system situated in the mouth is for eating, and chewing food. These three systems together are called as the speech mechanism as they provide every necessary support for a proper cognizable speech to be possible.

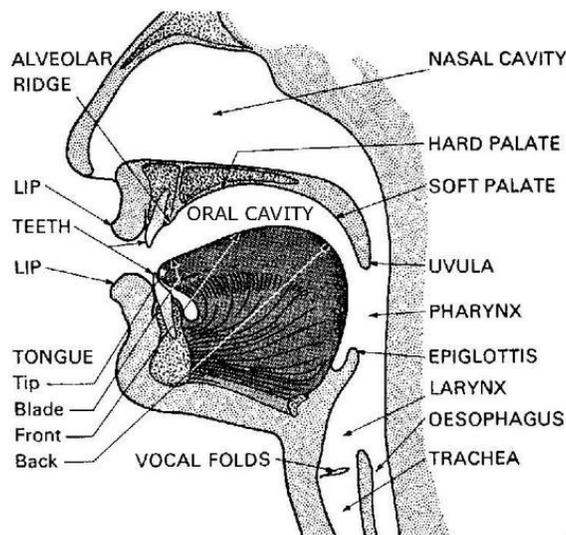


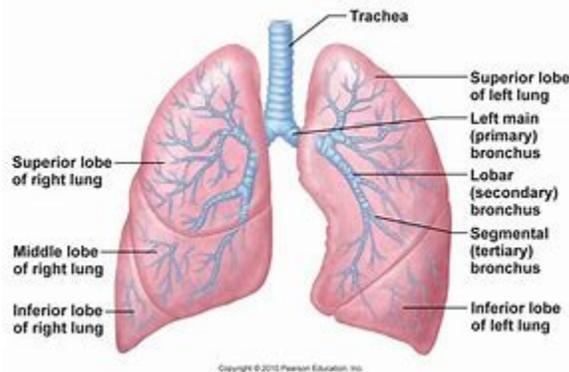
Figure1. The Organs of Speech

2.1.1 The Respiratory System:

It comprises of the lungs, the bronchial tubes and the wind pipe or trachea. The energy to produce speech is provided by this system. The atmospheric air is taken inside the body through the nose in the breathing process and the air is drawn deep into the lungs where exchange of gases take place i.e. the oxygen is taken into the body and the carbon dioxide is given out and this carbon dioxide filled air passes through the same path is exhaled out into the atmosphere through the nose. The process of taking in the air is called **inhalation** and the process of giving out the air is called **exhalation**. One inhalation and exhalation together is called as **the air-stream mechanism**.

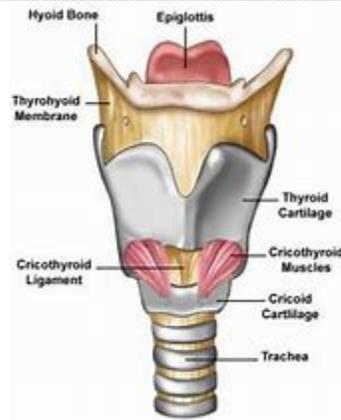
There could be three main types of air-stream mechanisms used in human speech; each mechanism has a different initiator. All three mechanisms may be used to pull air in from atmosphere into the body called as the **ingressive air stream mechanism** and push out the air from the body called as the **egressive air stream mechanism**. Languages might use any one of them for speaking the sounds of it.

It is called the **pulmonic air stream mechanism** with lungs and respiratory muscles as the initiators. It is called the **glottalic airstream mechanism** if the larynx itself with the glottis firmly closed is the initiator. It is called as the **velaric airstream mechanism** with the soft palate named as the velum becomes the initiator. Each could be in turn ingressive and egressive. The pulmonic airstream mechanism is used for all the production of all English sounds and for the sounds of most of the Indian languages except Sindhi. Ingressive glottalic air stream mechanism is used in some Sindhi sounds. Certain African languages like Zulu uses ingressive velaric air stream mechanism. For English, it is **pulmonic and egressive air stream mechanism** that is used.



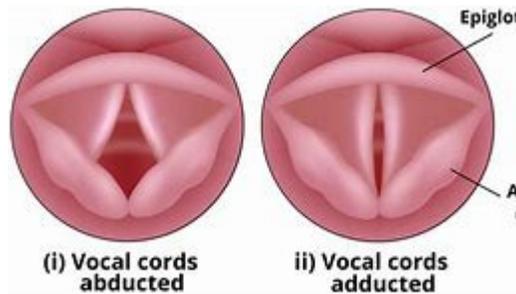
2.1.2 The Phonatory System

The lungs are filled with fine capillaries inside called as the **bronchioles** which unite to form bronchus from each lung, together called **bronchi**. The two bronchi unite to form the wind pipe or **trachea** which is protected by the semi-circular bones that can be felt by fingers when moved over the throat. The top of the trachea is called as the **larynx**; it is a box like structure with a pair of **vocal cords**, which are the two fold ligament and elastic tissue. The vocal cords are attached in the anterior and free in the posterior so that their movement causes an opening called **glottis** for the passage of the air while breathing. The glottis is closed by a lip like structure on top with **epiglottis**.



Of the various positions that the glottis can assume, the following four states of glottis is essential for appreciating speech.

- i. Open glottis (voiceless state/breath)
- ii. Glottis in vibration (voiced state)
- iii. Narrowed glottis (whisper)
- iv. Closed glottis (eating/drinking/glottalic sounds)

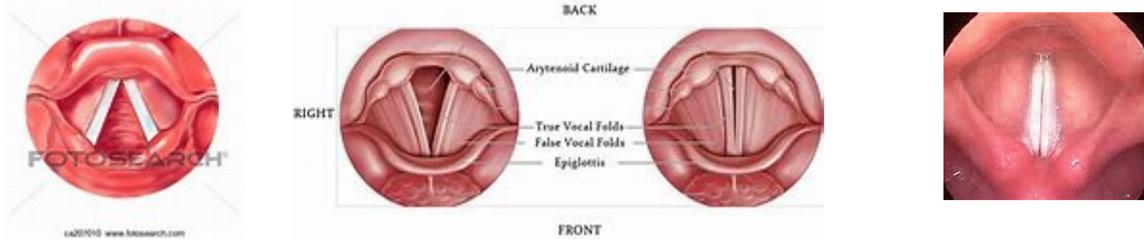


Open glottis: The vocal cords are drawn apart and the glottis is widely open so that the air-stream can pass through the vocal cords freely. This is the state of the glottis for normal breathing. The sounds that are produced in this stage are called voiceless sounds.

Glottis in vibration: The vocal cords are loosely held apart, so that the air-stream passing through it causes the vocal cords into motion. The vocal cords are alternately brought into contact and blown apart by the force of the pulmonic air –stream flowing through the glottis. Thus the vocal cords open and close regularly many times a second, thereby producing voice. This action of opening and closing of the vocal cords is more for a woman (200 to 250 times a second) than for a man (100 to 150 times a second); and so a woman's voice is with a higher pitch or with a shrill. The sounds that are produced in this stage are called voiced sounds. The distinction between voiceless and voiced is important in the description of each sound.

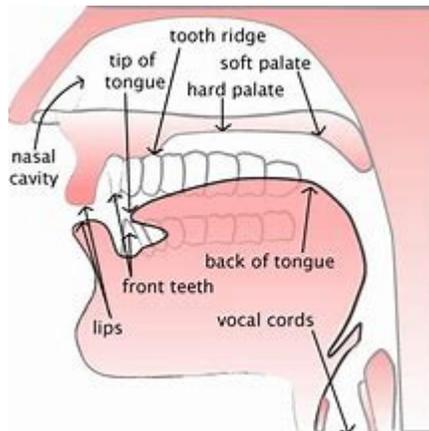
Narrowed glottis: The glottis may be narrowed bringing the vocal cords close to each other but not so much to set them in vibration. The air-stream is impeded when it passes through the glottis thereby producing a soft hissing noise called whisper.

Closed glottis: The glottis might be entirely closed with the firm contact of both the vocal cords so that the air-stream is prevented to pass through. The glottis momentarily assumes this position for coughs, hiccups, while eating, drinking and for producing the glottal stop sounds.



2.1.3 The Articulatory system

The organs of speech present in the oral cavity constitute the articulatory system; because the articulation of these organs results in the production of sounds corresponding to speech. The oral cavity can be conveniently divided into the organs present in the upper jaw and the organs present in the lower jaw. As the upper jaw is fixed, these organs are called as the passive articulators; while the lower jaw is movable and so the organs of the lower jaw are called as the active articulators. The active articulators move and make a contact/ or come close with the passive articulators for the production of various sounds.



The Passive articulators: The organs belonging to the upper jaw like the upper lip, upper teeth, teeth ridge, hard palate and the soft palate are called as the passive articulators.

Upper lip: Lips, both upper and lower lips play an important role in the articulation of certain labial consonants and vowels. The rounded or unrounded lips differentiate various vowels as in the initial sounds in the words like ask and ought ; While the complete closure of lips result in the production of the initial sounds of the words pat or bat.

Upper teeth: Teeth are responsible for the production of the dental sounds like the initial sounds as in the words this, thorough.

Teeth ridge: Teeth ridge or the alveolar ridge is the hard portion beyond the teeth from inside. Teeth ridge plays an important role in the production of alveolar sounds like the initial sound in the examples ten, don, nest, etc.

The hard palate: The roof of the mouth which is a concave bony separation between the oral cavity and the nasal cavity is called as the hard palate. The palate plays an important role in the production of palatal sounds like the initial sound in yes, church, judge etc.

The soft palate: The last part of the hard palate tapers into a soft structure which could be seen hanging from the roof of the mouth, if the mouth is open wide and seen in a mirror. This soft hanging structure is called as the soft palate. The tip of the soft palate is called as the velum and hence the sounds pronounced with velum are called as velar sounds as in the first sound of words like gate, kite etc. It plays an important role in pronouncing nasal and oral sounds along with velar sounds.

The Active articulators: The organs belonging to the lower jaw like the lower lip, lower teeth, and tongue are called as the active articulators

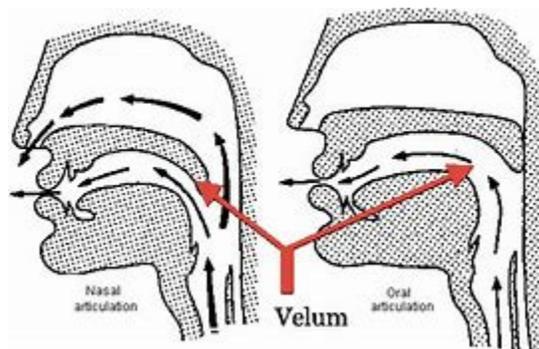
Lower lip: Lower lip along with the upper lips involved in the production of labial and bilabial sounds.

Lower teeth: Lower teeth along with the upper teeth help in the production of dental sounds.

Tongue: Tongue is the dance master in the mouth which moves and takes different shapes and articulates with different passive articulators to produce a wide spectrum of sounds in any language. Both consonants and vowels are pronounced sharply with the correct articulation of the tongue.

Though the upper lip and the soft palate are moveable slightly, they still are called as passive articulators because of their position in the upper jaw. Though the lower teeth are not moveable, still is it called as the active articulator because of its position in the lower jaw. The organs of the both the articulators articulate to pronounce various sounds in a language.

Oral and nasal sounds: The soft palate in the passive articulator plays a wonderfully skilled role in producing oral or nasal sound.



Oral sounds: When the soft palate is raised, the nasal passage of air is shut off and so the air coming from the lungs has to pass through the mouth and in the mouth, because of the articulation of various active articulators with the passive articulators result in the production of oral sounds.

Nasal sounds: When the soft palate is lowered, the nasal passage of air is opened so that the air coming from the lungs can pass through the nose and accordingly nasal sounds are produced.

Nasalized sounds: Sometimes, it so happens that the soft palate is placed in such a way that the air coming from the lungs can pass through the mouth as well as the nose there by producing the nasalized sounds. There are no nasalised sounds in English but Hindi language has the nasalized sounds like ‘hai’ and ‘iit’.

2.2 The Description and Classification of Speech Sounds

Of the Various sounds that a language uses, they can be classified basically into vowels and consonants. According to the letters of an alphabet, some grammar books of English describe a, e, I, o, u of the Roman alphabet as vowels and the rest as consonants. It is misleading and confusing because vowels and consonants are essentially the categories of speech sounds while the description according to the letters in the Roman alphabet.

The way in which the sounds are reproduced point of view, i.e., **phonetically speaking**, a speech sound is described as a vowel sound, if in the production of it, there is no obstruction or no narrowing of a degree that would cause audible friction in the articulatory organs of the pharynx and the mouth regions. All other sounds are called as consonants.

For example the word ‘bee’ has two sounds –the sound that is represented by the letter ‘b’ as the sound /b/ and the sound that is represented by the letters ‘ee’ as /i:/. The sound produced by the letters ‘ee’ requires that the speaker raises the front of the tongue fairly high. It results in the narrowing of the mouth but it does not result in producing any audible friction and the air coming from the lungs can pass through the narrow mouth freely for any length of time. Hence this sound is a vowel.

The sound produced by the letter ‘b’ requires that the speaker has to bring the two lips together and close the mouth so that the air from the lungs has to stop in the mouth for some time, and then suddenly releases the air with the opening of the lips. There is an obstruction for a while to the flow of the air from the lungs. So it is a consonant. In English there are 24 consonant sounds and 20 vowel sounds from the phonetic point of view.

The vowels and consonants can be distinguished from **linguistically speaking** also. In the phonetic terms, i.e., in terms of production of speech sounds, the sounds are related to any language and any sounds. In linguistic terms, the function of the sound in a given language is to be considered.

For example ‘yard’ and ‘well’ in English-in the production of the initial sounds in these examples, /j/ and /w/, there is no obstruction or narrowing of such a degree in the mouth that would cause audible friction. The two sounds must be vowels in English phonetically speaking; but the English language regards them as consonants. This is because, the two sounds function in English grammar as consonants. They take up the article ‘a’ before them as in –a yard, a well’; they also occupy marginal positions in words and syllables as consonants and not the nuclear position as of the vowels. Ex: pet, seen, tell, as the sounds /p, s, t/ occupy the marginal position, similarly the sounds /w/ and /j/ in the words ‘well and jelly’ occupy marginal positions. They can never become the nucleus (as vowels do) of the syllable. Hence functionally speaking, in the linguistic terms, according to the function they do in the grammar of the language, they are consonants and not vowels. Hence they are called as semi-vowels with consonantal function in English. Thus speech sounds in English are classified into 20 vowels and 24 consonants phonetically and linguistically speaking.

2.2.1 The IPA Symbols

In 1886, a group of French and British language teachers, led by the French linguist Paul Passy, formed what would come to be known from 1897 onwards as the International Phonetic Association .

Their original alphabet was based on a spelling reform for English known as the Roman alphabet, the idea of making the IPA was first suggested by Otto Jespersen in a letter to Paul Passy. It was developed by Alexander John Ellis, Henry Sweet, Daniel Jones, and Passy.

Since its creation, the IPA has undergone a number of revisions. After revisions and expansions from the 1890s to the 1940s, the IPA remained primarily unchanged. IPA has the use of the following symbols to represent the world languages:

- Most of the symbols are from the Roman alphabet; some are borrowed from Greek alphabet. (/θ/ and /ð/)
- Sometimes the inversion of the existing Roman alphabet is also used. (/ʌ/, /ə/)
- Diacritic marks are used to express the difference between long and short vowels. (/i:/, /a:/, /ɔ:/, /u:/)

As of the most recent change in 2005, there are 107 letters, 52 diacritics, and 4 prosodic marks in the IPA. The International Phonetic Alphabet is occasionally modified by the Association. After each modification, the Association provides an updated simplified presentation of the alphabet in the form of a chart. The International phonetic Association has provided 44 sounds which are known as IPA symbols of English language. They are also called phonemes of English language. There are 20 vowels and 24 consonants in English phonology. Out of 20 vowels, eight are diphthongs and twelve are pure vowels. The 44 phonemes or speech sounds of English language are as given below.

English vowels (20)

C) Pure vowels : (12)

Symbols	Examples
/i:/	seat /si:t/
/ɪ/	sit /sɪt/
/e/	set /set/
/æ/	sat /sæt/
/a:/	cart /ka:t/
/ɒ/	cot /kɒt/
/ɔ:/	court /kɔ:t/
/u/	full /fʊl/
/ʌ/	shut /ʃʌt/
/ɜ:/	shirt /ʃɜ:t/
/ə/	about /əbaʊt/
/u:/	fool /fu:l/

D) Diphthongs: (08)

Symbols	Examples
/eɪ/	gate /geɪt/
/aɪ/	five /faɪv/
/ɔɪ/	boy /bɔɪ/
/əʊ/	go /gəʊ/
/aʊ/	how /haʊ/
/eə/	hair /heə/

/ʊə/	poor	/pʊə/
/ɪə/	here	/hɪə/

C) English Consonants (24)

Consonants are further classed into seven categories. They are as follows.

8. Plosives : (06)

/p/	Pin	/pɪn/
/b/	bin	/bɪn/
/t/	tin	/tɪn/
/d/	din	/dɪn/
/k/	cap	/kæp/
/g/	gap	/gæp/

9. Affricates : (02)

/tʃ/	church	/tʃɜ:tʃ/
/dʒ/	judge	/dʒʌdʒ/

10. Fricatives : (09)

/f/	fan	/fæn/
/v/	van	/væn/
/θ/	thin	/θɪn/
/ð/	this	/ðɪs/
/s/	same	/seɪm/
/z/	zoo	/zu:/
/ʃ/	shame	/ʃeɪm/
/ʒ/	pleasure	/pleʒə/
/h/	height	/haɪt/

11. Nasals : (03)

/m/	might	/maɪt/
/n/	night	/naɪt/
/ŋ/	sing	/sɪŋ/

12. Lateral : (01)

/l/	light	/laɪt/
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13. Frictionless Continuant : (01)

/r/	right	/raɪt/
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14. Semi Vowels : (02)

/j/	yes	/jes/
/w/	wet	/wet/

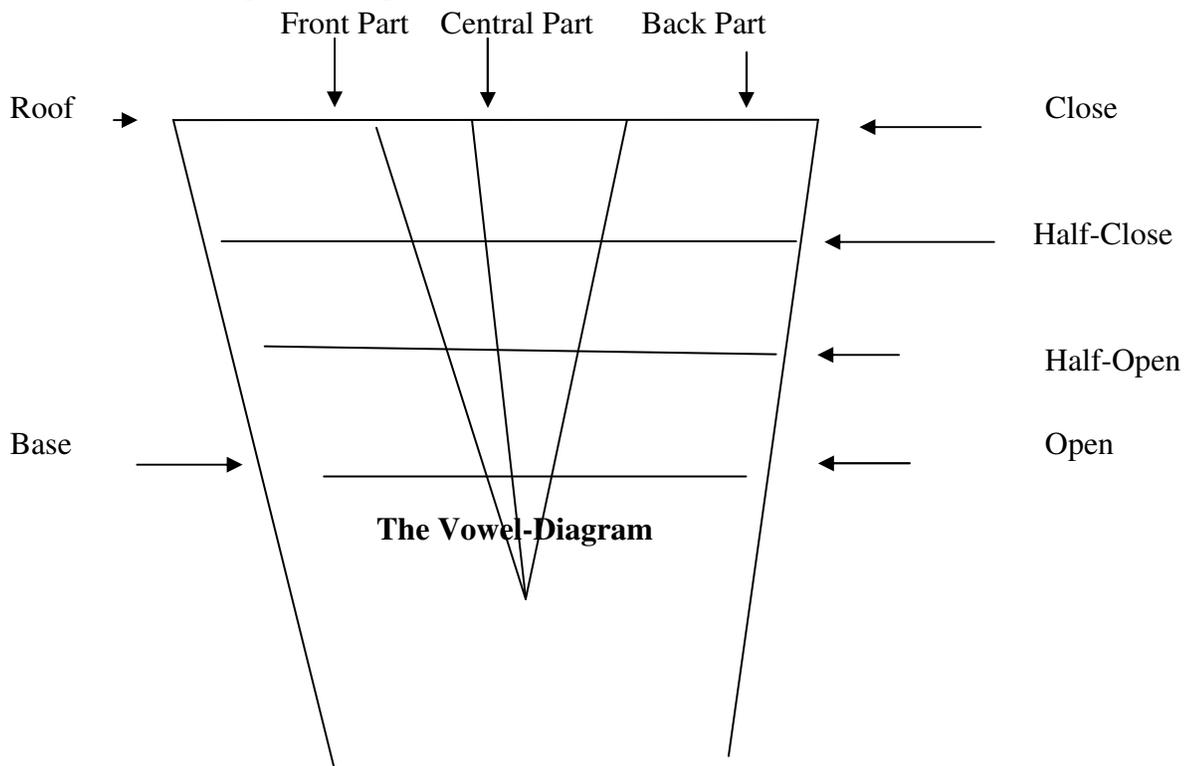
2.3 The Description and Classification of English Vowels

Vowels are speech sounds in the production of which there is no obstruction or narrowing in the pharynx and mouth. Vowels are essentially a tone or a 'hum' issuing from the glottis, with the vocal cords normally vibrating, so all vowels are voiced. The articulatory organs assume different sizes and shapes to produce different vowels. For the identification and description of vowels, the following points are essential:

- The position of the soft palate- oral, nasal and nasalized.
- The shape of the lips-rounded or unrounded.
- The part of the tongue used to produce the sound.
- The height to which it is raised to produce the sound.

All vowels in English are **oral**, so the first criterion is cancelled. The three factors to describe a vowel with its three terms are as following.

1. The part of the tongue-Front, Central and Back
2. The height to which the tongue is raised-Close, Half-close, Half-open and Open
3. The shape of the lips-rounded and unrounded.



Vowels are further classified as **monophthongs /pure vowels** and **diphthongs**. Pure vowels are approximants produced at a single point in the mouth while diphthongs are glides initiating at one point and ending at the other point in the oral cavity. Thus, they need to be studied under independent categories.

Pure Vowels or Monophthongs

Pure vowels are produced at one point in the oral passage. They are also called *monophthongs*. There are twelve pure vowels in English. They can be classified in three categories as the front vowels, the central

vowels and the back vowels. This classification depends on the part of the tongue they are produced with. The vowels produced with the front part of the tongue are called the front vowels, those produced with the central part are called the central vowels and those produced with the back part of the tongue are called the back vowels.

Generally the rest position of the tongue when the mouth is shut is regarded as the open position and the roof of the mouth is regarded as the close position. The other two positions are imaginary. The position that is regarded above the resting position of the tongue is called Half-Open and the position of the tongue below the roof is called Half- Close position.

Diphthongs

Diphthongs are rapid glides from one vowel to another. Their production begins at one place in the mouth and ends at the other point. This glide is so rapid that each of the vowels produced can be identified distinctly but cannot be considered separately. So they make a single vowel which is termed as a diphthong. For instance medial sound in the word ‘rain’ (represented by symbol /eɪ/) begins at the position of Front between half close and half open and ends at the position of Front just above half close. They are classified according to their direction of glide as **diphthongs gliding towards /ɪ/**, **diphthongs gliding towards /ə/**, and **diphthongs gliding towards /u/**. Diphthongs are also classified according to their movement towards the positions in the mouth as **centering diphthongs** and **closing diphthongs**. Those glide towards the central vowel are called centering diphthongs and those glide towards close vowels are called closing diphthongs. Diphthongs also could be **raising diphthongs** if the glide is rising up in the vowel area and are called as the **falling diphthongs** if the glide is falling down the vowel area.

Diphthongs gliding towards /ɪ/: /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/

Diphthongs gliding towards /ə/: /eə/, /ɪə/, /ʊə/

Diphthongs gliding towards /u/: /əʊ/, /aʊ/

Centering diphthongs: /eə/, /ɪə/, /ʊə/

Closing diphthongs: /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/

Raising diphthongs: /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/

Falling diphthongs: /eə/, /ɪə/, /ʊə/

2.3.1 English Vowels: Monophthongs

There are twenty vowel sounds in English according to the Received Pronunciation of England (RP), of which eight are called as the **Monophthongs** and eight are called as the **Diphthongs**. The pure vowels can be described as the front vowels, Central vowels and Back vowels depending upon the part of tongue used to produce the sounds.

I. Front Vowels: The front part of the tongue is used for the articulation of these vowels. There are four front vowels in English and they are /i:/, /i/, /e/ and /æ/.

1. **/i:/ as in eat- /i:t/:**

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the front part of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, to a position just below the close position. The lips are spread and remain unrounded. The vowel is pronounced for a longer length of time. **Three-term label:** Hence, it is labeled as **Front-unrounded vowel- just below the close position.**

Distribution: The vowel /i:/ occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in **seen-/si:n/**; medial position as in **green-/gri:n/**; and final position as in **lean-/li:n/**.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Peak	/pi:k/	Jean	/ dʒi:n/	These	/ ði:z/
Beak	/bi:k/	Meet/ Meat	/mi:t/	Siege	/si: dʒ/
Team	/ti:m/	Need	/ni:d/	Zeal	/zi:l/
Dean	/di:n/	Leaf	/li:f/	Shield	/ ʃi:ld/
Keen	/ki:n/	Wreath	/ri: θ/	Heap	/hi:p/
Geese	/gi:s/	Feel	/fi:l/	Yield	/ji:ld/
Chief	/ tʃi:f/	Veal	/vi:l/	Queen	/kwɪ:n/

2. /ɪ/ as in Sit /sit/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the front part of the tongue raised towards the hard palate to a position between the half-close and close or just above the half-close position. The lips are loosely spread and remain unrounded. The vowel is a shorter vowel and a counter part to the long vowel /i:/.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **Front-unrounded vowel- just above the half close position.**

Distribution: The vowel /ɪ/ occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in **bit-/bit/**; medial position as in **sit-/sit/**; and final position as in **pit-/pit/**.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pin	/pin/	Jim	/ dʒim/	Thin	/ θ in/
Bill	/bil/	Milk	/milk/	This	/ðis/
Tip	/tip/	Knit	/nit/	Sing	/si ŋ/
Dish	/di ʃ/	Lip	/lip/	Zip	/zip/
Kitten	/kitn/	Risk	/risk/	Ship	/ʃip/
Give	/giv/	Fit	/fit/	Hill	/hil/
Chin	/ tʃɪn/	Village	/vɪli dʒ/	winter	/wɪnt ə/

3. /e/ as in Get /get/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the front part of the tongue raised to the position between half close and half open. The lips remain unrounded. Hence, it **Three-term label:** Hence, it is labeled as **Front-unrounded vowel- between half close and half open position.**

Distribution: The vowel /e/ occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in **ate-/et/** and medial position as in **bet-/bet/**.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pen	/pen/	gem	/dʒem/	Then	/ðen/
Bed	/bed/	Men	/men/	Seven	/sevn/
Text	/tekst/	Next	/nekst/	Zest	/zest/
Desk	/desk/	Let	/let/	Shell	/ʃel/
Kept	/kept/	Red	/red/	Head	/hed/
Get	/get/	Fell	/fel/	Yes	/jes/
Check	/tʃek/	Very	/veri/	Well	/wel/

4. /æ/ as in Apple-/ æ pl/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the front part of the tongue raised to the position between open and half open. Lips are loosely spread or neutral and remain unrounded.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **Front-unrounded vowel- just above the half open position.**

Distribution: The vowel / æ / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in Ant-/ ænt/ ; and medial position as in cat-/kæt/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pat	/p æ t/	Jam	/ dʒæm/	Thank	/ θ æ ŋ k/
Bad	/b æ d/	Man	/m æ n /	That	/ ðæt/
Tax	/t æ ks/	Nap	/n æ p/	Sand	/s æ nd/
Damp	/d æ mp/	Lamp	/l æ mp/	Exact	/igz æ kt/
Cat	/k æ t/	Rash	/r æ ʃ/	Shall	/ʃ æ l/
Gas	/g æ s/	Fat	/f æ t/	Hang	/h æ ŋ /
Chat	/tʃæt/	Van	/v æ n/	Yak	/j æ k/

II. **Back Vowels:** The back part of the tongue is used for the articulation of these vowels. There are five back vowels in English and they are /u:/, /u/, / ɔ:/, / ɒ / and /a:/.

5. /a:/ as in ask-/a:sk/ :

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the back part of the tongue raised to the position just above the open position. The lips are neutral and remain unrounded.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **Back-unrounded vowel- just above the open position.**

Distribution: The vowel / a: / occurs in the word initial, medial and medial positions in English-initial position as in past-/pa:st/; medial position as in father-/fa:ðə/; and final position as in bar-/ba:/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Palm	/pa:m/	Jar	/dʒa:/	Psalm	/sa:m/
Bath	/ba: θ/	Marsh	/ma: ʃ/	Sharp	/ʃa:p/
Task	/ta:sk/	Nasty	/na:sti/	Hard	/ha:d/
Dark	/da:k/	Last	/la:st/	Yard	/ja:d/
Carve/calve	/ka:v/	Rather	/ra: ð ə/	Shan't	/ ʃa:nt/
Guard	/ga:d/	Far	/fa:/	Harm	/ha:m/
Charm	/tʃa:m/	Vase	/va:z/	Yarn	/ja:n/

6. /ɒ/ as in god-/gɒd/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the back part of the tongue raised to the position between open and half open, rather it is in the fully open position. The lips are slightly rounded.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **Back-rounded vowel- between open and half open position.**

Distribution: The vowel /ɒ / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in on-/ɒn/ ; and medial position as in top-/tɒp/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Spot	/spɒt/	John	/dʒɒn/	Sorry	/sɒri/
Bother	/bɒ ðə/	Moss	/mɒs/	Methodical	/mi θ ɒdɪkl/
Top	/tɒp/	Not	/nɒt/	Hop	/hɒp/
Dot	/dɒt/	Long	/lɒ ŋ/	Yacht	/jɒt/
Cotton	/kɒtn/	Rock	/rɒk/	Shop	/ʃɒp/
Got	/gɒt/	Foreign	/fɒrɪn/	Pop	/pɒp/
Chop	/tʃɒp/	Involve	/ɪnvɒlv/	Watch	/wɒtʃ/

7. /ɔ:/ as in caught-/k ɔ:t/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the back part of the tongue raised to the position between half close and half open. The lips are rounded. It is a long vowel.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **Back-rounded vowel- between half close and half open position.**

Distribution: The vowel / ɔ: / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in order-/ ɔ:də/; medial position as in bought -/b ɔ:t/; and final position as in law-/l ɔ:/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Paw/ pour/pore	/pɔ:/	George	/dʒɔ: dʒ/	Thought	/ θ ɔ:t/
Bought	/bɔ:t/	More	/mɔ:/	Source	/sɔ:s/
Talk	/tɔ:k/	Nor	/nɔ:/	Horn	/hɔ:n/
Door	/dɔ:/	Law	/lɔ:/	Your	/jɔ:/
Caught	/kɔ:t/	Roar/raw	/rɔ:/	Short	/ʃɔ:t/
Gordon	/gɔ:dn/	For/ four/ fore	/fɔ:/	Worn	/wɔ:n/
Chalk	/tʃɔ:k/	Vaughan	/vɔ:n/	Sauce	/sɔ:s/

8. /u/ as in Put /put/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the back part of the tongue raised to the position just above half close. The lips are rounded.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **Back-rounded just above the half close position.**

Distribution: The vowel / u / occurs in the word medial and final positions in English-medial position as in look-/luk/; and final position as in to-/tu/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Push	/put/	Could	/kud/	look	/luk/
Butcher	/butʃə/	Good	/gud/	Room	/rum/
Took	/tuk/	nook	/nuk/	Full	/ful/
Do	/du/	Hook	/huk/	Soot	/sut/

9. /u:/ as in pool-/pu:l/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the back part of the tongue raised to the position just below the close position, almost till the close position. The lips are rounded.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **Back-rounded just below the close position.**

Distribution: The vowel / u : / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in ooze-/u:z/; medial position as in stool-/stu:l/; and final position as in shoe-/ʃ u: /.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pool	/pu:l/	June	/dʒu:n/	Through	/θ ru:/
Boot	/bu:t/	Move	/mu:v/	Soup	/su:p/
Tomb	/tu:m/	Noon	/nu:n/	Hew	/hju:/
Doom	/du:m/	Loose	/lu:s/	Music	/mju:zik/
Cool	/ku:l/	Rule	/ru:l/	Beauty	/bju:ti/
Goose	/gu:s/	Food	/fu:d/	Due	/dju:/
Choose	/tʃu:z/	View	/vju:/	Presume	/prizju:m/

III. Central Vowels: The Central part of the tongue is used for the articulation of these vowels. There are three central vowels in English and they are / ʌ /, / ɜ: /, / ə /.

10. /ʌ/ as in Cut-/k ʌ t/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the central part of the tongue raised to a position just below the half open position. The lips are unrounded.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **central-unrounded vowel between half open and half open position.**

Distribution:The vowel / ʌ / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in Up- /ʌp/; and medial position as in cut-/kʌt/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Sponge	/spʌndʒ/	Judge	/dʒʌdʒ/	Thumb	/θ ʌ m/
Butter	/bʌtə/	Money	/mʌni/	Thus	/ð ʌ s/
Tug	/tʌg/	Nothing	/nʌ θi ŋ/	Such	/sʌtʃ/
Dull	/dʌl/	Luck	/lʌk/	Result	/rizʌlt/
Come	/kʌm/	Trouble	/trʌbl/	Shut	/ʃʌt/
Gun	/gʌn/	Fuss	/fʌs/	Hurry	/hʌri/
Chuckle	/tʃʌkl/	Vulture	/vʌltʃ ə/	Young	/jʌ ŋ/

11. /ɜ:/ as in Earn-/ ɜ:n/:

Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the central part of the tongue raised to a position between the half close and half open position. The lips are neutral and so unrounded.

Three-term label: Hence, it is labeled as **central-unrounded vowel between half open and half close position**.

Distribution: The vowel / ɜ: / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in earth- / ɜ: θ/; medial position as in burn-/bɜ:n/; final position as infur-/f ɜ:/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pearl	/pɜ:l/	Germ	/dʒɜ:m/	Sir	/sɜ:/
Bird	/bɜ:d/	Myrrh	/mɜ:/	Deserve	/dizɜ:v/
Turn	/tɜ:n/	Nurse	/nɜ:s/	Shirt	/ʃɜ:t/
Dearth	/dɜ: θ /	Learn	/lɜ:n/	Hurt	/hɜ:t/
Colonel	/kɜ:nl/	Fir/Fur	/fɜ:/	Yearn	/jɜ:n/
Girl	/gɜ:l/	Verse	/vɜ:s/	Work	/wɜ:k/
Church	/tʃɜ: tʃ/	Thirst	/ θ ɜ:st/	Turn	/tɜ:n/

12. /ə/ as in father /fa: ð ə/:

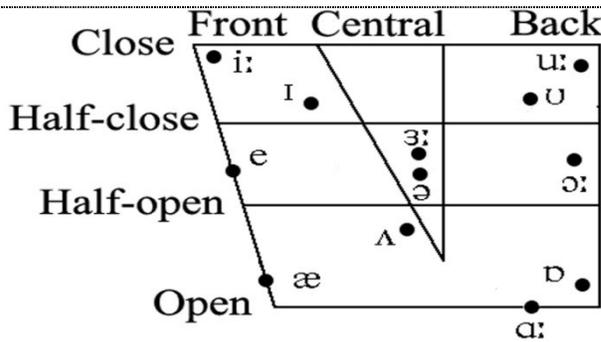
Articulation: During the articulation of this vowel, the central part of the tongue raised to a position between half close and half open. The lips are neutral and so unrounded. **Three-term label:** Hence, it is labeled as **central-unrounded vowel between half close and half open position**.

Distribution: The vowel / ə / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in about-/əbaut/; medial position as in purpose-/p ɜ:p əs/; and final position as in master-/ma:st ə/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Arise	/əraiz/	Clerically	/klerikəli/	Parlor	/pɑ:lə/
About	/əbaut/	Methodically	/mi θə dikəli/	Bother	/bʌ ð ə/
Along	/əl ɔ:n/	Doctor	/d ɔ:ktə/	Teacher	/ti: tʃə/
Among	/əm ʌ ŋ/	Nature	/neitʃə/	Disturber	/dist ɜ:bə/
Abort	/əb ɔ:t/	Political	/pəlitikl/	Comet	/kɒmət/
Attack	/ət æ k/	America	/əm ɜ:rəkə/	Gardener	/gɑ:dinə/
Across	/əkr ɒs/	gorilla	/gərilə/	Butter	/b ʌ tə/

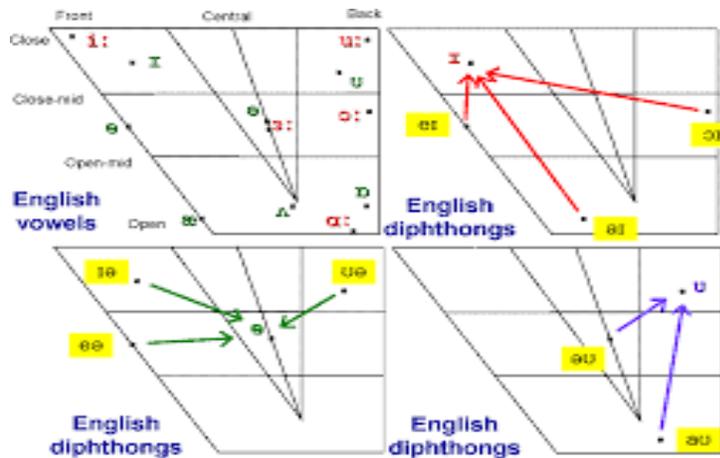
The following diagram is called as the **Vowel diagram** showing the positions of all the twelve **Monophthongs**.



The Monophthongs of English

2.3.2 English Vowels: Diphthongs

Diphthongs are the vowel glides from one Monophthongs to another; the movement is so fast that it is considered as a single phoneme. There are eight diphthongs in English language, of which /eɪ/, /aɪ/ and /ɔɪ/ move towards /i/; while /əʊ/ and /aʊ/ move towards /u/. All these five diphthongs are **rising and closing diphthongs** as they rise up and move towards close region of the vowel area. /eə/, /ʊə/ and /ɪə/ are the diphthongs that move towards /ə/; as they are falling down they are called as **centering and falling diphthongs**. /aʊ/, /aɪ/ and /ɔɪ/ are **long or wide diphthongs** as the glide is long, while /eɪ/, /əʊ/, /eə/, /ʊə/ and /ɪə/ are **narrow or short diphthongs** as the glide length is short.



The Diphthongs of English

1. /eɪ/ as in play-/pl eɪ /:

Articulation: RP / eɪ / is a glide from /e/ to /i/ and so the glide begins at the front, unrounded, between half close and half open position and moves to the centralized front, unrounded position, just above the half close. The lips are neutral while the glide is pronounced. The diphthong is rising, closing and narrow glide.

Distribution: The diphthong /eɪ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in aim-/ eɪm/; medial position as in table-/teɪbl/; and final position as in day-/d eɪ/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pay	/peɪ/	James	/dʒeɪmz/	They	/ ð eɪ/
Bathe	/beɪ ð /	Maid/made	/merd/	Same	/seɪm/

Table	/teɪbəl/	Neighbor	/neɪbə/	Haste	/heɪst/
Day	/deɪ/	Late	/leɪt/	Yale	/jeɪl/
Scale	/skeɪl/	Face	/feɪs/	Wake	/weɪk/
Game	/ɡeɪm/	Railway	/reɪlweɪ/	Player	/pleɪə/
Change	/tʃeɪndʒ/	Vale	/veɪl/	They are	/ ð eɪə/

2. /aɪ/ as wife-/w aɪf/:

Articulation: RP /aɪ / is a glide from /a/ to /i/ and so the glide begins from front unrounded vowel just above open position to centralized front unrounded vowel just above half close position. The lips are neutral at first and later loosely spread, while the glide is pronounced. The diphthong is rising, closing and wide glide.

Distribution: The diphthong /aɪ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in ice-/aɪs/; medial position as in smile-/smaɪl/; and final position as in buy-/baɪ/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pile	/paɪl/	Write/wright	/raɪt/	Thine	/ ð aɪn/
Bite	/baɪt/	Mine	/maɪn/	Thy	/ ð aɪ/
Tie	/taɪ/	Nice	/naɪs/	Sign	/saɪn/
Dine	/daɪn/	Like	/laɪk/	Resign	/rɪzaɪn/
Kind	/kaɪnd/	Five	/faɪv/	Height	/haɪt/
Guide	/ɡaɪd/	Rite/right	/raɪt/	While	/waɪl/
Child	/tʃaɪld/	Vine	/vaɪn/	Find	/faɪnd/

3. /ɔɪ/ as in oil-/ ɔɪl/:

Articulation: RP /ɔɪ/ is a glide from /ɔ/ to /ɪ/, and so the glide begins from back rounded vowel between open and half open position and moves to the front unrounded vowel just above half close position. The lips are rounded at first and later loosely spread, while the glide is pronounced. The diphthong is rising, closing and wide glide.

Distribution: The diphthong /ɔɪ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in (as in oil- ɔɪl/; medial position as in noise-/nɔɪs/; and final position as in poison-/pɔɪzn/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Point	/pɔɪnt/	Noise	/nɔɪs/	Voice	/vɔɪs/
Boy	/bɔɪ/	Loyal	/lɔɪəl/	Soil	/sɔɪl/
Toy	/tɔɪ/	Royal	/rɔɪəl/	Hoist	/hɔɪst/
Doyle	/dɔɪl/	Foil	/fɔɪl/	Choice	/tʃɔɪs/
Coin	/kɔɪn/	Joint	/dʒɔɪnt/	Moist	/mɔɪst/

4. /əʊ/ as in slow-/sl əʊ/:

Articulation: RP / əʊ/ is a glide from /ə/ to /ʊ/, and so the glide begins from central unrounded vowel between half close and half open position and moves to back rounded vowel just above half close position. The lips are rounded at first and later loosely spread, while the glide is pronounced. The diphthong is rising, closing and narrow glide.

Distribution: The diphthong /əʊ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in own-/ əʊn/; medial position as in boat- /bəʊt/; and final position as in slow-/sl əʊ /.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Post	/pəʊst/	Joseph	/dʒəʊzɪf/	Though	/ ð əʊ/
Both	/bəʊ θ /	Motion	/məʊʃn/	Sole/soul	/səʊl/
Tone	/təʊn/	No/know	/nəʊ/	Zone	/zəʊn/
Don't	/dəʊnt/	Loaf	/ləʊf/	Show	/ʃəʊ/
Cold	/kəʊld/	Foe	/fəʊ/	Hope	/həʊp/
Go	/gəʊ/	Roll	/rəʊ/	Yoke/yolk	/jəʊk/
Choke	/tʃəʊk/	Vote	/vəʊt/	Won't	/wəʊnt/

5. /aʊ/ as in cow- /kaʊ/:

Articulation: RP / aʊ/ is a glide from /a/ to /ʊ/ and so the glide begins from back unrounded vowel just above open position and moves to back rounded vowel just above half close position. The lips are neutral at first and later rounded, while the glide is pronounced. The diphthong is rising, closing and wide glide.

Distribution: The diphthong /aʊ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in owl-/ aʊl/; medial position as in town-/taʊn/; and final position as in how-/haʊ/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Pound	/paʊnd/	Mouth	/maʊ θ /	Thou	/ð aʊ/
Bough/bow	/baʊ/	Loud	/laʊd/	Sou	/saʊ/
Town	/taʊn/	Row	/raʊ/	Resound	/rɪzaʊnd/
Doubt	/daʊt/	Wound(V)	/waʊnd/	Shout	/ʃaʊt/
Cow	/kaʊ/	Fowl/foul	/faʊ/	Howl	/haʊl/
Gown	/gaʊn/	Round	/raʊnd/	How	/haʊ/
Choke	/tʃaʊk/	Vow	/vaʊ/	Crowd	/kraʊd/

6. /eə/ as in air:

Articulation:RP /eə/ is a glide from /e/ to /ə/ and so the glide begins from the front unrounded vowel between half close and half open position and moves towards the central unrounded vowel just above half open position. The lips are neutral while the glide is pronounced. The diphthong is falling, centering and narrow glide.

Distribution: The diphthong /eə / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in area-/eə r iə/; medial position as in caring-/keətɪn/; and final position as in hare-/heə/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Air	/eə/	Pair	/peə/	bear	/beə/
Pear	/peə/	Tear (V)	/teə/	Dare	/deə/
Care	/keə/	Chair	/tʃeə/	Fair	/feə/
Vary	/veə/	Sarah	/seərə/	Share	/ʃeə/
Heir	/(h)eə/	Hair	/heə/	Wear	/weə/

2.4 The Description and Classification of English Consonants

Consonants can be best described in terms of their articulation and for such description, the following need to be answered:

- Is the airstream mechanism for the sounds provided by the lungs or some other organs?
- Is the air forced out or drawn in?
- Do the vocal chords vibrate or not?
- Is the soft palate raised or lowered?
- At what point does the articulation take place?
- What is the manner of articulation?

Of the above questions, the first and the second questions have the answer of **pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism used in English phonology**. The fourth question also has the answer that all sounds in English are **oral** except /m, n, ŋ/ which are **nasal**. So of the above questions, question number 3, 5 and 6 are essential for the description of consonants. Accordingly, the following three aspects become the three term label to describe a consonant sound.

1. Voiced/voiceless
2. Place of Articulation
3. Manner of Articulation

According to these three aspects, the consonants are classified and described.

1. **Voiced/ voiceless or the Position of Vocal cords:**

Vocal cords, lip like structures situated horizontally in the wind pipe (trachea) are closed at one end and open at the other end. This enables them to assume a large number of positions. Three positions of vocal cords are important in relation to the production of speech sounds. They can be drawn wide apart, they can be held loosely together, or they can be held tightly together. The gap between the vocal cords is called **glottis**. When the vocal cords are drawn wide apart, the glottis is wide open and the air passes without causing any friction or disturbance. Thus, a **voiceless sound** is produced. When the vocal cords are loosely held together, the air passes through the glottis by causing certain disturbance or friction and thus, a **voiced sound** is produced.

2. **The Place of Articulation:**

The second of the three terms of a consonant sound depends on the place of articulation. The organs situated in the lower jaw move from their position to articulate with organs situated in the upper jaw. The organs that move from their original place to articulate are called **active articulators** while that do not move are called **passive articulators**. The place of articulation is named after the passive articulator. This is done because all the sounds except Bilabials (articulated with the help of two lips) and Labio-Dental sounds (articulated with the help of lower teeth and upper lip) are articulated with the tongue as the active articulator.

Bilabial: Sounds articulated by two lips are called bilabial sounds. They are either voiced or voiceless. Their examples are the initial sound in the words- ‘pat, bat, mat, was’ which are represented by the symbols /p/, /b/, /m/, and /w/ respectively.

Labio-dental: Sounds articulated by the lower lip and the upper teeth are called labio-dental sounds. Their examples are the initial sounds in the English words ‘fat’ and ‘van’ represented by symbols /f/ and /v/ respectively.

Dental: Sounds articulated by the tip of the tongue against the teeth are called dental sounds. Their examples are the initial sound in the English words ‘thing’ and ‘that’ represented by symbols /θ/ and /ð/ respectively.

Alveolar: Sounds articulated by the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge (also called alveolar ridge) are called alveolar sounds. Their examples are the initial sound in the English words ‘take’, ‘don’, ‘late’, ‘nose’, ‘say’, ‘zoo’ represented by symbols /t/, /d/, /l/, /n/, /s/, /z/ respectively.

Post alveolar: Sounds articulated by the tip of the tongue against the back of the teeth ridge are called post alveolar sounds. The example is the initial sound in the English word ‘rain’ represented by symbol /r/.

Palato-alveolar: Sounds articulated by the tip of the tongue against teeth ridge with the front of the tongue raised towards the hard palate are called palate-alveolar sounds. Their examples are the initial sounds in the English words ‘chain’ and ‘shame’ represented by symbols /tʃ/ and /ʃ/ respectively.

Palatal: Sounds articulated by the front of the tongue against the hard palate are called palatal sounds. The example is the initial sound in the English word ‘yes’ represented by symbol /j/.

Velar: Sounds articulated by the back of the tongue against the soft palate are called velar sounds. Their examples are the initial sound in the English words ‘kite and go’, and the final sound in the word ‘king’ represented by symbols /k/, /g/, /ŋ/ respectively.

Glottal: Sound produced by an obstruction or narrowing between the vocal cords is called glottal sound. The example is the initial sound in the English word ‘hen’ represented by symbol /h/.

3. The Manner of Articulation:

The manner of articulation refers to the way air escapes through the closure and kind of closure or narrowing involved. The third term of a consonant sound is given after the manner of the articulation of that sound. The various ways in which English consonants are produced can be studied under following categories.

Plosive: The active articulator makes a contact with the passive articulator to form a complete closure. Soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage. There is, first, a complete closure of the passage of air at some point in the vocal tract. As a result of it, air pressure is built up behind the closure. The closure is then suddenly removed. This causes a sudden release of the blocked air with explosive noise or plosion. Hence the sound is called plosive. Examples of plosive sounds in the English are the initial sounds in the words ‘pin’, ‘ball’, ‘talk’, ‘dog’, ‘kite’, and ‘gang’ represented by symbols /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/

Affricates: The active articulator makes a contact with the passive articulator to form a complete closure. The soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage. As a result of it, the air pressure is built up behind the closure. The closure is then slowly removed to release the air gradually. Because of a slow separation of the articulators, affricates are characterized by some audible friction, not by an explosive noise as heard in the case of plosives. The example are the initial sounds in the English words ‘chair’ and ‘jug’ represented by symbols /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ respectively.

Nasal: The active articulator makes a contact with the passive articulator to form a complete closure in the oral passage. The nasal passage remains open due to the lowering of the soft palate or velum. Thus, the air to be released can pass only through the nasal cavity and so are called as nasals. The examples are initial sounds in the English words ‘man’ and ‘nest’ and the final sound in the English word ‘sing’ represented by /m/, /n/, /ŋ/ respectively.

Roll (or trill): It involves the closure of intermittent closure. As against the plosives, the affricates, and the nasals, the closure in this case is one of an interrupted kind. The tip of the tongue taps against the alveolar ridge (or just behind it) several times, so that the air can pass only intermittently between the articulators. Example: the initial sound in the Scottish English words like ‘rat’ and ‘red’ i.e /r/

Tap: In the production of a tap, one articulator moves towards another, makes a momentary contact, and immediately withdraws to its position of rest. Example: the /r/ sound in the English word 'very'.

Flap: As in case of a tap, in the production of a flap too, one articulator starts out towards another and makes a momentary contact with it. But in this case, it does so only in passing and then moves to another position. Example: A typical example is the retroflex flap /ɾ/.

Lateral: The active articulator makes a contact with the passive articulator to form a partial closure. The soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage. The air stream can escape from one side or from both the sides of the contact. Since the air can pass continuously, the sound produced is a continuant i.e. it can be continued, unlike the plosives and affricates. The example is the initial sound in the English word 'let' represented by the sound /l/.

Fricative: The active articulator comes very close to the passive articulator to form a narrowing. There is no closure at any point in the vocal tract. The soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage. When the air passes through the narrow gap between the articulators, it causes audible friction. Hence, the sounds are called as fricatives. Fricatives are continuously accompanied by audible friction. Examples are the initial sounds of the English words 'fail', 'very', 'think', 'that', 'see', 'zoo', 'shine', and 'hat' represented by symbols /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ and /h/ respectively.

Frictionless continuant: The active articulator comes close to the passive articulator to form a narrowing of lesser degree i.e. the articulators do not come so close to each other unlike in case of fricatives. There is no closure at any point in the vocal tract. The soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage. Hence, the air is released without audible friction. Such a sound is a frictionless continuant. The example is the initial sound in the word 'run' represented by the symbol /r/.

Semi-vowel: Semivowels are essentially short approximants. They are rapid glides from a vowel towards another vowel of greater steady duration. They differ from both approximants and vowels in that they are momentary in nature, and cannot be prolonged. Examples are initial sounds in the words 'watch' and 'yes' represented by symbols /w/ and /j/ respectively.

2.4.1 English Consonants: Plosives

According to the manner of articulation, consonants in English can be classified as Plosives, Affricates, Fricatives, Nasals, Lateral, Frictionless continuant and Semi-vowels.

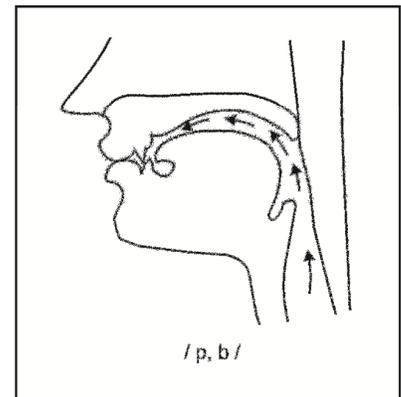
Plosives in English: A plosive consonant is produced by:

- a **complete closure of the nasal** passage due to the raise of the soft palate;
- a **complete closure of the oral** passage by a firm contact being made between the active and the passive articulators in the oral cavity;
- the holding of the closure and **compression of the air** coming from the lungs;
- a sudden release of air with a **slight explosive sound**.

There are 06 plosives in English- /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/ and /g/.

1. /p/ as in pin-/pen/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made by both the lips, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the mouth closure is released,



the air that is held up is then suddenly released with an explosive sound. The vocal cords are held apart when the sound is produced.

Three-term label: Thus, /p/ is a **Voiceless-Bilabial- Plosive**.

Distribution: The consonant / **p** / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in pet-/pen/; medial position as in spin-/spin/; and final position as in tip -/tip/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Peel	/pi:l/	Public	/pʌblik/	Poor	/pʊə /
Pill	/pil/	Purse	/pɜ:s/	Capable	/peɪpəbl/
Pencil	/pensl/	Pail	/peɪl/	Happy	/hæpi/
Pack	/pæk/	Post	/pəʊ st/	Pepper	/pepə/
Pass	/pɑ:s/	Pie	/paɪ/	People	/pi:pl/
Pocket	/pɒkɪt/	Power	/paʊə/	Lip	/lɪp/
Paw	/pɔ:/	Point	/pɔɪ nt/	Map	/mæp/
Pull	/pul/	Pier	/pɪə /	Spoon	/spu:n/
Pool	/pu:l/	Pair	/pɛə /	Spend	/spend/
Peech	/pi:tʃ /	Pour	/pʊə /	Spot	/spɒt/

2. **/b/ as in Best-/best/:**

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made by both the lips, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the mouth closure is released, the air held up is then suddenly released with an explosive sound. The vocal cords vibrate when the sound is produced.

Three-term label: Thus, /b/ is a **Voiced-Bilabial- Plosive**.

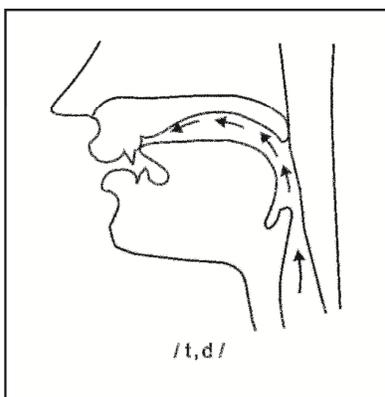
Distribution: The consonant / **b** / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in bat-/b æ t/; medial position as in about- /əbaut/, rub-/r ʌ b/)

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Bee	/bi:/	Burn	/bɜ:n/	Robin	/rɒbɪn/
Bid	/bɪd/	Bay	/beɪ/	Bubble	/bʌbl/
Bed	/bed/	Boat	/b əʊ t/	Web	/web/
Bad	/bæd/	Buy	/baɪ/	October	/əktəʊbə/
Bark	/bɑ:k/	Bough	/baʊ/	Bulb	/bʌlb/
Box	/bɒks/	Boy	/bɔɪ /	Tribe	/traɪb/
Bought	/bɔ:t/	Beer	/bɪə /	Bomb	/bɒm/
Bull	/bul/	Bear	/bɛə /	Comb	/ku:m/
Boot	/bu:t/	Boar	/bʊə /	Lamb	/læm/
Bud	/bʌd/	Boor	/bʊə /	Debt	/det/

3. /t/ as in Ten-/ten/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made between the tip and blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the mouth closure is released, the air held up is then suddenly released with an explosive sound. The vocal cords are held apart when the sound is produced.



Three-term label: Thus, /t/ is a **Voiceless-Alveolar- Plosive**.

Distribution: The consonant / t / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as inten-/ten/; medial position as in attend-/ətend/; and final position as in text-/tekst/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Tea	/ti:/	Turn	/t ɜ:n/	Writing	/raɪtɪ ŋ/
Tin	/tɪn/	Take	/teɪk/	Water	/wɔ:tə/
Tell	/tel/	Toast	/təʊst/	Native	/neɪtɪv/
Attack	/ətæk/	Time	/taɪm/	Theatre	/ θiətə/
Task	/tɑ:sk/	Toy	/tɔɪ /	Potato	/pteɪtəʊ/
Top	/tɒp/	Town	/taʊn/	Constitute	/kənstɪtju:t/
Talk	/t ɔ:k/	Tear (N)	/tiə/	Print	/prɪnt/
Took	/tuk/	Tear (V)	/teə/	Profit	/prɒfɪt/
Two	/tu:/	Tour	/tuə/	Doubt	/daʊt/
Tumble	/tʌmbəl/	Tore	/tuə/	Teller	/telə/

4. /d/as in deep-/di:p/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made between the tip and blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the mouth closure is released, the air held up is then suddenly released with an explosive sound. The vocal cords vibrate when the sound is produced.

Three-term label: Thus, /d/ is a **Voiced-Alveolar- Plosive**.

Distribution: The consonant / d / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as indone-/dʌn/; medial position as in addition-/ədɪʃn/; and final position as in made-/meɪd/.

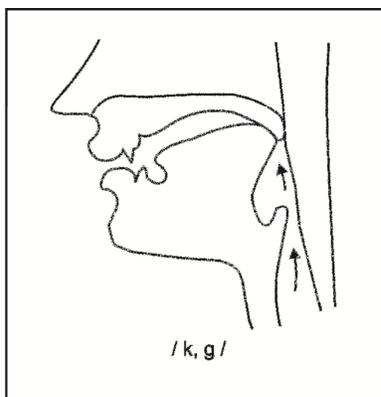
Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Deal	/di:l/	Dome	/dəʊm/	Lead (N)	/led/
Did	/dɪd/	Dine	/daɪn/	Hard	/hɑ:d/
Dash	/dæʃ/	Down	/daʊn/	Load	/ləʊd/
Dark	/dɑ:k/	Dear	/diə/	Wood	/wʊd/
Dog	/dɒg/	Dare	/deə/	Mad	/mæd/
Door	/dɔ:/	Hiding	/haɪdɪ/	Said	/sed/
Doom	/du:m/	Louder	/laʊdə/	Kindle	/kɪndl/
Dust	/dʌst/	Garden	/gɑ:dn/	Cuddle	/kʌdl/

Dirt	/d ɜ:t/	Middle	/midl/	Redden	/redn/
Date	/deɪt/	Lead (V)	/li:d/	Debt	/det/

5. /k/ as in keep-/ki:p/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made between the back of the tongue and the tip of the soft palate called as the velum, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the mouth closure is released, the air held up is then suddenly released with an explosive sound. The vocal cords are held apart when the sound is produced.



Three-term label: Thus, /k/ is a **Voiceless-Velar- Plosive**.

Distribution: The consonant / k / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as incup-/kʌp/; medial position as in sticker-/stikə/; and final position as in

neck-/nek/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Key	/ki:/	Carve	/ka:v/	Cooking	/kuki/
Kill	/kil/	Cold	/kəuld/	Rocky	/rki/
Kettle	/ketl/	Kind	/kaind/	Leak	/li:k/
Cat	/kæt/	Cow	/kau/	Cake	/keik/
Cart	/ka:t/	Coil	/k ɔɪ l/	Pack	/pk/
Collar	/kɒlə/	Kier	/kiə/	Duke	/dju:k/
Cushion	/kuʃn/	Care	/keə/	Kill	/kil/
Cool	/ku:l/	Coarse	/kə:s/	Pack	/pæk/
Cut	/kʌt/	Course	/kə:s/	Cake	/keik/
Curl	/k ɜ:l/	Acre	/eɪkə/	Come	/kʌm/

6. /g/ as in gun-/gʌn/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made between the back of the tongue and the tip of the soft palate called as the velum, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the mouth closure is released, the air held up is then suddenly released with an explosive sound. The vocal cords vibrate when the sound is produced.

Three-term label: Thus, /g/ is a **Voiceless-Velar- Plosive**.

Distribution: The consonant / g / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as ingame-/geim/; medial position as in again- /əgeɪn/; and final position as in dog-/dɒg/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Geese	/gi:s/	Girl	/g ɜ:l/	Big	/big/
Give	/gɪv/	Gate	/geɪt/	Egg	/eg/

Guess	/ges/	Goat	/gəʊt/	Log	/lɒg/
Gas	/gæs/	Guide	/gaɪd/	Mug	/mʌg/
Guard	/gɑ:d/	Gown	/gaʊn/	Gather	/gæə/
Got	/gɒt/	Gear	/giə/	Gross	/grəʊs/
Gauze	/gɔ:z/	Eager	/i:gə/	Gravy	/greɪvi/
Good	/gʊd/	Tiger	/taɪgə/	Beggar	/begə/
Goose	/gu:s/	Organ	/ɔ:gən/	Shrug	/ʃrʌg/
Gum	/gʌm/	Sugar	/ʃʊgə/	Hug	/hʌg/

2.4.2 English Consonants: Affricates

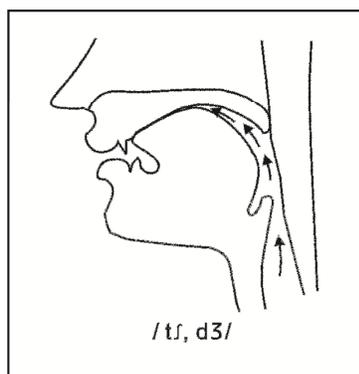
An affricate consonant is produced by:

- A complete closure of the nasal passage of air due to the rise of the soft palate;
- The complete closure of the oral passage by a firm contact being made between the active and the passive articulators in the oral cavity;
- the holding of the closure and **compression of the air** coming from the lungs;
- A **slow release of air causing friction**.

There are two affricates in English language - /tʃ/ and /dʒ/.

7. /tʃ/ as in church - /tʃɜ:tʃ/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made between the tip and blade of the tongue and alveolar ridge. The front of the tongue is also raised in the direction of the hard palate, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the tip of the tongue and the blade are removed from the alveolar ridge, the air held up is slowly released with friction. The vocal cords are drawn wide apart to let the air pass without friction.



Three-term label: Thus, /tʃ/ is a **Voiceless – Palato-alveolar-Affricate**.

Distribution: The consonant /tʃ/ occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as inchain-/tʃeɪn/; medial position as in matches-/mætʃɪz/; and final position as in batch, /bætʃ/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Cheep	/tʃi:p/	Picture	/pɪktʃə/	Porch	/pɔ:tʃ/
Chin	/tʃɪn/	Chain	/tʃeɪn/	Much	/mʌtʃ/
Chess	/tʃes/	Choke	/tʃəʊk/	Birch	/bɜ:tʃ/
Champ	/tʃæmp/	Child	/tʃaɪld/	H	/eɪtʃ/
Charm	/tʃɑ:m/	Choice	/tʃɔɪs/	Broach	/brəʊtʃ/
Chop	/tʃɒp/	Cheer	/tʃɪə/	Couch	/kaʊtʃ/
Chalk	/tʃɔ:k/	Chair	/tʃeə/	Check	/tʃek/
Choose	/tʃu:z/	Each	/i:tʃ/	Chamber	/tʃæmbə/
Chum	/tʃʌm/	Ditch	/dɪtʃ/	Chance	/tʃɑ:ns/
Church	/tʃɜ:tʃ/	Sketch	/sketʃ/	Bachelor	/bætʃələ/

8. /dʒ/ as in Judge-/ dʒʌdʒ/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. A complete closure is formed in the oral cavity by a firm contact made between the tip and blade of the tongue and alveolar ridge. The front of the tongue is also raised in the direction of the hard palate, so that the air pressure is built behind the closure and the air coming from the lungs is held up in the oral cavity. When the tip of the tongue and the blade are removed from the alveolar ridge, the air held up is slowly released with friction. The vocal cords vibrate while the sound is pronounced.

Three-term label: Thus, / dʒ / is a **Voiced – Palato-alveolar- Affricate**.

Distribution: The consonant /dʒ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in jug -/ dʒ ʌ g/; medial position as in stages-/ /steɪdʒɪz/; and final position as in badge-/ bædʒ/ .

Examples:

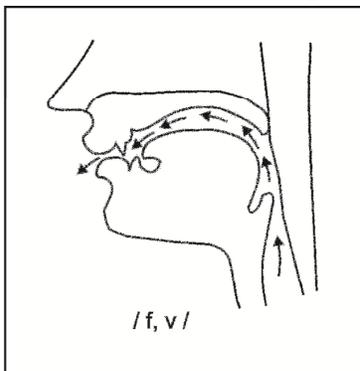
Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Jean	/dʒi:n/	Injure	/ɪndʒə /	Jelly	/dʒeli/
Jig	/dʒɪg/	James	/dʒeɪms/	Joker	/dʒəʊkə /
Gem	/dʒem/	Gibe	/dʒaɪb/	Jolly	/dʒɒli/
Jack	/dʒ æ k/	Joy	/dʒ ɔɪ /	Joseph	/dʒəʊzɪf/
Jar	/dʒɑ:/	Jeer	/dʒiə /	Joe	/dʒəʊ/
Job	/dʒɒb/	Bridge	/brɪdʒ/	Jesus	/dʒi:səs/
June	/dʒu:n/	Large	/lɑ:dʒ/	Barge	/bɑ:dʒ/
Just	/dʒʌst/	George	/dʒɔ:dʒ/	Siege	/si:dʒ/
Journey	/dʒ ɜ:ni/	Age	/eɪdʒ/	Message	/mesɪdʒ/
Joke	/dʒ ə uk/	Beige	/beɪdʒ/	Massage	/m əseɪdʒ/

2.4.3 English Consonants:Fricatives

Fricatives are the friction consonants which are produced with close approximation stricture, i.e., the active articulator is brought very close to the passive articulator so that the gap between them is very narrow. The air escapes through this narrow gap with audible friction. There are nine fricatives in English-/f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ and /h/.

9. /f/ as in fan-/fæn/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The lower lip comes very close to the upper teeth to form a narrow space through which the air coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords are drawn wide apart during the articulation of the sound.



Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiceless - Labio-dental – Fricative**.

Distribution: The consonant /f / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in fan-/ fa:/; medial position as in after-/a:ftə /; and in final position as in half-/ha:f/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Feed	/fi:d/	Fir	/f ɜ:/	Fowl	/faʊl/
Fit	/fɪt/	Fur	/f ɜ:/	Safe	/seɪf/

Fence	/fens/	Fail	/feil/	Loaf	/ləuf/
Fat	/f æ t/	Fold	/fəuld/	Half	/hɑ:f/
Farm	/fɑ:m/	Fine	/fain/	Father	/fɑ:ðə/
Fond	/fɒnd/	Found	/faund/	Famous	/feiməs/
Force	/fɔ:s/	Foil	/fɔɪl/	Fickle	/fɪkl/
Foot	/fut/	Fear	/fiə/	Fish	/fiʃ/
Food	/fu:d/	Fair	/feə/	Finish	/finiʃ/
Fun	/fʌn/	Foul	/faul/	Further	/fɜ:ðə/

10. /v/ as in Van-/væn/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The lower lip comes very close to the upper teeth to form a narrow space through which the air coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords vibrate during the articulation of the sound.

Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiced - Labio-dental – Fricative.**

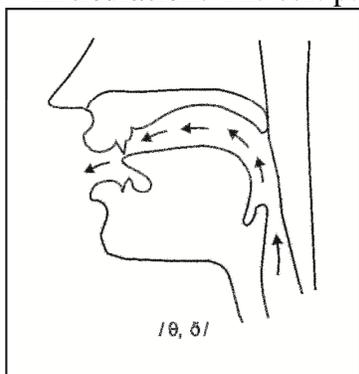
Distribution: The consonant /v/ occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in *vet* /vet/; medial position as in *never* /nevə /; and in final position as in *leave* /li:v/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Veal	/vi:l/	Van	/v æ n/	Venom	/vinəm/
Vet	/vet/	Vamp	/v æ mp/	Veteran	/vətərən/

11. /θ/ as in theatre-/θiətə/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The tip of the tongue makes a light contact with the upper teeth and leaves a narrow space in between through which the air coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords are drawn wide apart during the articulation of the sound.



Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiceless - Dental – Fricative.**

Distribution: The consonant / θ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in *thin* /θin/; medial position as in *paths* /pa:θs/; and in final position as in *bath* /ba:θ /.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Theme	/θi:m/	Thwart	/θwɔ:t/	Method	/meθəd/
Thin	/θin/	Heath	/hi:θ/	Author	/ɔ:θə/
Theft	/θeft/	Smith	/smiθ/	Sympathy	/sɪmpəθi/
Thank	/θæŋk/	Breath	/bri:θ/	Ether	/i:θə/
Thong	/θɒŋ/	Bath	/bɑ:θ/	Thirty	/θɜ:ti/
Thought	/θɔ:t/	North	/nɔ:θ/	Thousand	/θaʊzənd/
Thumb	/θʌm/	Truth	/truθ/	Things	/θɪŋz/
Third	/θɜ:d/	Birth	/bɜ:θ/	Thirst	/θɜ:st/
Thermometer	/θəmətə: mit ə/	Both	/bəʊθ/	Throb	/θrɒb/
Three	/θri:/	Mouth	/mauθ/	Thud	/θʌd/

12. /ð/ as in brother-/brʌðə/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The tip of the tongue makes a light contact with the upper teeth and leaves a narrow space in between through which the air coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords vibrate during the articulation of the sound.

Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiced - Dental – Fricative**.

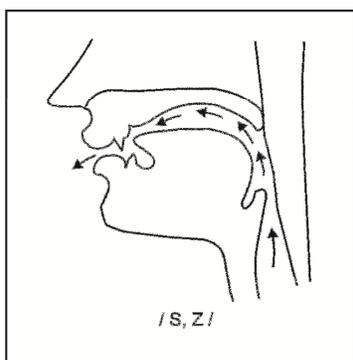
Distribution: The consonant / ð / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in this-/ðis/; medial position as in rather-/ra:ðə /; and in final position as in bathe-/bei ð/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
These	/ði:z/	They	/ðei/	Breathe	/bri:ð/
This	/ðis/	Though	/ðau/	With	/wið/
Then	/ðen/	Thy	/ðai/	Bathe	/beið/
That	/ðæt/	Thou	/ðəu/	Loathe	/ləuð/
Thus	/ðʌs/	There	/ðeə/	Worthy	/wɜ:ði/
Scythe	/saið/	Father	/fa:ðə/	Brother	/brʌðə/

13. /s/ as in sit-/sit/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The tip of the tongue comes very close to the upper teeth ridge or alveolar ridge to form a narrow space through which the air coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords are drawn wide apart during the articulation of the sound.



Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiceless - Alveolar – Fricative**.

Distribution: The consonant / s / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in sin-/sin/; medial position as in beside- /bisaid/; and final position as in miss-/mis/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
See	/si:/	So	/səu/	Soar	/s v ə /
Sit	/sit/	Sound	/saund/	Sore	/s v ə /
Sell	/sel/	Sigh	/sai/	This	/ ð is/
Sat	/s æ t/	Soil	/s ɔɪl/	Less	/les/
Psalm	/sa:m/	Sow	/səu/	Pass	/pa:s/
Song	/sɒŋ/	Suit	/su:t/	Gross	/grəʊs/
Sing	/si ŋ /	Same	/seim/	Course	/k ɔ:s/
Soot	/sut/	Say	/sei/	Places	/pleisiz/
Son	/s ʌ n/	Serious	/siəriəs/	Scarce	/skeis/
Certain	/s ɜ:tn/	Sarah	/seərə/	Ceases	/si:ziz/

14. /z/ as in zoo-/zu:/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The tip of the tongue comes very close to the upper teeth ridge or alveolar ridge to form a narrow space through which the air

coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords vibrate during the articulation of the sound.

Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiced - Alveolar – Fricative**.

Distribution: The consonant / z / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in zip-/zip/; medial position as in lazy-leiz/; and final position as in maze-/meiz/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Zeal	/zi:l/	Deceases	/dezi:ziz/	Sissors	/siziz/
Zest	/zest/	Zones	/zəun/	Reserves	/riz ɜ:vz/

15. /ʃ/ as in ship-/ʃip/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. In the oral cavity, the tip and blade of the tongue are raised towards the alveolar ridge. The front of the tongue is also raised in the direction of the hard palate to form a narrow space through which the air coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords are drawn wide apart during the articulation of the sound.

Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiceless–Palato-alveolar– Fricative**.

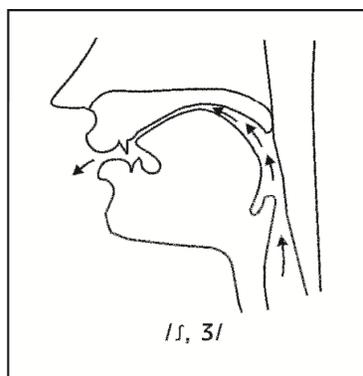
Distribution: The consonant / ʃ / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in shine-/ ʃain/; medial position as in ashes-/ æʃiz/; and final position as in trash-/tr æʃ/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Sheaf	/ʃi:f/	Shake	/ʃeik/	Bush	/buʃ/
Ship	/ʃip/	Show	/ʃəu/	Marsh	/ma:ʃ/
Shell	/ʃel/	Shy	/ʃai/	Ash	/æʃ/
Shadow	/ʃdəu/	Shout	/ʃaut/	Squash	/skw ɒʃ /
sharp	/ʃa:p/	Shear	/ʃiə/	Mash	/ma:ʃ/
Shock	/ʃ ɒ k/	Share	/ʃeə/	Lash	/l æ ʃ/
Shaw	/ʃ ɔ:/	Shure	/ʃu:/	Vicious	/viʃəs/
Shoes	/ʃu:z/	Sure	/ʃuə/	Precious	/preʃəs/
Shirt	/ʃ ɜ:t/	Fish	/fiʃ/	Wash	/w ɒ ʃ/
Shut	/ʃ ʌ t/	Cash	/k æ ʃ/	Trash	/tr æ ʃ/

16. /ʒ/ as in pleasure-/ple ʒ ə/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. In the oral cavity, the tip and blade of the tongue are raised towards the alveolar ridge. The front of the tongue is also raised in the direction of the hard palate to form a narrow space through which the air coming from the lungs passes out with audible friction. The vocal cords vibrate during the articulation of the sound.



Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiced–Palato-alveolar– Fricative**.

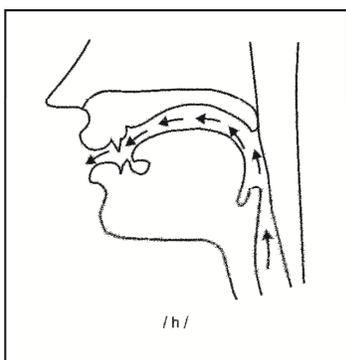
Distribution: The consonant / ʒ / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in genre-/ ʒɒnrə/; medial position as in leisure-/leʒə/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Seizure	/si:zə/	Enclosure	/ɪnkləʊzə/	Garage	/g æ rɑ:ʒ/
Pleasure	/plezə/	Leisure	/leɪzə/	Rouge	/ru:ʒ/
Treasure	/treɪzə/	Prestige	/prɪsti:ʒ/	Barrage	/b æ rɑ:ʒ/

17. /h/ as in hat/hæt/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. During the articulation of /h/, the air from the lungs escapes through a narrow glottis with audible friction. The vocal cords are drawn wide apart during the articulation of the sound.



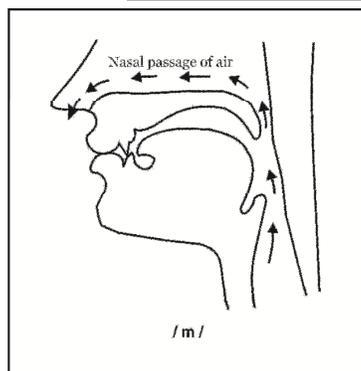
Three-term label: Hence, the sound is labeled as **Voiceless - Glottal- Fricative**.

Distribution: The consonant / h / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in house-/haus/; medial position as in behind-/bihaind/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Heat	/hi:t/	Hay	/hei/	Head-ache	/hedeɪk/
Hill	/hil/	Hi	/hai/	Hare	/heə/
Hen	/hen/	Hello	/heləʊ/	Hammer	/h æ mə/
Hat	/hæt/	Hold	/həʊld/	Behold	/bi'həʊld/
Hard	/hɑ:d/	High	/hai/	Behalf	/bi'hɑ:f/
Horn	/hɔ:n/	How	/hau/	Behind	/bi'haind/
Hop	/hɒp/	Hoist	/hɔɪst/	Childhood	/tʃaɪldhʊd/
Hoof	/hu:f/	Here	/hiə/	Hand	/hænd/
Hut	/hʌt/	Hair	/heə/	Handkerchief	/hɑŋkətʃi:f/
Hurt	/hɜ:t/	Behave	/bi'heɪv/	Harm	/hɑ:m/

2.4.4 English Consonants: Nasals



Nasal consonants are produced by:

- A complete closure in the oral cavity;
- The holding of the closure and compression of the air coming from the lungs;
- The lowering of the soft palate so that the air comes out from the nose.

There are three nasal sounds in English phonology, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/.

18. /m/ as in mill-/mil/:

Articulation: The lower lip makes a contact with the upper lip to form a complete closure in the oral cavity. The soft palate is lowered to open the nasal passage. The air coming from the lungs escapes through the nasal passage. The vocal cords vibrate while the sound is pronounced.

There-term label: Hence, the /m/ is labeled as a **Voiced – bilabial – nasal**.

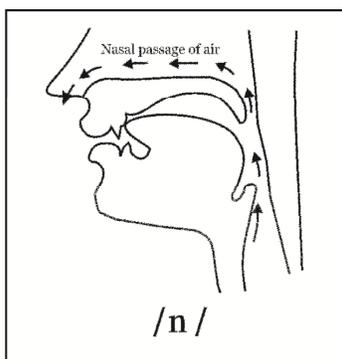
Distribution: The consonant / m / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in man-/mæn/; medial position as in amount-/əmaunt/; and final position as in ram-/ræm/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Mean	/mi:n/	Make	/meik/	Mnemonic	/nim ə:nik/
Mint	/mint/	Method	/meθəd/	Summer	/s ʌ mə/
Men	/men/	Ram	/ræm/	Thumb	/θ ʌ m/
Man	/mæn/	Come	/k ʌ m/	Lamb	/læm/

19. /n/ as in nib-/nib/:

Articulation: The tip of the tongue makes a contact with the alveolar ridge to form a complete closure in the oral cavity. The soft palate is lowered to open the nasal passage. The air coming from the lungs escapes through the nasal passage. The vocal cords vibrate while the sound is pronounced.



Three term label: Hence, the /n/ is labeled as a **Voiced – Alveolar – Nasal**.

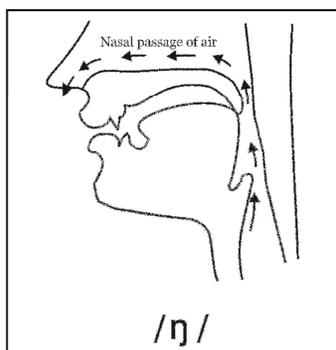
Distribution: The consonant / n / occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English-initial position as in net-/net/; medial as in announce/ənauns/; and final position as in ban -/bæn/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Neat	/ni:t/	No	/nəu/	Cotton	/k ɒ t n/
Nimble	/nimbl/	Nun	/n ʌ n/	Hidden	/hidn/
Nest	/nest/	Nasty	/na:sti/	Linen	/linin/
Name	/neim/	Neither	/nai ðə/	Nine	/nain/

20. /ŋ/ as in king-/kiŋ /:

Articulation: The back of the tongue makes a firm contact with the velum, the extreme tip of the soft palate to form a complete closure in the oral cavity. The soft palate is lowered to open the nasal passage. The air coming from the lungs escapes through the nasal passage. The vocal cords vibrate while the sound is pronounced.



Three term label: Hence, the / ŋ / is labeled as a **Voiced – Velar – Nasal**.

Distribution: The consonant / ŋ / occurs in the word medial and final positions in English- medial as in singing-/si ŋ i ŋ/; and final position as in sing -/siŋ/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Bring	/brɪŋ/	Singer	/sɪŋə/	Handkerchief	/hæŋkətʃɪf/
Song	/s ɒ ŋ/	Longest	/l ɒ ŋɪst/	Younger	/j ʌ ŋgə/
Long	/l ɒ ŋ/	Anger	/æŋgə/	Finger	/fɪŋgə/
Rung	/r ʌ ŋ/	Anchor	/æŋkə/	Rung	/r ʌ ŋ/

2.4.5 English Consonants: Lateral

A lateral consonant is articulated with the manner of articulation of complete closure in the central part of the vocal tract. The sides of the tongue are lowered and the air escapes along the sides of the mouth. In English there is only one lateral sound-/l/.

21. /l/ as in leave-/li:v/:



The soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage of air. The tip of the tongue makes a firm contact with the teeth ridge or alveolar ridge to form a complete closure along the center of the oral tract. The sides or the rims of the tongue are lowered and the air from the lungs escapes along the sides of the tongue without any friction. The vocal cords vibrate producing voice.

Three-term label: Hence, the sound /l/ is labeled as a **Voiced – Alveolar – Lateral**. **Distribution:** The consonant /l/ occurs in the word initial, medial and final positions in English- initial position as in late-/leit/; medial as in believe-/bili:v/; and final position as in bell-/bel/.

Examples:

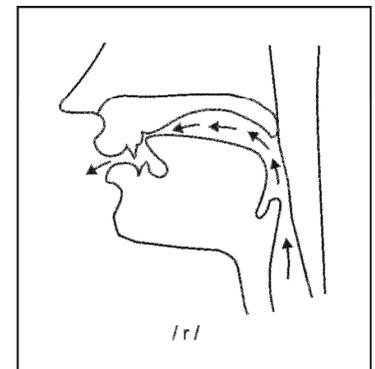
Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Leave	/li:v/	Learn	/l ɜ:n/	Calling	/k ɒ li ŋ /
Little	/litl/	Lake	/leik/	Double	/d ʌ bl/
Let	/let/	Loaf	/ləuf/	Noble	/nəubl/
Lamb	/læm/	Line	/lain/	Small	/smɒl/
Large	/la: dʒ /	Loud	/ləud/	Candle	/kændl/
Long	/l ɒ ŋ /	Employ	/impl ɔɪ /	Field	/fi:ld/
Law	/l ɔ:/	Clear	/kliə/	Cold	/kəuld/
Look	/lʊk/	Flare	/fleə/	Should	/ʃud/
Lose	/lu:z/	Cellar	/selə/	Bulk	/b ʌ lk/
Love	/l ʌ v/	Jelly	/dʒ eli/	Pulpit	/pʊlpit/

2.4.6 English Consonants:Frictionless continuant

A frictionless continuant is articulated with the manner of articulation of open approximation, where the active articulator is raised in the direction of the passive articulator in such a way that the air coming out from the lungs escapes through the gap without any friction. Thus frictionless continuants are **vowel-like** in their articulation. In English there is one frictionless continuant sound-/r/.

22. /r/ as in red-/red/:

Articulation: RP /r/ is articulated with the tip of the tongue being raised in the direction of the hinder part of the teeth ridge or the alveolar ridge. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage of air. The air escapes continuously through the gap between the tip of the tongue and post-alveolar region without any friction. The vocal cords vibrate to produce voice.



Three term label: Hence, the English /r/ is labeled as a **Voiced – Post-alveolar – Frictionless Continuant**.

Distribution: The consonant / r / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in *rat*-/ræt/; and medial as in *sorry*-sɒri/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Reason	/ri:zn/	Race	/reis/	Car	/ka:/
Rid	/rid/	Rope	/rəʊp/	Far	/fa:/
Red	/red/	Right	/rait/	Mark	/ma:k/
Rash	/r æʃ /	Round	/raʊnd/	Short	/ʃɔ:t/
Raft	/ra:ft/	Royal	/rɔ:əl/	Warm	/wa:m/
Wrong	/r ɒŋ /	Real	/riəl/	Force	/fɔ:s/
Raw	/r ɔ:/	Rarer	/ræərə/	Girl	/gɜ:l/
Room	/rum/	Roar	/rɔ:ə/	World	/wɜ:ld/
Rule	/ru:l/	Literary	/litərəri/	Church	/tʃɜ:tʃ/
Run	/r ʌ n/	Recruit	/rikru:t/	Weird	/wiəd/

2.4.7 English Consonants: Semi Vowels

They are vowel glides like the diphthongs. They are almost like a vowel in having the glide and in being voiced but are in the group of the consonants because of their linguistic position as they always occupy marginal positions and can never become the nucleus in a syllable. As they are glides to the succeeding vowels, they can never be in the word final position. There are two semi vowels in English phonology - /w/ and /j/.

23. /j/ as in yak-/jæk/:

Articulation: The soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage of air. The front part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate and assumes a position for a vowel between close and half-close and quickly glides to the position of the following vowel. The glide starts at the position of /i/ and moves to the immediately next sound. the lips are loosely spread or neutral. The vocal chords vibrate, producing voice.

Three-term label: Hence, the sound /j/ is labeled as a **Voiced – Palatal-Semi vowel**.

Distribution: The consonant / j / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in *yes*-/jes/; and medial position as in *beyond*-/bijənd/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
Yield	/ji:ld/	Yale	/jeil/	Music	/mju:zik/
Yiddish	/jidiʃ/	Yoke	/jəʊk/	Beauty	/bju:ti/
Yet	/jet/	Yolk	/jəʊk/	Lute	/lju:t/
Yak	/j æ k/	Year	/jiə/	Dew	/dju:/
Yard	/ja:d/	Your	/jɔ:/	Kew	/kju:/
Yacht	/jɔ:t/	Beyond	/bijənd/	New	/nju:/
Yarn	/ja:n/	Million	/miljən/	Few	/fju:/

Yew	/ju:/	India	/ɪndjə/	View	/vju:/
Young	/j ʌŋ /	Yes	/jes/	Sue	/sju:/
Yearn	/j ɜ:n/	Yellow	/jeləu/	Hew	/hju:/

24. /w/ as in wet-/wet/:

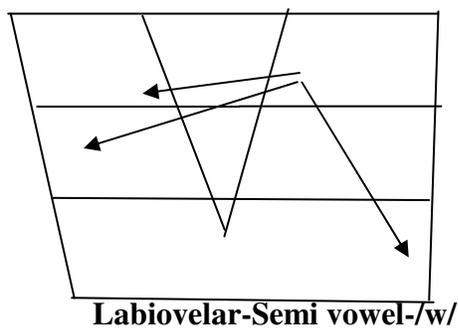
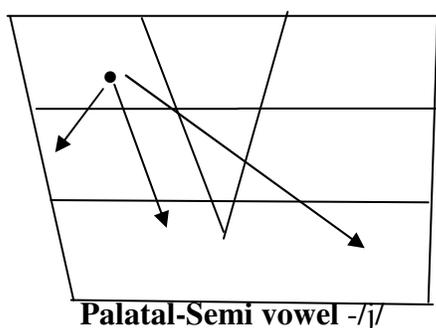
Articulation: The soft palate is raised to block the nasal passage of air. The back part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate and assumes a position for a vowel between close and half-close and the lips are rounded. The glide quickly glides to the position of the following vowel. The glide starts at the position of /u/ and moves to the immediately next sound. The lips are rounded while the sound is pronounced. The vocal chords vibrate, producing voice.

Three-term label: Hence, the sound /w/ is labeled as a **Voiced – Labiovelar-Semi vowel.**

Distribution: The consonant / w / occurs in the word initial and medial positions in English-initial position as in what-/w ɒ t/; and medial position as in language-/læ ŋw i dʒ/.

Examples:

Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription	Word	Transcription
We	/wi:/	Weird	/wi ə d/	With	/wi ð /
Win	/wɪn	Wake	/weɪk/	Word	/w ɜ:d/
Wet	/wet/	Wont	/w ə nt/	Won	/wʌn/
Wag	/wæg/	Wife	/waɪf/	One	/wʌn/
Squash	/skwɒʃ/	Wear	/we ə /	Waste	/weist/
Want	/wɑ:nt/	would	/wud/	West	/west/
Warm	/wɑ:m/	Work	/wɜ:k/	Winter	/wɪnt ə /
Wool	/wul/	Wise	/waɪz/	Twitter	/twɪt ə /
Wound (V)	/waund/	Wine	/wain/	Twin	/twɪn/
Wound (N)	/wu:nd/	Were	/w ə /	Queen	/kwi:n/



Thus is the description and classification of English vowels and consonants in terms of articulation, distribution, three-term label along with the examples and practice. The table below has a comprehensive description of English consonants at a glance.

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Place Manner	Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Post-alveolar		Palate - alveolar		Palatal	Velar		glottal
	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl
Plosive	p	b					t	d						k	g	
Affricate									tʃ	dʒ						
Nasal		m						n							ŋ	
Lateral								l								
Fricative			f	v	θ	ð	s	z			ʃ	ʒ				h
Frictionless Continuant										r						
Semi-vowels		w											j			

Unit III: Units of Speech

3.1 The Phoneme

Minimal sound unit of a language is called as a **phoneme**. Of the infinite number of speech sounds that human speech mechanism is producing, every language selects a few sounds which together form the **sound system** of that language. **A minimal sound unit of a language that exists in contrastive distribution is called as the phoneme.** Contrastive distribution means, that all phonemes can exist in the same positions and that the replacement of one sound with another results in change of meaning and thereby forms a different word in that language. For example: pet /pet/-the word has three sounds, /p/, /e/, /t/. /p/ is in the word initial position, /e/ is in the word medial position and /t/ is in the word final position of the. The replacement of each sound with another, as seen below, results in the change of word and there by a change in meaning.

Word initial replacement	Word medial replacement	Word final replacement
<u>P</u> ET	P <u>E</u> T	PET <u>T</u>
<u>L</u> ET	P <u>A</u> T	PE <u>L</u>
<u>N</u> ET	P <u>I</u> T	PE <u>N</u>
<u>S</u> ET	P <u>U</u> T	PE <u>G</u>
<u>M</u> ET	P <u>O</u> T	PE <u>M</u>
<u>Y</u> ET	P <u>A</u> U <u>T</u>	PE <u>B</u>

Each set is called as the **minimal pair** because they differ in only one sound. Each sound in the above set of examples, the minimal pairs, is called as the phoneme. In English there are 44 phonemes and the transcription using phonemes is called as the *phonemic transcription* or the **Broad transcription**, which is kept in slant lines as in- pet /pet/.

3.2 The Allophone

Phonetically similar sounds in complementary distribution are called as the allophones. Complementary distribution means that the sounds cannot occur in the same phonetic environment; by mistake if they are kept in the same environment by a non-native speaker, they don't result in the change of meaning of the word. For example: Cake-it is transcribed as /keik/. But the native speaker pronounces the initial /k/ with a slight /h/ sound there by pronounces it as [k^h], whereas the word final /k/ is not pronounced so. This phenomenon is called as the **aspiration**, which is an important feature of English pronunciation. The voiceless plosives /p, t, k/ sounds are pronounced with a slight /h/ sound whenever they occur in the accented position and this phenomenon is called as the aspiration. So /pen/ is pronounced as [p^hen], /ten is pronounced as [t^hen], and king is pronounced as [k^hin]. In the example of /keik/, the initial /k/ is aspirated while the final /k/ is un-aspirated. Moreover, the word final /k/ is unreleased as well. So the narrow transcription of the word using all these details is [k^heik⁷].

In the example of the word 'scale' -/skeil/, the sound /k/ is un-aspirated abut released and represented by [k]. Hence the same phoneme /k/ has three types of representations

[k^h] is aspirated /k/

[k⁷] is un-aspirated and unreleased /k/

[k] is un-aspirated but released /k/

Such phonetically similar sounds occurring in dissimilar environments which a native speaker never mixes up are called as **allophones**. Even if a non-native speaker mixes them and pronounces [k^heik⁷] as [keik] or [keik^h] or [k^heik^h] and [skeil] as [sk^heil], it will not bring about any difference in the meaning but understood as pronunciation problems. Hence the above here sounds [k], [k^h], and [k⁷] are allophones of the phoneme /k/.

Similarly the sounds /p/, /t/ and /l/ have allophones in English. A phoneme is a minimal sound unit of a language in contrastive distribution and the allophone is phonetically similar unit in complementary distribution.

3.3 The Syllable

Phonemes are the minimal sound units of a language which combine to form the next higher unit called 'a syllable', which is a very significant unit in the production of speech. A syllable is a group of phonemes that can be uttered together with a pause or a break and which has one vowel sound at least. In smaller words like pen, tub, dusk with a single vowel sound in them which are called as in monosyllabic words, it is much easier to identify the syllable; the entire word is one syllable. But in bigger words like arise, before, disturb, organize, regenerate, characterization, electricity, photographer, sometimes it becomes difficult to identify the syllable. With the rule that a syllable is one more phonemes with a mandatory vowel sound helps in the identification of the syllable. The syllable division is indicated by a hyphen between the syllables. The syllabic division is a permanent feature of the words which could be shown in a dictionary as well with the hyphen in between the syllables. For example in the above said words the syllables are as following:

Arise--a-rise,
Before—be-fore,
Disturb—dis-turb,
Organize—o-rga-nize,
Regenerate—re-ge-ne-rate,
Characterization—cha-rec-te-ri-sa-tion,
Electricity—e-lec-tri-ci-ty,
Photographer—pho-to-gra-pher

There can be a syllable without any consonantal sounds but there cannot be a syllable without a vowel sound; that's why the vowel sound in the syllable is called as **the nucleus**, while the consonantal sounds are called as the **marginal sounds** as they occupy the marginal positions of the central vowel sound. For example as in the words: a, eye, air, I etc. They are the examples of one word represented by one syllable in turn represented by one sound which is a vowel. The vowel element in the syllable is represented by the letter 'V' in a syllable while the consonant sound is indicated by the letter 'C'. The representation of vowels and consonants in the syllable of the words is called as the **syllabic structure or the structure of a syllable**. In a word like 'put' the transcription is /put/ with the syllabic structure of CVC. The English words can be analysed by using the symbols 'C' and 'V' as following in the syllable structure:

Type	Word	Transcription	Structure of the Syllable (V and C)
Type 1	I	/ai/	V
Type 2	Ice	/ais/	VC
Type 3	Car	/ka:/	CV
Type 4	Less	/les/	CVC
Type 5	Play	/plei/	CCV
Type 6	Spray	/sprei/	CCCV
Type 7	Stream	/stri:m/	CCCVC
Type 8	Screamed	/skri:md/	CCCVCC
Type 9	Strands	/strandz/	CCCVCCC
Type 10	Pre-empts	/pri-empts/ (Second syllable)	VCCCC
Type 11	Texts	/teksts/	CVCCCC
Type 12	Twelfths	/twelf θs/	CCVCCCC
Type 13	Brands	/brandz/	CCVCCC
Type 14	Snacks	/snaks/	CCVCC
Type 15	Tent	/tent/	CVCC

3.3.1 The Consonant Clusters

Two or more consonant sounds occurring together either in the word initial position or final position is called as the consonant clusters. For example, in the words ‘play’ and ‘spray’, the sounds one could see the sounds /p, l/ in the first words and the sounds /s, p, r/ occur in the word initial position before the vowel sound to form the consonant cluster; while in the words ‘snacks’, ‘teksts’, the sounds /k, s/ in the first word and the sounds /k, s, t, s/ in the second word form the consonant clusters in the word final position. the consonant sounds that are occurring before the vowel are called the **releasing consonants** and the consonants occurring after the vowel sound in a word are called as the **arresting consonants**; while the vowel sound in the syllable is called as the **nucleus**. So, there could be a maximum of three releasing consonants in English as is seen the example of ‘strands’ and a maximum of four arresting consonants in English as in the word ‘twelfths’. Hence the formulaic syllabic structure of English is understood as CCCVCCCC or (CCC)V(CCCC) or C₃VC₄, which means that in an English syllable the vowels sound of nucleus is the obligatory element while there could be none to a maximum of three releasing consonants which are optional and none to a maximum of four arresting consonants which are also optional.

3.3.2 The Syllabic Consonant

In English words, it is a mandatory phenomenon that a syllable has to have a vowel sound in it. But sometimes, if the words have the sounds /m, n, l/ occurring in the word final position as in the examples, ‘cotton’, , ‘prism’, ‘table’, because of the inherent sonority property of these sounds, the consonants /m, n, l/ are considered to be functioning as the vowel sounds. These words are considered to be di-syllabic words with the following syllabic division and syllabic structure.

Sr. No.	word	Syllabic division	Syllabic structure
1	Cotton	Ko-tn	CV-CV
2	Prism	Pri-zm	CV-CV
3	Table	Tei-bl	CV-CV
4	Bottle	Bo-tl	CV-CV
5	Rhythm	Ri-dm	CV-CV
6	Subtle	Su-tl	CV-CV
7	Mutton	Mu-tn	CV-CV
8	Sudden	Su-dn	CV-CV

/m, n, l/ sounds when occurring in the word final positions function like the vowels and become the nucleus for the syllables because of the inherent sonority property i.e., their loudness when compared to the other consonant sounds; this property of the nasal and lateral sounds to function like vowels in the syllables is called as the **syllabic consonant**.

3.4 Words Accent or Stress

In English words certain syllables are more intelligible and certain syllables are less intelligible while uttering them. The native speakers can easily maintain this distinction but non-native speakers, especially, Indian speakers of English do not maintain a marked difference in their phonatory systems. The key to the intelligibility lies more in knowing to move the voice according to accepted patterns of stress and melody than pronouncing the component sounds correctly. Stress or accent is an important component of English speech.

Stress or accent is defined as the degree of force with which a syllable is uttered. A strong force of utterance means energetic action of all the articulatory organs. The non-verbal communication like the movement of the hand or the eye or some part of the body is always associated while the stressed syllable is uttered. It involves a strong push from the chest wall and consequently a strong force of exhalation. This gives an objective impression of 'loudness'. A hearer perceives stress in terms of loudness. The pronunciation of the stressed and unstressed syllables a characteristic rhythmic pattern in speech.

Stress is a permanent property of a word, and therefore, it can be shown in a dictionary. You are advised to refer to the English pronouncing dictionary for picking up stress/ accent. The following are certain rules to be borne in mind to understand stress in English. Stress is indicated by an apostrophe before and above the stressed syllable.

Examination: //ig-z æ-mi-nei-^ˈf n/

3.4.1 The Rules of Stress in English

The following rules of stress are to be borne in mind and practiced for proper pronunciation of English.

Rule One: The Functional Rule of Stress: Stress in disyllabic words may change depending upon the function of the word. If the word functions as a noun or an adjective in sentences, the stress is on the first syllable while it is on the second syllable if it functions as a verb. This is also called as the '**stress shift**' and is very important to maintain in English.

Accordingly the selection of the vowels would be i.e, the syllable would take the strong vowel when stressed and a weak vowel when not stressed.

Example: Convict, Object, Subject, Import, Export

Convict (N)	/ ^l kɒnvɪkt/	Convict (V)	/kən ^v ɪkt/
Object (N)	/ ^l ɒbdʒɪkt/	Object (V)	/əbdʒekt/
Subject (N)	/ ^l subdʒɪkt/	Subject (V)	/səbdʒekt
Import (N)	/ ^l ɪmpɔ:t/	Import (V)	/ɪmpɔ:t/
Export (N)	/ ^l ɪkspɔ:t/	Export (V)	/ɪkspɔ:t/

Rule Two: Disyllabic verbs with weak prefixes like a-, be-, re-, dis- are always stressed on the root words, never on the suffixes.

Example: Arise, Below, Reduce, Disturb

Arise /ə^raɪz/

Below /bi^ləʊ/

Reduce /ri^dʒu:s/

Disturb /distɜ:b/

Rule Three: Disyllabic words with the suffixes like –ate, -ise, -ize, -ct are stressed on the last syllable.

Example: Narrate, Chastise, Baptize, Connect

Narrate /nə^rɛɪt/

Chastise /tʃə^staɪz/

Baptize /bə^ptaɪz/

Connect /kəⁿɛkt/

Rule Four: Poly syllabic words ending with –ate, -ise, -ize, -ify take stress on the anti-penultimate syllable. Words ending with –ity also take stress on the anti-penultimate syllable. Words ending with –graph, -graphy, -logy, -meter also take stress on the anti-penultimate syllable. Anti-penultimate syllable would mean third from the last. Ultimate is the last syllable, penultimate means second from the last and anti-penultimate is third from the last.

Example: Complicate, Colonize, Justify, Ability, Photograph, Photography, Zoology, Thermometer

Complicate /^lkɒm-pli-keit/

Colonize /kɒ-lə-naɪz/

Justify /^ldʒʌs-ti-fai/

Ability/ ə-bi-lə-ti/

Photograph /^fəʊ-tə-gra:f/

Photography /fə-tə:-grə-fi/

Zoology /zu-'ɔ:-lə- dʒi/

Thermometer/ θə-'mɔ:-mi-tə/

Rule Five: Words with the suffix –tion take stress on the syllable before the suffix. Similarly, words ending with the suffixes –ic, -ical, -ically, -ial and –ially and -ian also take stress on the syllable before the suffix. Words ending with –ious and –eous also take stress on the syllable before the suffix.

Example: Application, Electric, Electrical, Electrically, Victorian, Anxious, Courageous

Application /æ-pli-kei-fn/

Electric /I-'lek-trik/

Electrical /I-'lek-tri-kel/

Electrically /I-'lektri-kə-li/

Victorian /vIk-tə:-riən/

Anxious /tɛŋk-'fəs/

Courageous /kə-'reɪ- dʒəs/

Rule Six: The inflectional suffixes like-es, –ing, -ed and the derivational suffixes do not generally affect the accent pattern.

Example:	Match /mætʃ/	matches /'mætʃɪz/
	Begin /bi'gin/	beginning /bi'giniŋ/
	Want /wɒnt/	Wanted /'wɒntɪd/
	Break /breɪk/	breakage /breɪkɪdʒ/
	Brother /brʌðə/	brotherhood /brʌðəhəd/
	City /sɪti/	Citizen /'sɪtɪzn/
	Bad /bæd/	Badly /'bædli/
	Cheer /tʃiə/	Cheerfully /tʃiəfəli/

Rule Seven: The suffixes with more than one vowel will take the stress on the suffix.

Example:	China /tʃaɪnə/	Chinese /tʃaɪni:z/
	Pay /peɪ/	payee /peɪi:/

Rule Eight: The compound words, that have a meaning entirely different or the first element further specifies the meaning of the second word, would take the stress on the first element. A compound word with three words take stress on the second words.

Example: Blacksmith /blæksmiθ/ (meaning entirely different)

Birth day /bɜ:θdi/ (the first element further specifies the meaning of the second word)

Waste	' paper	basket	/westpeɪpəba:skɪt/
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3.4.2 Types of Stress

Stress is of two types, **the primary stress** which is indicated by an apostrophe before and above the primarily stressed syllable and **the secondary stress** which is indicated by an apostrophe before and below the secondarily stressed syllable. In the above example like /ɪg,zæmɪ'neɪʃən/, /n/ receives the primary stress and /z/ receives the secondary stress. The notion of primary and secondary stress occurs if the word is polysyllabic. For monosyllabic, disyllabic or trisyllabic words only have the primary stress.

a. Primary Stress

In English, the syllables of words differ in the prominence of pronunciation. In monosyllabic words (words of one syllable), though the syllable, or word, has primary stress as in the examples like- mat, like, feet, seen, tense etc. the stress mark need not need to be marked.

In polysyllabic words (words of more than one syllable), one of the syllables always has a greater degree of prominence than other syllable(s). The syllable of greatest prominence is known as the primary stressed syllable, or the syllable that carries primary stress. The syllable with primary stress is marked by placing an apostrophe like diacritic mark (') **above and in front** of it, in the following way:

Sr. No.	Word	Syllabic division	Primary stressed syllable	Example
1	Arise	A-rise	-rise	A-rise
2	Before	Be-fore	-fore	Be-fore
3	Dislike	Dis-like	-like	Dis-like
4	Arrange	Ar-range	-range	Ar-range
5	Define	De-fine	-fine	De-fine
6	Phonetics	Pho-ne-tics	-ne-	Pho-ne-tics
7	Photographer	Pho-to-gra-pher	-to--	Pho-to-gra-pher
8	Electricity	E-lec-tri-city	-lec-	E-lec-tri-city

b. Secondary stress

Most of the polysyllabic words with more than three syllables have two stresses, one primary and one secondary. The secondary stress can be marked by placing **the diacritic before and below** (') the syllable which has secondary stress, in the following way:

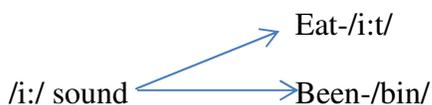
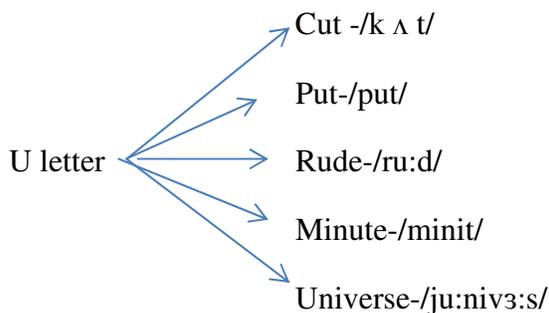
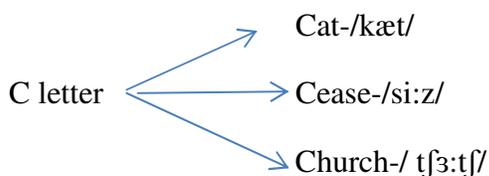
Sr. No.	Word	Syllabic division	Primarily accented syllable	Secondarily accented syllable	Example
1	Academic	A-ca-de-mic	-de-	a-	A-ca-de-mic
2	Explanation	Ex-pla-na-tion	-na-	Ex-	Ex-pla-na-tion
3	Deliberation	De-li-be-ra-tion	-ra-	-li-	De-li-be-ra-tion
4	Alternate	Al-ter-nate	Al-	-nate	Al-ter-nate
5	Academic	A-ca-de-mic	-de	a-	A-ca-de-mic
6	Systematize	Sys-te-ma-tize	Sy-	-ti-	Sys-te-ma-tize
7	Environmental	En-vi-ron-men-tal	-men-	-vi-	En-vi-ron-men-tal
8	Phenomenology	Phe-no-me-no-lo-gy	-no-lo-gy	-no-me-	Phe-no-me-no-lo-gy

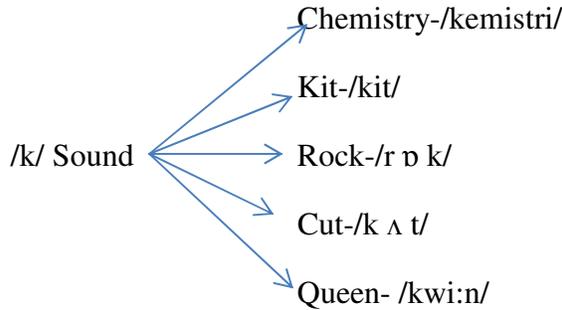
A compound is a word which is composed of two separate words. These have two stresses, one of them primary, the other secondary. The secondary stress can precede or follow the primary stress, and there need not be an intervening syllable:

Sr. No.	Compound word	Stress pattern
1	Loudspeaker	'Loud ,speaker
2	Sunflower	'sun ,flower
3	Headmaster	'head ,master
4	Outstare	,Out 'stare
5	Upstare	,Up 'stare
6	Loud speaker	'Loud ,speaker
7	Sun glasses	'Sun ,glasses
8	Super market	'Super ,market
9	Black board	'Black ,board
10	Sur charge	'Sur ,charge

3.5 Phonetic Transcription of Words

In English there is no one to one correspondence between spelling and sound. For example: The same consonant letter 'c' in the words 'cat, cease, church' are pronounced differently and similarly the same vowel letter 'u' in the words 'cut, put, rude, minute, universe' are pronounced differently.





Because of such a mismatch between spelling and pronunciation, a learner of English, especially a non-native learner, cannot be sure of how to pronounce a word that s/he encounters for the first time in the written form. Nor can one be sure of how a new word heard should be spelt. Therefore, a necessity has been felt to evolve an alphabet in which words of any language could be written unambiguously. Such an alphabet is called as the **International Phonetic Alphabet(IPA)** standardised by **the International phonetic Association**. It has all the symbols to represent all the sounds that exist in the languages of the world. IPA can be used to represent the words of any language i.e., to write the words down as according to the pronunciation. The use of IPA to represent in writing the sounds, words, phrases and sentences of any language of the world is called as the Phonetic transcription. The phonetic transcription uses the phonemes and is kept in the slant lines. For example:

Cat-/kæt/, Cease-/si:z/, Church-/ tʃɜ:tʃ/, Cut -/k ʌ t/, Put-/put/, Rude-/ru:d/, Minute-/minit/, Universe-/ju:nivɜ:s/, Eat-/i:t/, Been-/bin/, Chemistry-/kemistri/, Kit-/kit/, Rock-/rɒk/, Cut-/k ʌ t/, Queen- /kwi:n/

3.5.1 Types of Phonetic Transcription

There are two types of phonetic transcription-Narrow Transcription and Broad Transcription. Broad transcription uses phonemes to represent the sounds and so called as the **Phonemic transcription**; while broad transcription uses allophones to represent the sounds and so called as the **Allophonic transcription**. The phonemic transcription is kept in slant line / / while the allophonic transcription is kept in square brackets []. For example the word 'pen' is transcribed phonemically as /pen/ and allophonically as [p^hen].

3.5.2 Uses of Phonetic Transcription

Phonetic transcription helps a learner of the language in various ways to pick up the appropriate pronunciation. The uses of phonetic transcription are:

- To represent the pronunciation of a word or a sentence unambiguously.
- To help the second language or foreign language learners for picking up correct pronunciation.
- To understand silent letters and there by differentiate letters and sounds of any language.
- To understand different varieties of the same language in terms of international varieties (American English and British English) and dialectal varieties (RP, Cockney, Welsh, Scottish and Irish dialects of British English).
- To represent the speech of an unknown language through phonetic transcription.

3.5.3 Phonetic Transcription: Examples

Mono-syllabic Words: Monosyllabic words are the words with a single syllable. All content words are generally stressed; content words are Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs. Apart from these the interrogative pronouns and demonstrative pronouns are also stresses in connected speech. But monosyllabic words need not be indicated by the stress mark. They are merely transcribed and are understood to be stressed.

Cake	/keik/	Know	/nəu/	Phone	/fəun/	Stay	/stei/
Caught	/kɔ:t/	Line	/lain/	Photo	/fəutə/	Street	/stri:t/
Coast	/kəust/	Neck	/nek/	Pie	/pai/	Step	/step/
Night	/nait/	Coat	/kəut/	Corn	/kɔ:n/	Post	/pəust/
Psych	/saik/	North	/nɔ:θ/	No	/nəu/	Count	/kaunt/
Rice	/rais/	Tape	/teip/	Sound	/saund/	Hear	/hiə/
Cow	/kau/	Noun	/naun/	Saint	/seint/	Taste	/teist/
Eight	/eit/	Now	/nau/	Say	/sei/	Taught	/tɔ:t/
Faint	/feint/	Open	/əupn/	Sent	/sent/	Thigh	/θai/
Faith	/feiθ/	Out	/aut/	Set	/set/	Think	/θiŋk/
Fake	/feik/	Own	/əun/	Skate	/skeit/	Thorn	/θɔ:n/
Fence	/fens/	Pain	/pein/	Sky	/skai/	Tie	/tai/
Fight	/fait/	Paint	/peint/	South	/sauθ/	Tight	/tait/
Fine	/fain/	Paw	/pɔ:/	Spoke	/spəuk/	Town	/taun/
Fount	/faunt/	Pen	/pen/	Sport	/spɔ:t/	Type	/taip/
Knight	/nait/	Pet	/pet/	Stain	/stein/	Walk	/wɔ:k/

- **Di-syllabic Words:** Disyllabic words are with two syllables in a word and the accented syllables are marked with the primary stress according to the rules discussed above.

Five lettered disyllabic words					
is-sue	/is-ju:/	wo-men	/wi-min/	mo-ral	/məu-rl/
a-void	/ə-void/	cob-ra	/kɒ-brə/	par-ty	/pa:ti/
en-ter	/en-tə/	ev-ery	/ev-ri/	lo-tus	/ləu-təs/
po-lar	/pəu-lə/	ti-ger	/tai-gə/	of-fice	/ɒf-is/
no-ble	/nəu-bl/	cy-nic	/si-nik/	Bi-ble	/bai-bl/
vi-per	/vai-pə/	a-bide	/ə-baid/	Bal-let	/bæ-lət/

Six lettered disyllabic words					
de-feat	/di-fi:t/	bit-ter	/bi-tə/	len-til	/len-tl/
do-zen	/dʌ-zn/	num-ber	/nʌm-bə/	re-fuce	/ri-fju:z/
ru-ssel	/rʌ-sl/	tri-bal	/traɪ-bl/	em-ploy	/im-plɔɪ/
don-key	/dɒn-ki/	win-ter	/win-tə/	pas-tor	/pæs-tə/

be-yond	/bi-j ɒnd/	sel-dom	/sel-dm/	fas-ter	/f æs- tə/
ad-vent	/əd-vent/	e-vince	/ə-vens/	mor-tar	/m ɔ:- tə/
wis-dom	/wiz-dəm/	de-sign	/di-zain/	sen-ses	/sen-siz/
ser-vent	/sə-vent/	mar-vel	/ma:-vl/	sym-bol	/sim-bl/
sau-cer	/s ɒ-sə/	vi-sion	/vi-zn/	bam-boo	/bæm-bə/
fa-cile	/fə-sail/	soc-ket	/səu-kit/	wea-pon	/we-pn/
Lon-don	/l ʌ n-dn/	stu-pid	/stju:-pid/	dar-ing	/deə-ri ŋ/
for-get	/f ə-get/	for-cep	/f ɔ:-səp/	din-ing	/dai-ni ŋ/
pub-lic	/p ʌ b-lik/	de-tect	/di-tekt/	pla-yer	/plei ə/
la-dies	/lai-diz/	in-sist	/in-sist/	mas-ter	/ma:s-t ə/
beg-gar	/be-g ə/	Spen-der	/spen-d ə/	rag-ged	/r æ -gid/
nar-row	/n æ-r ə/	ef-fect	/i-fekt/	fa-cing	/fei-si ŋ/
ce-real	/si-ri:l/	gra-ssy	/gr æ-si/	gal-lon	/g æ-ln/
re-sult	/ri-z ʌ lt/	scan-ty	/sk æn-ti/	cre-ate	/kri- ət/
la-bour	/lei-b ə/	Eu-robe	/ju:-r əp/	re-gime	/ri dʒ -i:m/

Seven lettered di-syllabic words					
un-leash	/ ʌn-li: ʃ/	dor-mant	/d ɔ:-m ə nt/	at-tract	/ət-r æ kt/
tar-gets	/ta:-gets/	gla-cier	/glei-si ə/	be-lieve	/bi-li:v/
an-cient	/ein- ʃənt/	pur -pose	/p ɜ:-p əs/	bet-ween	/bit-wi:n/
fear-ful	/fi ə-f əl/	res-pect	/ris-pekt/	sup-port	/sə-p ɔ:t/
scars-ly	/ske əs-li/	rou-tine	/rə-ti:n/	con-flict (V)	/kən-flikt/
for-ceps	/f ɔ:-səps/	ex-press	/iks-pres/	bas-king	/ba:s-ki/
char-mer	/ tʃ a:-mə/	rea-ches	/ri:- tʃ iz/	beast-ial	/bi:s-tiəl/
for-tune	/f ɒ-tju:n/	sin-cere	/sin-siə/	re-joice	/ri- dʒɔi s/
a-gainst	/ə-geinst/	de-grees	/di-gri:z/	wea-pon	/we-pn/
cof-fers	/k ɒ -fəz/	plas-tic	/pla:-stik/	cen-sure	/sen-ʃə/
fas-test	/fa:s-tist/	fur-nace	/f-nis/	bon-ding	/bɒn-di ŋ/
sanc-tum	/s æŋ -tm/	teen-age	/ti:n-i dʒ/	cur-rent	/kə-rent/
dis-play	/dis-plei/	jam-ming	dʒ æ-mi ŋ/	sur-plus	/s ɜ:-pləs/
pun-ches	/pʌn- tʃ iz/	de-mands	/di-ma:ndz/	quar-ter	/kw ɔ:-tə/
pur-suit	/pə-sju:t/	pri-vate	/prai-vit/	morn-ing	m ɔ:n-i ŋ/
bon-dage	/bɒn-didʒ/	cen-tral	/sen-trəl/	con-cert	/k ɔ:n-sət/
spe-cies	/spi:-ʃiz/	pla-cing	/pei-si ŋ/	pain-ter	/pein-tə/
ring-ing	/ri ŋ-i ŋ/	pa-rents	/peə-rənts/	ab-sense	/ æb-sens/
cuc-koos	/ku-ku:z/	wel-fare	/wel-feə/	suf-fice	/sə-fais/
con-fuse	/kən-fju:z/	dei-ties	/dei-tiz/	sun-rise	/s ʌ n-raiz/
nu-clear	/nju:-kliə/	wor-kers	/w ɜ:-kəz/	tor-rent	/t ɔ:-rənt/

- **Tri-syllabic words:** Tri-syllabic words are with three syllables in a word and the accented syllables are marked with the primary stress according to the rules discussed above.

Six letters having three syllables					
in-ter-val	/ɪn-tə-vəl/	mu-ti-ny	/mju:-ti-ni/	He-ro-ic	/hə-r ɔɪ-ɪk/
i-ci-cle	/'aɪ-sɪ-kl/	ma-gi-cal	/mæ-dʒi-kl/	e-ner-gy	/i-n ɜ:- dʒ i/
lux-u-ry	/'lʌk-fə-ri/	re-me-dy	/re-mi-di/	In-di-an	/ɪn-di-jən/
o-ra-tion	/ə-rei-ʃn/	Le-ga-cy	/le-gə-si/	A-fri-ca	/æ-fri-kn/

Seven lettered tri-syllabic words					
co-lo-nel	/kə'ləʊniəl/	gra-ti-fy	/gr æ- ti-fai/	e-le-ment	/e-li-mənt/
Si-be-ria	/sai-bi:-riə/	ex-ci-ted	/ɪk-sai-tid/	a-no-ther	/ə-nʌ-ð ə/
cre-at-or	/kri'eɪtə(r)/	cla-ri-ty	/'klærəti/	ar-ti-san	/a:-ti-sn/
cen-tu-ry	/'sentʃəri/	mil-li-on	/'mɪljən/	gla-ci-er	/'glæsiə(r)/
vi-si-tor	/'vɪzɪtə(r)/	ca-pi-tal	/'kæpɪt(ə)l/	pi-te-ous	/pi-təs/
ea-ger-ly	/'i:gə-li/	po-pu-lar	/'pɒpjʊlə(r)/	i-ma-gine	ɪ'mædʒɪn/
ti-ni-est	/'taɪ-ni-əst/	im-pe-tus	/'ɪmpɪtəs/	i-mag-ery	/'ɪmɪdʒəri/

Eight lettered tri-syllabic words					
in-ter-val	/'ɪntə(r)v(ə)l/	as-sem-bly	/ə'sembli/	cru-sad-er	/kru:'seɪdə(r)/
per-son-al	/'pɜ:(r)s(ə)nəl/	vo-ta-ries	/'vəʊtəri:z/	be-lieve	/bi-li:v/
ma-jes-tic	/mə'dʒestɪk/	op-po-site	/'ɒpəzɪt/	ver-bi-age	/'vɜ:(r)biɪdʒ/
de-ri-sion	/dɪ'rɪʒ(ə)n/	he-ri-tage	/'herɪtɪdʒ/	dra-ma-tic	/drə'mætɪk/
a-deq-uate	/'ædɪkwət/	ad-vo-cate	/'ædvəkət/	sanc-ti-ty	/'sæŋktəti/
e-min-ence	/'emɪnəns/	di-lem-ma	/dɪ'lemə/	ul-ti-mate	/'ʌltɪmət/
pro-per-ly	/'prɒpə(r)li/	en-gi-neer	/.endʒɪ'nɪə(r)/	in-ter-nal	/'ɪntə(r)v(ə)l/
im-pri-son	/ɪm-pri-zn/	re-li-gion	/rɪli	left-o-ver	/'left,əʊvə(r)/
re-si-dent	/re-si-dənt/	sur-vi-val	/sə-vai-vl/	ex-er-cise	/'eksə(r)sɑɪz/
at-ti-tude	/'ætɪ,tju:d/	de-fi-nite	/de-fi-nɪt/	o-ver-head	/.əʊvə(r)'hed/
al-ley-way	/'æliweɪ/	re-cent-ly	/'ri:s(ə)ntli/	to-mor-row	/tə'mɒrəʊ/
do-mes-tic	/də-mes-tɪk/	em-ploy-er	/ɪm-pl ɔɪ-ə/	po-li-cies	/'pɒləsi:z/
ex-ten-ded	/ɪks-tend-ɪd/	re-min-der	/ri-main-də/	sea-so-nal	/si:-zə-nl/
ear-li-est	/'ɜ:(r)liəst/	e-vi-dence	/evɪdəns/	ar-gu-ment	/a:-gju-mənt/
ob-ser-ver	/əb-z ɜ:-və/	com-mon-ly	/'kɒmənli/	he-ri-tage	/'herɪtɪdʒ/
de-di-cate	/de-di-keɪt/	re-sem-ble	/ri-zem-bl/	in-tri-cate	/ɪntrɪkeɪt/
treas-ur-y	/tre-zə-ri/	op-u-lence	/'ɒpjʊləns/	in-te-gral	/'ɪntɪgrəl/
fan-ci-ful	/fæn-si-fəl/	mas-ter-ly	/ma:stəli/	tow-er-ing	/'tauəɪɪŋ/
car-na-tic	/kær-na:-tɪk/	cul-tu-ral	/'kʌltʃ(ə)rəl/	ex-per-tise	/.ekspə(r)'ti:z/

un-kind-ly	/ən-kaind-li/	tri-um-virs	/traɪ'ʌmvərəs/	nu-me-rous	/'nju:mərəs/
ca-pri-ces	/kə'pri:siz/	del-u-sive	/dɪ'lu:zɪv/	em-bo-died	/ɪm-'bɒ-di:d/
in-tu-tive	/ɪn-tju:-tɪv/	se-rene-ly	/sə-ri:n-li/	sanc-ti-fy	/'sæŋktɪfaɪ/

Nine lettered tri-syllabic words					
for-bid-den	/fə(r)'bɪd(ə)n/	cur-el-ties	/'kru:əlti/	pos-tu-late	/'pɒstjuleɪt/
un-der-staete	/,ʌndə(r)'steɪt/	ab-sol-lute	/'æbsəlu:t/	pre-ser-ver	/prɪzɜ:(r)və(r)/
des-troy-er	/dɪ'strɔɪə(r)/	nar-rat-ive	/'nærətɪv/	wit-ti-cism	/'wɪtɪ,sɪz(ə)m/
dif-fer-ent	/'dɪfərənt/	en-dea-vour	/ɪn'devə(r)/	qua-li-ties	/'kwɒləti:z/
a-ban-doned	/ə'bændənd/	for-got-ten	/fə(r)'gɒt(ə)n/	suf-fer-ing	/'sʌfərɪŋ/

- **Poly-syllabic Words:** Words with more than three syllables are called as the polysyllabic words.

The list of words with four syllables is as following:

Anybody	/'eni,bɒdi/	obedient	/ə'bi:diənt/	celebration	/,selə'breɪf(ə)n/
Librarian	/laɪ'breəriən/	Discovery	/dɪ'skʌv(ə)ri/	Impossible	/ɪm'pɒsəb(ə)l/
Appreciate	/ə'pri:ʃi,eɪt/	Questionable	/'kwɛstʃ(ə)nəb(ə)l/	Invisible	/ɪn'vɪzəb(ə)l/
Apologise	/ə'pɒlədʒaɪz/	Television	/'telɪ,vɪz(ə)n/	Thermometer	/θə(r)'mɒmɪtə(r)/
Historical	/hɪ'stɔrɪk(ə)l/	Caterpillar	/'kætə(r),pɪlə(r)/	Kindergarten	/'kɪndə(r),gɑ:(r)t(ə)n/
Congratulate	/kən'grætʃuleɪt/	Asparagus	/ə'spærəgəs/	Temperature	/'tempɪtʃə(r)/
Calculator	/'kælkjʊ,leɪtə(r)/	Escalator	/'eskə,leɪtə(r)/	Elevator	/'eləveɪtə(r)/
Helicopter	/'helɪ,kɒptə(r)/	January	/'dʒænjuəri/	February	/'februəri/

The list of words with five syllables is as following:

Apologetic	/ə,pɒlə'dʒetɪk/	Curiosity	/,kjʊəri'ɒsəti/
Imagination	/ɪ,mædʒɪ'neɪʃ(ə)n/	Vocabulary	/vəʊ'kæbjʊləri/
Mathematical	/,mæθə'mæɪtɪk(ə)l/	Personality	/,pɜ:(r)sə'næləti/
Alphabetical	/,ælfə'betɪk(ə)l/	Vegetarian	/,vedʒə'teəriən/
Refrigerator	/rɪ'frɪdʒə,reitə(r)/	Auditorium	/,ɔ:drɪ'tɔ:riəm/
Congratulations	/kən,grætʃʊ'leɪʃ(ə)nz/	Anniversary	/,ænrɪ'vɜ:(r)s(ə)ri/
Communication	/kə,mju:nɪ'keɪʃ(ə)n/	Laboratory	/lə'bɒrət(ə)ri/
Planetarium	/,plænə'teəriəm/	University	/,ju:nɪ'vɜ:(r)səti/

Hence Stress or accent is an important aspect of English language which needs orientation to the concept and its rules along with intense practice.

Transcribe the following words and Mark the stress in the following words.

Aloud	Capsize	Civilize	Scientific	Autograph
Amount	Comprise	Classify	Empirical	Autography
Apart	Attract	Nullify	Official	Diameter
Discount	Select	Discovery	Residential	Sociology
Disguise	Project	Introduction	Musician	Millionaire
Dispel	Cultivate	Qualification	Politician	Bluestocking
Dismiss	Educate	Question	Rebellious	Sheepdog
Disclose	Patronize	Activity	Spontaneous	
Locate	Realize	Possibility	Democracy	
Vibrate	Monopolise	Sympathy	Democrat	

Unit IV: Connected Speech

4.1 Rhythm in Connected Speech

Connected speech has its own pattern of accent. When words are combined into sentences in English, you face the problem of determining the words that are normally to be stressed in the sentence. Normally, the content words are stressed, for example, the Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs. Demonstrative pronouns like 'this, that, these and those' and interrogative pronouns like 'who, whose, whom, why, where' are also stressed in sentences. The grammatical words like articles, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, helping verbs are not stressed and they are always reduced to their weak forms. For the content words, stress is to be given according to the rules that we discussed in the section of word stress.

Rhythm is a kind of periodicity, which would mean the recurrence of certain patterns of color, design, or sound at regular (equal) intervals of space or time. Rhythm in a piece of drawing or embroidery refers to the even spacing of a certain motif or design. In music, a certain kind of beat or sound complex being repeated at equal intervals of time constitutes its rhythm. Rhythm in language likewise refers to the periodic recurrence of certain complexes or patterns of sound in utterances constituting a text.

It has often been claimed that, in some languages of the world (e.g. French), syllables constituting utterances, whether accented or unaccented, tend to occur at equal time-intervals and that the time taken from one accented syllable to the next will be in proportion to the number of unaccented syllables between them. Such languages are said to have *syllable-timed rhythm*. It has been further claimed that some other languages of the world have *stress-timed rhythm*. In these languages, accented syllables have a tendency to occur at approximately equal intervals of time, irrespective of the number of unaccented syllables intervening between one accented syllable and the next. English belongs to the second category of languages and has *stress-timed rhythm*. This would mean that, in English utterances, accented syllables *tend* to occur at approximately equal intervals of time.

Example: The chair collapsed.

The chairman collapsed.

The stress pattern of both the above sentences remains the same. In the second sentence has the word 'man' but the pronunciation of the word 'chairman' is not /tʃeɪmən/ but /tʃeɪmən/ to maintain rhythm in speech. A study of weak forms helps us to understand the right pronunciation of English by maintaining the rhythm in speech.

Mark the word stress among the following sentences.

- 1 I've 'found my 'book.
- 2 It's 'kind of you to 'ask me.
- 3 'Mohan and 'Sohan are 'brothers.
- 4 He 'wants us to 'take it a 'way.
- 5 He 'promised he'd ac'cept the invi'tation.
- 6 'That's the 'house we 'bought 'yesterday.

- 7 Its 'no 'trouble at 'all.
- 8 I 'couldn't 'see the 'house.
- 9 'Don't 'bother.
- 10 'Have you 'heard the 'latest 'news?
- 11 'Can you 'come to 'lunch to 'morrow?
- 12 Did 'anyone 'remember to 'lock the 'door?
- 13 'Yes, he 'will.
- 14 'No, 'thanks.
- 15 'Would you 'like it 'painted 'red?
- 16 'Where are you 'going on 'Monday?
- 17 He 'doesn't want to 'come 'here.
- 18 Oh, I 'haven't got an i'dea!
- 19 You 'ought to 'know the 'place by 'now.
- 20 He 'used to 'come on 'Sundays.

4.2 Weak Forms

Words in connected speech which are more prominent than others are accented or stressed which are the generally *content*, or *lexical*, words. These are nouns, main verbs other than *be*, adjectives, adverbs, the words *yes* and *no*, and demonstrative and interrogative pronouns. On the other hand, words which are not accented are generally *form*, or *grammatical*, words. These are pronouns (other than demonstrative and interrogative), helping verbs, articles, prepositions, and conjunctions.

The rhythm of English is often described as *stress-timed*. This is because accented (or 'stressed') syllables in English utterances tend to occur at approximately equal intervals of time, irrespective of the number of unaccented syllables between any two accented ones. The learning of weak forms is extremely necessary to maintain rhythm in English. There are roughly 45 words in English, mostly related to the grammatical words, which have two or more pronunciations—one *strong* (or dictionary) pronunciation, and one or more than one *weak* pronunciation or *weak form*. Words of this kind will be called *weak form* words. Normally they take weak vowels like /ə/ or 'shwa' as Daniel Jones calls it.

The learning of weak forms is extremely necessary. Many non-native speakers of English, who generally use only strong forms of these words in their pronunciation, fail to approximate to the characteristic rhythm of English, thus reducing considerably the level of intelligibility of their pronunciation, especially in relation to native speakers of RP. And, more importantly, since almost all native speakers of RP use weak forms in their pronunciation, learners of RP will find it very difficult to understand what they hear unless they learn (or, at least, learn *about*) these weak forms themselves.

1. Articles

Articles	Strong Forms	Weak Forms	Example	Transcription
A	/ei/	/ə/	This is a pen.	/ðisizəpen/
An	/æn/	/ən/	This is an apple.	/ðisizənæpl/
The	/ði:/	/ði/ Before Vowels	The apples are good	/ðiæplzəgud/
		/ðə/ Before Consonants	The pens are good	/ðəpenzəgud/
Some	/sʌm/	/səm/ /sm/	Give me some water.	/gɪvmismwɔ:tə/

2. Some important Prepositions

Preposition	Strong Forms	Weak Forms	Example	Transcription
At	/æt/	/ət/	Come at five.	/kʌmætfaɪv/
To	/tu:/	/tu/ Before Vowels	Give it to Isha.	/gɪvittu:ʃə/
		/tə/ Before Consonants	Give it to Hema.	/gɪvittəhemə/
For	/fɔ:/	/fɔ/ Before Vowels	This is for Isha.	/ðisɪzfɔ:ʃə/
		/fə/ Before Consonants	This is for Hema.	/ðisɪzfəhemə/
Of	/ɒv/	/əv/	This is made of plastic.	/ðisɪzmeɪdəvplɑ:stɪk/
From	/frɒm/	/frəm	He has come from Delhi.	/hi:zʌmfrəmdeli/

3. Some important Conjunctions

Conjunction	Strong Forms	Weak Forms	Example	Transcription
And	/ænd/	/n/ In pair words	Bread and butter	/brednʌtə/
		/ən/ else where	Ram and I are friends	/ra:mənaɪəfrendz/
But	/bʌt/	/bət/	But I can't do it.	/bətaɪka:ntdu:it/
As	/æz/	/əz/	As soon as possible.	/əzsu:nəzɒsɪbl/
Than	/ðæn/	/ðən/	This is better than that	/ðisɪzbetəðənðæt/
That	/ðæt/	ðət/	The pen that you gave me is good.	ðəpendətjəgeivmi:zgud/

4. Primary Helping Verbs

Primary Helping Verb	Strong Forms	Weak Forms	Example	Transcription
Am	/æm/	/əm/	I am a teacher.	/aiəməti:tʃə/
Is	/iz/	/iz/ After /s,z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/	The bus is late.	/ðəbʌsizleɪt/
		/z/ After voiced sounds other than /z, ʒ, dʒ/	The boy is late	/ðəbɔɪzleɪt/
		/s/ After voiceless sounds other than /s, ʃ, tʃ, /	Mack is late.	/mæksleɪt/
Are	/a:/	/ə/ Before Consonants	They are late.	/ðeəleɪt/
		/ər/ Before vowels	They are eating.	/ðeəri:tiŋ/
Was	/wɒz/	/wəz/	He was late.	/hiwəzleɪt/
Were	/wɜ:/	/wə/ Before Consonants	They were late.	/ðewəleɪt/
		/wər/ Before Vowels	They were eating.	/ðewəri:tiŋ/
Be	/bi:/	/bi/	I will be late.	/aɪlbɪleɪt/
Been	/bi:n/	/bin/	He has been to Delhi.	/hi:zbɪntədeɪli/
Have	/hæv/	/həv/ Sentence initially	Have you seen it?	/həvjəsi:nɪt/
		/v/ After Personal Pronouns	I have seen it.	/aɪvsi:nɪt/
		/əv/ Else where	What have you seen?	/wɒtəvjəsi:n/
Has	/hæz/	/həz/ Sentence initially	Has he come back?	/hæzɪkʌmbæk/
		/əz/ After /s,z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/	The rose has withered.	/ðərəʊzəzwɪðɜ:d/
		/z/ After voiced sounds other than /z, ʒ, dʒ/	The lion has died.	/ðəlaɪənzdaɪd/
		/s/ After voiceless sounds other than /s, ʃ, tʃ, /	The milk has gone sour.	/ðəmlksgɒnsəʊə/
Had	/həd/	/həd/ Sentence initially	Had he seen it?	/hədɪsi:nɪt/
		/d/ After Personal Pronouns	He had seen it.	/hɪdɪsi:nɪt/
		/əd/ Else where	The man had seen it.	/ðəmænədɪsi:nɪt/
Do	/du:/	/də/ Before Consonants	How do you work?	/haudəjəwɜ:k/
		/du/ Before Vowels	What do I get?	/wɒtduəɪget/
Does	/dʌz/	/dəz/	What does he do?	/wɒtdəzɪdu/

Modal Verbs	Strong Forms	Weak Forms	Example	Transcription
Can	/kæn/	/kən/, /kn/	I can write this.	/aɪkənraɪtðɪs/
Could	/kud/	/kəd/	I could write this.	/aɪkədraɪtðɪs/
Shall	/ʃæl/	/ʃəl/, /ʃl/	I shall write this.	/aɪʃəlraɪtðɪs/
Should	/ʃud/	/ʃəd/	I should write this.	/aɪʃədraɪtðɪs/
Will	/wɪl/	/l/ After personal pronouns	We will write this.	/wi:lraɪtðɪs/
		/əl/ After vowels and /l/	The boy will write this.	/ ðəboɪəlraɪtðɪs/
Would	/wud/	/wəd/ Sentence initially	Would you come there?	/ wədʒəkʌmðə /
		/d/ After personal pronouns	I would write this.	/aɪdraɪtðɪs/
		/əd/ Else where	All would write this.	/ɸ:lədraɪt ðɪs/
Must	/mʌs/	/məs/ before consonants	You must come.	/jəməsʃkʌm/
		/məst/ before vowels	You must eat.	/jəməsti:t/

4.3 Elision

Elision is the process where a sound is not clearly articulated in certain contexts. It is a process in connected speech by which a sound is left out in order to make the articulation easier. Elision is extremely common in spoken English. One familiar case is the contracted form of auxiliary verbs. The following examples help us to understand this easily.

Full form		contracted form
I have gone mad.	—————>	I've gone mad.
I will pass the test.	—————>	I'll pass the test.

In 'I have gone mad' the auxiliary 'have' is unstressed because it is a function word. Unstressed parts of the spoken message tend to be reduced or deleted altogether.

Elision is a very clear way to save the time and effort when you pronounce English. Elision is defined as the disappearance of a sound. It could be of two basic types-**historical elision and contextual elision**. In historical elision, a sound which existed in an earlier form of a word was omitted in a later form. In contextual elision, a sound which exists in a word said in isolation is dropped in a compound word or in a connected phrase. Up till the fifteenth century, in words like-arm, horse, church, more, word, other etc, the /r/ sound was pronounced, but in the recent times, the sound /r/ is dropped or not pronounced, this is a clear cut example of historical elision. In isolation the words, cup-/k ʌ p/ and board-/b ɔ:d/ are pronounced respectively but when the words are put together to form the word cupboard, it is pronounced as /k ʌ b ə d/, where /p/ sound is ellipted. Similarly are the words windmill-/wɪnmɪl/ and kindness-/kainnis/, where /d/ is ellipted in both the cases.

Some examples of elision in English are as following:

• **Elision of consonants:**

- The most common elision of consonants in English are /t /and /d / when they appear within a consonant clusters.

Examples	Slow speed	Normal speed
next day	/nekst dei/	/neksdei/
last time	/ la:st taim /	/la:staim /
left turn	/left t ɜ:n/	/left ɜ:n/
kept quiet	/hændkətʃi:f/	/hænkətʃi:f/
blind man	/blaɪnd mæn/	/blainmæn/

- In words that end in /nd/, /d/ is frequently omitted.

Examples	Slow speed	Normal speed
windmill	/wɪn[d] mɪl/	/wɪnmɪl/
restless	/ res[t]ləs /	/resləs /
exactly	/ɪgzæk[t]li/	/ɪgzækli/
Hand kerchief	/hændkətʃi:f/	/hænkətʃi:f/
blind man	/blaɪndmæn/	/blainmæn/

• **Elision of vowels**

- In the words where the unstressed / ə / or /i / follow a stressed syllable, the unstressed vowel tends to be left out.

Examples	Slow speed	Normal speed
Int[e]resting	/ɪnt[ə]rɛstɪŋ/	/ɪnrɛstɪŋ/
Med[i]cie	/med[ɪ]sən/	/medsən/
Sev[e]ral	/sev[ə]rəl/	/sevrəl/
Diff[e]rent	/dɪf[ə]rɛnt/	/dɪfrɛnt/

- In very informal, colloquial English the initial vowel or syllable of a word may be omitted if it is unstressed.

Examples	Slow speed	Normal speed
because	/bɪkɒz/	/kɒz/
about	/əbaʊt/	/baʊt/

4.4 Assimilation

Assimilation is defined as the process of replacing a sound under the influence of a third sound which is near to it in the word or a sentence. It refers to the change of one sound into another sound because of the influence of neighbouring sounds. Rather it is the alteration of a speech sound to make it more similar to its neighbours. Assimilation also can be of two types –**historical assimilation and contextual assimilation.**

If the assimilation has taken place in the course of development of a language, because of which, a word that was pronounced as one way earlier has been pronounced in a different way in the later years is the example of historical assimilation. For example the word ‘ant’ was pronounced as /amt/ in the thirteenth and the fourteenth centuries but later, it is pronounced as /ant/. In fact, it was written as ‘amete, then amte, then amt, and then ant’; accordingly its pronunciation has changed across the history from /æmətə/, to /æmtə/ and finally became /ænt/.

Examples	Earlier	Recent
Picture	/piktʃɜ:/	/pɪk tʃə/
Question	/kwestʃən/	/kwestʃən/
Grandeur	/gr æ n dʒɜ:/	/gr æ n dʒə/
Sure	/ʃju:r/	/ʃ uə/
Sugar	/sju:ɡə/	/ʃ u:ɡə/
Nation	/neɪʃən/	/neɪʃn/

When words are juxtaposed in a sentence or in the formation of compounds, the pronunciation of the word would be different from the way the same word is pronounced independently, is called as the contextual assimilation. For example, the words ‘horse’ and ‘shoe’ are pronounced as /hɔ:s/ and /ʃ u:/ respectively. But when pronounced as ‘horse-shoe’, it is pronounced as /hɔ:ʃu:/, when /s/ is changed into /ʃ/.

Examples	Earlier	Recent
Don't you	/dəunt ju:/	/dəuntʃu/
Roast beef	/rəʊst bi:f/	/rəʊzbɪf/
Comfort	/kɒmfət/	/k ʌ nfət
Is	/i:z/	/z/-before voiced sounds /s/-before voiceless sounds /ɪz/-before /s, z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/

Two other types of assimilation can also be recognized such as **partial assimilation** and **total assimilation**. For example in a phrase like ‘ten bikes’ in colloquial speech would be pronounced as /tembɪks/ and not /tenbaɪks/. In this case the assimilation has been partial because the alveolar consonant /n/ become /m/ by adopting the bilabiality of /b/. It has, however, not adopted its plosiveness. In another phrase like ‘that place’ pronounced as /ðætpleɪs/, the alveolar plosive /t/ becomes identical with bilabial plosive /p/ which influences it. In this case the assimilation is total. Other examples of assimilation are :

- **Nasalization of vowels-**

- / i: / is nasalized in ‘mean’
- / e / is nasalized in ‘men’
- / æ / is nasalized in ‘man’
- / ʌ / is nasalized in ‘none’
- / u: / is nasalized in ‘moon’

• **Place of Articulation:**

- i) /t/ is post – alveolar instead of alveolar in ‘try’ /^htraɪ / under the influence of the following post – alveolar / r /
- ii) / t / is dental under the influence of / θ / in eighth / eɪt̪θ /.
- iii) / n / is post – alveolar under the influence of / r / in enroll.
- iv) / m / is labio – dental / m̪ / under the influence of / f / in comfort.
- v) / n / is dental in tenth under the influence of / θ / as in ninth
- vi) / k / is pre-velar in key under the influence of the front vowel / i: /
- vii) / u: / is centralized in tune under the influence of the palatal sound / j / as in music
- viii) / l / is dental in health under the influence of / θ / as in health, wealth etc.
- ix) / t / and / d / are nasally released in mutton button and sudden under the influence of the immediately following nasal / n /
- x) Consonants are lip-rounded when immediately followed by rounded vowels. Contrast between the /t/ in tea and two is evident.

• **De-Voice:** Usually voiced consonants are devoiced following an aspirated voiceless plosive.

- i) / l / is devoiced in the words ‘play’ ‘clear’.
- ii) / r / is devoiced in ‘pray’ try and ‘cry’.
- iii) / j / is devoiced in ‘queue’
- iv) / w / is devoiced in ‘quite’.
- v) / l / is devoiced in ‘at last’.
- vi) / r / is devoiced in ‘at rest’.
- vii) / w / is devoiced in ‘at once’.
- viii) / j / is devoiced in ‘thank you’.

• **Lip position:** Under the influence of adjacent vowels, consonants are articulated with spread or rounded lips see the following examples.

		Spread lips	Rounded lips
i)	/ p /	place, leap	pool, loop
ii)	/ t /	tea, heat	two, boot
iii)	/ k /	key, leak	cool, look
iv)	/ b /	beat	boot, tube
v)	/ d /	dean, bead	do, food
vi)	/ g /	geese, big	goose
vii)	/ m /	mean, seen	moon, loom
viii)	/ n /	neat, clean	noon
ix)	/ l /	leave, feel	loose, rule
x)	/ f /	feel, leal	fool, roof
xi)	/ s /	see, lease	soon, goose
xii)	/ ʃ /	sheet	shoot
xiii)	/ h /	he	who

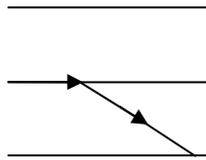
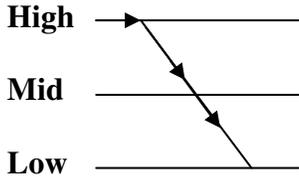
4.5 Intonation

Every language is spoken with a varying pitch. Pitch is the number of times the vocal chords vibrate per second i.e., the number of times they open and close in a second. Sometimes the pitch of our speech

goes up or comes down or may remain steady. Different patterns of variation of the pitch of the voice constitute the ‘intonation’ of a language. It refers to the patterns of variation of the pitch in human voice which also is called as the ‘tone’ that is used in utterances.

4.5.1 Types of Tones/Tunes

Native speakers of English identify six different tones/tunes. If the pitch the tone falls from very high to very low, it is called as High Fall, while the pitch falls from mid level to very low, it is called Low Fall. High and low are the upper and lower limits of human voice.

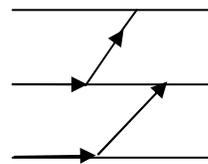
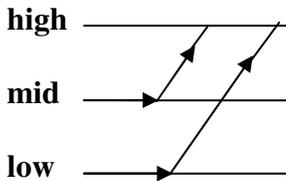


High Fall

Low fall

In practice, for the non-native speakers, both the above tones combine to form only one and that is **the falling tone**.

If the pitch or the tone rises from mid to high or low to high, it is called High Rise while if the pitch rises from low to mid level, it is called the Low Rise.

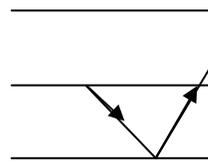
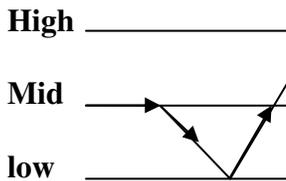


high rise

low rise

In practice, both the above tones combine to form **the rising tone**.

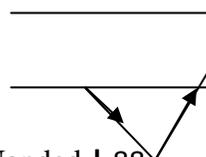
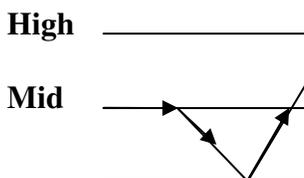
If the pitch falls from the mid level to low level and then rises to the mid level, then it is called as **the Fall Rise tone**. The fall rise may be within one syllable or on two different syllables.



Fall-rise

divided fall-rise

If the pitch of the voice rises from low to about mid and then falls to the low, then the tone is called as **the Rise Fall tone**.



Low

Rise-fall

divided rise-fall

In practice, the fall-rise tone is more commonly used than the rise-fall tone and hence the second language learners are to be familiarized with fall-rise tone. Thus there are three important tones in English that need to be practiced-

The falling tone

The rising tone and

The fall-rise tone.

4.5.2 The Tone Group

In connected speech, a tone group is a sense group or a group of words that make some sense and can be uttered without stopping for breath. A short utterance may form only one tone group while long utterances are divided into manageable group of words, between which we pause. The punctuation marks and our knowledge of phrases and clauses help us to divide the utterance into tone groups. Tone groups are marked by a slant line, if the sentence is long and continues further. The end of the sentence and the beginning of the sentence are marked by double slant lines.

Look at the following examples and divide them into tone groups.

For example:

//Hello//

//yes//

//what is your name//

//I will not come tomorrow//

//switch off the light //

//Beautiful dress//

//If you ring the bell,/ he will come//

//Though he studied hard/ he could not score well//

//They came in/ while I was eating lunch//

//That he knows the truth/is a well known fact//

Identification of the Stressed Syllables

Once the utterance is divided into tone group, the next step is to identify and mark the stressed syllables. Stress or Accent is taken by the content words like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The interrogative pronouns and demonstrative pronouns also take up the accent. The grammatical words like articles, pronouns, preposition, conjunctions and helping verbs are normally not accented. As we know stress/accent is indicated above and in front of the stressed syllables. For polysyllabic words, stress falls on the syllable according to the rules of stress discovered in the respective chapter.

For example:

//^ˈwhat is your^ˈname//

//I will ^ˈnot ^ˈcome there//

//John ^ˈstays in ^ˈDelhi//

//The ^ˈfilm is ^ˈvery^ˈgood//

// ^ˈHow ^ˈwonderful//

4.5.3 The Tonic Syllable

Of the syllables marked with stress in a tone group, only one syllable that stands out from the rest of the syllables is the most important one. This important syllable is called as **the nucleus or the tonic syllable** and the nucleus receives the pitch movement. If it is a normal utterance without any implications, usually the last accented syllable becomes the nucleus and will receive the pitch movement. The pitch movement or intonation can be the falling tone, or the rising tone or the fall-rise tone.

The choice of the nucleus is determined by the meaning that the speaker wants to convey. Any accented syllable in the tone group can become the nucleus according to the sense and meaning the speaker wants to communicate.

For example: John likes fish

As the above example can be uttered in a single attempt, it forms a single tone group.

//John likes fish//

All the three words receive accent because they are all the content words.

//John¹ likes₁ fish//

The nucleus in normal case is the last accented syllable.

//John₁ likes fish//

It means that the subject likes the object called fish and not prawns or eggs or meat or pork. The emphasis is on 'fish'. The same example can also be uttered in the following ways.

// John likes fish//

Here the emphasis is on the verb 'likes'. Accordingly, the meaning of the sentence is on John's liking, i.e., the subject 'likes' to eat fish, it is not that he doesn't like. After the nucleus in the tone group, the following accented syllables are secondarily marked which is indicated by an apostrophe below & before the stressed syllable (·fish).

The same utterance can be said with 'John' as the nucleus.

//John likes fish//

The sentence means that it is John who likes fish and not his wife Mary or his mother Kate or his daughter Carol. The emphasis is on the subject 'John'.

Depending on the intension of the speaker, any accented syllable in the tone group can become the nucleus. As the focus shifts from one syllable to the other, different shades of meaning are conveyed.

4.5.4 Choosing the Appropriate Tone

The next step involved is the choice of the tone for the nucleus. As discussed earlier, there are three important tones in English, and now let's discuss the use of the three tones.

- **The Falling Tone:**

The falling tone is sometimes referred to as the glide-down. It consists of a fall in the pitch of the voice from a high level to a low level. It is marked [˩]. The falling tone is used in the following occasions.

- Ordinary statements without any implications that end with a full stop.

For example:

I am a student.

It is very good.

He likes sweets.

She lives in Delhi.

- Wh- Interrogative sentences which are said in a neutral and matter of fact way.

For example:

- What are you doing?
- Where did he go?
- What's the matter?
- Who is this man?

iii) Commands

For example:

- Don't talk.
- Shut the door
- Take it away
- Stand up

iv) Exclamation

For example:

- How beautiful!
- Wow!
- Excellent!
- What a pity!

v) Question tags where the speaker expects the listener to agree with him.

For example:

- The book is interesting / isn't it?
- He has gone abroad, / hasn't he?

vi) Rhetorical questions.

For example:

- Wasn't that a difficult question?
- Isn't he kind to her?

• **The Rising Tone**

The rising tone is sometimes referred to as the glide-up. It consists of a rise in the pitch of the voice from a low level to a high level. It is marked []. The rising tone is normally used in the following occasions.

- i) Incomplete sentences /
 - For example:**
 - If you come early/ we shall go.
 - Though he is rich/he is very simple
- ii) Yes/No type of questions
 - Will you come tomorrow?
 - Are they eating?
 - Have you read this book?
 - Is she alone?
- iii) Wh- question with a warm and friendly feeling.
 - How are you child?
 - Where is your mother dear?
- iv) Polite requests
 - Pass the salt please

- Open the window
- v) Question tags where the speaker expects his/her listener to disagree with him/her.
//You are a gardner/ aren't you//
//It was a 'good\book/wasn't it//
- vi) Alternative questions
//would you like to have tea, coffee or milk//
//Shall we go by train bus or taxi//
- vii) Enumeration of things
One, two, three, four and five
- viii) Greetings, partings and apologies
//Hello//
Good, bye
I am, sorry

- **The Falling-Rising Tone**

This tone is also referred to as a drive. It consists of a fall from high to low and then a rise to the middle of the voice. The tone can be used either on the same syllable or different syllables of a word or sentence.

For example:

The coffee is good
That was nice
The boys are very fine
Seventy two

The last two are example of divided fall rise. The falling rising tone is normally used for special implications which cannot be verbally expressed. For example,

She is beautiful.

With a falling tone, you mean precisely that.

She is beautiful.

With a rising tone, a doubt regarding the statement is implied.

She is beautiful

It is the 'but tone' that implies something else. For example, she is beautiful but not intelligent.

Here are some more examples.

I am waiting (so hurry up)
The houses are nice (but not the people)
The tea is good (but the saucer is smelling)

These rules of intonation have a practical application in speech and in reading. In fact, the native speaker cannot understand the English spoken by Indians or any second language /foreign language learners of English only because the native speakers are very particular about the notions of stress and intonation while the non-natives hardly understand these notions and use them in their speech. So understanding the use of intonation in the dialogues of day to day speech is very essential. The same expression with a different intonation might mean differently. **For example:** 'Stop talking'.

Uttered with a falling tone, the sentence is a command but uttered with a rising tone, it becomes a request. Similarly, the sentence, 'My name is Kiran.' If it is uttered with a falling tone, which actually is

the right way, it is an assertive sentence answering the question 'what is your name?' But if it is uttered with a rising tone, it sounds like the speaker is asking a question with anger and shouting at the listener as if s/he doesn't even know the name right. The question tags with a falling tone mean the listener would agree with the speaker, while the same sentence and tag with a rising tone is used when the listener might have a disagreement with the speaker. Hence maintaining the right tone is very essential in speech.

4.5.5 Examples for Stress and Intonation

1. A dialogue between A and B in a Post office.

A: Hello, Good morning

B: Good morning, welcome to post office sir. How can I help you?

A: I wanted to post these letters also wanted to buy some postal stationary.

B: Fine sir, you could weigh these letters there and know the rate of the postage and buy the postal stamps in counter number three. The postal stationary is available with me in this counter. What should I give, sir?

A: Oh, thank you so much. Please give me five inland covers, ten post cards and two envelopes. I also want ten postal stamps of two rupees and ten revenue stamps of five rupees each.

B: These are your postal stationary sir, thank you so much and have a nice day.

A: Thank you very much.

Intonation of the above dialogue:

A: //Hello/ Good morning//

B:// Good morning/ welcome to post office sir// How can I help you//

A:// I wanted to post these letters /and also wanted to buy some postal stationary//

B: //Fine sir/ you could weigh these letters there /and know the rate of the postage/ and buy the postal stamps in counter number three// The postal stationary is available with me in this counter// What should I give sir//

A: //Oh/thank you so much//Please give me five inland covers/ ten post cards/ and two envelopes//
// I also want ten postal stamps of two rupees /and ten revenue stamps of five rupees each//

B: //These are your postal stationary sir/ thank you so much/ and have a nice day//

A: //Thank you very much//

2. A paragraph:

At 35, Kiran Kampani thought the best investment would be to sink money into his small garment retail business. His reasoning was logical: the business could expand, his four year-old son would have something to fall back on and grow himself when he came of age, and in the unfortunate event of his untimely death, his wife, a home-maker, could take care of the business. He felt that buying insurance and investing in mutual funds was a waste of his money; it just allowed insurance companies and agents to prosper. So apart from a small recurring deposit with his bank, he had no other real savings. He rapidly expanded his business through online retailing. But disaster struck in mid 2016, when there was a fire in godown. Most of his stock was destroyed, and Kampani himself was severely injured. He spent the next six months on complete bed rest. The bank deposits helped but the amount was meager, as it didn't beat inflation. Thanks to the benevolence of friends, Kampani, supported by his wife, slowly restarted his business.

Intonation of the above paragraph:

//At 35/ KiranKampanithought /the best investment would be to sink money into his small garment retail business// His reasoning was logical/ the business could expand/ his four year-old son would have something to fall back on/ and grow himself when he came of age/ and in the unfortunate event of his untimely death/ his wife/ a home-maker/ could take care of the business// He felt that buying insurance /and investing in mutual funds was a waste of his money/ it just allowed insurance companies and agents to prosper// So apart from a small recurring deposit with his bank/ he had no other real savings// He rapidly expanded his business through online retailing// But disaster struck in mid 2016/ when there was a fire in godown// Most of his stock was destroyed/ and Kampani himself was severely injured// He spent the next six months on complete bed rest// The bank deposits helped /but the amount was meager/ as it didn't beat inflation// Thanks to the benevolence of friends/ Kampani/ supported by his wife/ slowly restarted his business//

Thus is the concept of intonation in English which enables the users of the language to divide an utterance into tone groups; mark the stressed syllables in it; identify the nucleus; and accordingly apply various tone groups like the falling tone, rising tone and the fall-rise tone to the tonic syllable or the nucleus for conveying the exact meaning to the listener.

Divide the following sentences into tone groups and mark the tone group boundaries.

- //What is your name//
- //If you know the answer/ tell it//
- //Sita went to Hyderabad// but Karthikeya went to Idaho//
- //Please sit down//
- //Ram stays in Mumbai//
- //Have you heard anything like this//
- //Make hay/ while the sun shines//

Transcribe the sentences, utter aloud with stress and falling tone.

I am a student.	//aiəməstju:dənt//
It is very good.	//ɪtɪz vɛri gud//
He likes sweets.	//hi laiksswi:ts//
She lives in Delhi.	//ʃilivzin deli//
What are you doing?	//wɒtəjədu:ɪŋ//
Where did he go?	//wədidiɡəu//
What's the matter?	//wɒtsdemæte//
Who is this man?	//hu:ðɪsmæn//
Don't talk.	//dəʊntɔ:k//
Shut the door	//ʃʌtðə:dɔ://
Take it away	//teikitəwei//
Stand up	//stændʌp//
How beautiful!	//haʊbjʊ:tɪfʊl//
Wow!	//waʊ//

Excellent!	// eksələnt//
What a pity!	// wətə'piti//
The book is interesting / isn't it?	// ðə'bukzɪntrestɪŋ / ɪzntɪt//
He has gone abroad, / hasn't he?	// hi:zgəʊnəbrɔ:d / hæzntɪ//
Wasn't that a difficult question?	// wɔzntðətədɪfɪkəltkwestʃn//
Isn't he kind to her?	// ɪzntɪkəɪndtu'hə//

Transcribe the sentences and utter aloud with stress and rising tone

If you come early/ we shall go.	// ɪfjəkʌmɜ:li/wɛʃlʃgəʊ//
Though he is rich/he is very simple	// ðəhi:zriʃ / hi:zveri'simpl//
Will you come tomorrow?	// wɪljəkʌmtəmɔ:rə//
Are they eating?	// əðə'i:tɪŋ//
Have you read this book?	// hævjə'redðɪsbʊk//
Is she alone?	// ɪzʃi'ələʊn//
How are you child?	// haʊəjətʃaɪld//
Where is your mother dear?	// wɛrɪzjəm'ðədiə//
Pass the salt please	// pɑ:sðə'sɔ:ltplɪ:z//
Open the window	// əʊpndə'wɪndə//
// You are a gardner/ aren't you//	// jərə'gɑ:dənə/a:ntjə//
// It was a good book/ wasn't it//	// ɪtwəzə'gʊdbʊk/wəzntɪt//
// would you like to have tea, coffee or milk//	// wʊdʒə'laɪktə'həvti:kə'fi/ə'mɪlk//
// Shall we go by train, bus or taxi//	// ʃlwi'gəʊbaɪbʌs/træn/ətæksi//
One, two, three, four and five	// wʌn/tu:/θri:/fɔ:ən/ faɪv//
// Hello//	// hələʊ//
// Good bye	// gʊdbaɪ//
I am sorry	// aɪm'sɔ:ri//

Transcribe the sentences and utter aloud with stress and falling-rising tone.

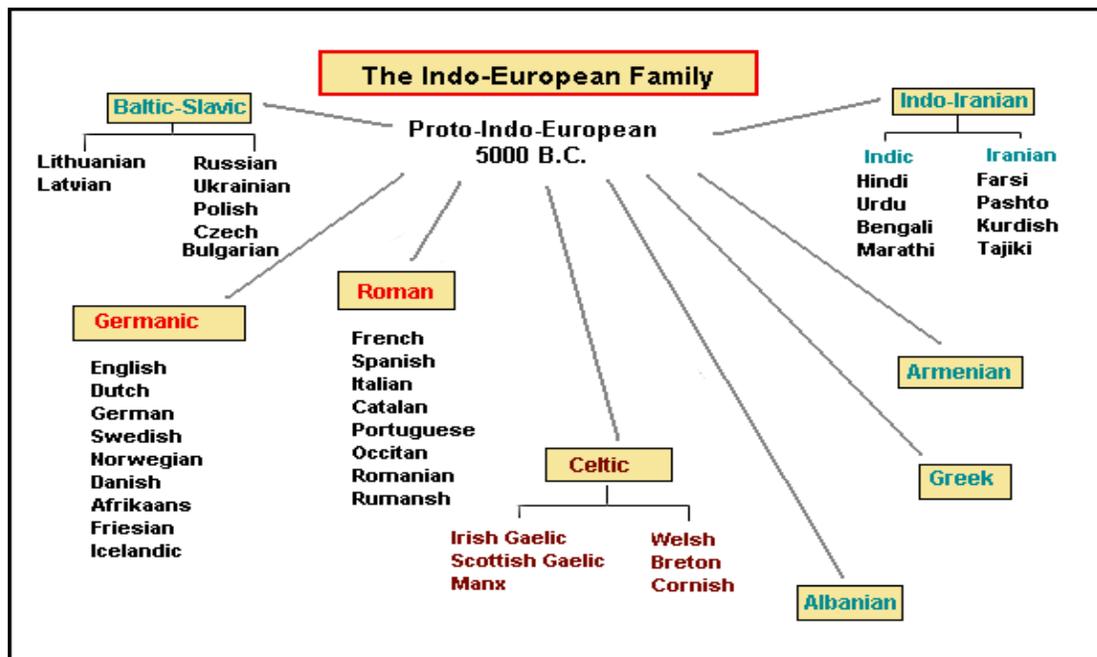
She is beautiful	// ʃi:z bju:tɪfl//
I am waiting (so hurry up)	// aɪm 'waɪtɪŋ//
The houses are nice (but not the people)	// ðə'haʊsɪzənəɪs//
The tea is good (but the saucer is smelling)	// ðə'ti:z'gʊd//

Unit V: Varieties of English

5.1 Introduction

Language by its nature is very dynamic and variable; there is no such thing as uniformity in language. Within the same language, people settled in different regions vary the vocabulary, intonation, syntax and many a times give a peculiar slang that differentiates the regional variety of the language as the **Dialect**. Not only the speech of one community differs from another, but also the speech of different individuals in a single community is marked with individual peculiarities which are called as **Idiolect**. If the dialectal differences become considerable enough that it is unintelligible for the speakers of the same language at some other region, it becomes a different **language** in due course of time, though there may be some commonalities with respect to vocabulary and grammar.

The languages thus might have a common descent or progressive differentiation from a parent speech, which is called as *a family of language*. A century ago it was called as **Aryan language**, later known as **Indo-Germanic language**, and now it is known as the **Indo European language**, suggesting clearly the geographical extent of the family. The descent of Modern English and its relation to the other members of the family can be shown as following:



The evidence within the surviving languages of the also suggest a common ancestry.

Sr. No.	Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Spanish	German	English
1	Pitar	Pater	Pater	Padre	Vader	Father
2	Matar	Midera	Mater	Madre	Mutter	Mother
3	Bhratar	Adelfos	Frater	Hermano	Bruder	Brother

4	Surya	Sol	Helios	Sol	Sonne	Sun
5	Asti	Ei	Es	Es	Ist	Is
6	Ekam	Hen	Unus	Uno	Ein	One
7	trayas	Treis	Tres	Tres	Thrija	Three
8	Devas	Deus	Theos	Dios	Gott	God

Thus the languages have a common parentage and across the time and geography, and must have evolved from the parent language into a number of varieties. English language also is introduced into Britain around mid-fifth century A.D. and has a career of 1500 years. Celts are the first people of England about whom the language is known. Celtic was probably the first Indo-European tongue spoken in England with Gaelic and Brythonic as its branches. The language in England before English was Latin which was the result of Romanisation of the Island.

The Old English is the result of the invasion of the Germanic tribes called Angels, Saxons and Jutes on the Celtic races called Britons in 449 AD. Slowly, the word Angla-land replaced Briton and Angla-language replaced the Celtic tongue, as the Angels were the dominant tribe of all. Angla-land became Anglecyn (Angle- kin) and then **England** (the land of Angels); and Angla-Language became Englisc and slowly into **English**. Three main periods can be recognized in the history of its language –from 450 to 1150 the **Old English period**, from 1150 to 1500 is the **Middle English period**, and from 1500 till date is called as the **Modern English period**.

The old English Period has an influence of German language while the Middle English period has the influence of French language because of the invasion of the French King from Normandy. If the **Old English** was called as the Anglo-Saxon Age, the **Middle English** was called as the Anglo-Norman Age. Of the various dialects in the Middle English tongue, like the Northern dialect, the East midland dialect, the West Midland dialect and the Southern dialect, the **East Midland** type of speech evolved to be the standard variety of English because of its central location in England with the largest and most populous area and due to the presence of Oxford and Cambridge universities in this region. The most influential factor was the importance of London as the capital of England and that it was the social, commercial, political, intellectual and religious centre of England. The survey of English in the Modern era, called as the Modern **English** is complicated because of the addition of colonization and international angle to its use across the world. Growth of Science and Technology, British Empire, films, computers, World Wars, acceptance of English in America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand as first language and acceptance of English as either Second language or Third Language or as a Foreign language across the world has added to the spread of English across the globe, thus evolving the **international varieties** of English.

5.2 International Varieties of English

English as an international language is spoken all across the globe, but is the first language or the Mother tongue in UK, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. There are some phonetic, syntactic, semantic and morphological variations in each of these varieties.

5.2.1 British English

Though every dialect and spoken style has its own beauty, the concept of standard language is mostly applicable to the written word. When people are taught to write, it is the standard language that is taught;

it is even more so for English language as it is learnt and taught across the globe today. The process of standardization is by selecting the East Midland dialect of London as the standard variety because of its **use and popularity**. The dialect was accepted and standardized due to the extensive use by writers like Chaucer, Langland, Shakespeare, Milton, among others. Literary practices reflected the growing awareness of a standard variety in the course of 16th century and thus it had reached the stage of **explicit acceptance**. In the domains of law, government, literature, religion, scholarship and education, slowly the use of Latin and French languages was replaced by the Standard English in England. Translation of the Bible into English, establishment of Grammar Schools in England during 15th and 16th centuries that went on for **codification of English** language helped it to be standardized. The Italian Academy (in 1582) and the French Academy (in 1655) were the bodies of learned men who could make pronouncements on various issues of language based on the ancient Greek and Latin Academies. The establishment of English Academy in the 18th century included particular books written and composed by English writers from Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton, to Swift, Dryden and Defoe to standardize in the field of literary pursuits while Dr. Johnson's compiling of the first English Dictionary in 1755 to be responsible for spelling standardization are the landmarks in the history of **Standardization of English**.

The second half of the 18th century codified English grammar prescriptively. Treatises like Joseph Priestley's *The Rudiments of English Grammar* (1761), Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762), John Ash's *Grammatical Institutes* (1763) and many more tried to codify the principles of language and reduce its rules; to settle the disputed points and decide cases of divided usage; and to point out common errors in English usage with possible rectification. Discarding the use of double negatives, appropriate use of the pronouns, tenses, Standard English spellings, pronunciation rules of English were standardized in the 18th century by these scholars. Though, the attempts to base the English pronunciation according to the spellings was made, the spellings like *tongue, debt, bough, rough, programme, clour*, etc, were retained to show their etymology. Johnson's dictionary (1755) not only codified the words but standardized their spellings and recommended the pronunciation according to the spellings. John Walker's *Critical Pronouncing Dictionary* (1791) was an attempt to sum up and minimize the spelling-pronunciation discrepancy in English.

- The pronunciation of whole words in *forehead, often, waistcoat* in accordance with spelling;
- the sounding h in the spellings like *hour, honour*;
- the silencing of *-ing* as in 'going' to be pronounced as *-in*;
- the use of double letters in the words like *programme, programmes, programming, programmer, programmed* etc;
- the use of silent letters as in *colour, honour, labour, flavour, neighbour, humour* etc;
- the use of *-ise* for words like *recognise, patronise, apologise, organise, recognise* etc;
- words that end in *-re* as in *centre, fibre, litre, theatre* etc;
- words end with *-yse* as in *analyse, paralyse* etc;
- words have double letters like *fuelled, fuelling, travelled, travelling, traveller* etc;
- words are spelled with double vowels like *leukaemia, manoeuvre, oestrogen, paediatric* etc;
- Nouns end with *-ence* as in *defence, licence, pretence, offence* etc;
- Nouns ending with *-ogue* as in *travelogue, analogue, catalogue, dialogue* etc;

- Verbs end with-ense as in *defense*

For the most part current British English spellings follow those of Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* (1755). The process of standardization also has eliminated Cockney English dialect which was supposed to be the barbarous way of using English language. Power relations within English society were also instrumental in the formation of the standard. By the early 19th century, the institution of Public Schools had developed where a Standard British pronunciation that may be described as codified grew up, cultivated and taught.

The spread and rise of English from England across the world is because of contact, trade and commerce, borrowings, discovery and domination on its neighbouring countries. In the last four centuries, the minority languages of British Isles have been undermined by English political and economic power, the policies of English Government and English attitudes, both official and unofficial. **The Gaelic of Ireland, the Scottish Highlands, Welsh, Cornish** were imposed the standardization and acceptance of English language and hastened the decrease of the regional ones. The military conquests, the establishment of English as a language of social aspiration, industrialization and the subsequent disruption of life in the rural areas enforced the spread of English language along with the spread of education system that was instrumental in the spread of Standard English in UK. The universal primary education of 1870 recognized no other language other than English in the schools across United Kingdom with England, Scotland, Celtic Ireland and Welsh. The Tudors formulated a policy of expansion of English throughout the British Isles. Today, Scots and the Irish express their recent towards Anglicisation of their culture and language by asserting their ethnicity. Moreover, many communities those still are dependent on their traditional industries retained their Celtic and Scottish language as their first one.

By 1600, England had made trading contacts in three continents- fishing expeditions off the **Newfoundland –America**; the quest for ivory and gold with **the West Coast of Africa**; the trade of gold, diamonds and spices through **the East India Company in India**. The activities of these companies lasted throughout the colonial period and as a result the speakers of English are brought on contact with people throughout the world. These new lands had different cultures, religions and value systems and for communication to take place, a mixture of both English and the local developed as the **pidgin languages**. A pidgin language is a mixed language expression which is a combination of both the languages in contact, used comfortably by all the people in the region for convenience of communication.

Hence the West African Pidgin in Cameroon and Sierra Leone, the Caribbean English in Jamaica, and other Caribbean islands, and the Indian variety of English came into existence as a means of communication in the colonies. By 1800, when there was a necessity to teach English language, in the colonies, there was a requirement of a standard variety of English with respect to grammar and pronunciation. Because by this time, other than the British variety of English, the American variety, the Canadian variety, the Australian variety also came to be known as the standard native varieties of English as English is spoken as the mother tongue in these lands but with a considerable difference with the original British variety. The divergence is mostly with respect to pronunciation, spellings and grammatical rules along with new vocabulary being added in these new lands because of the new environmental situations, growth of Science and Technology together with the new formed culture and progress in the new lands. The American influence is seen widely in Canada and Australia. In South Africa, where English is declared as the official language in 1822, English is widely learned by often

resentful Afrikaans and the RP norms of the Victorian Age were reinforced by the English entrepreneurs who dominated their economic life in Africa. The same situation existed in India as well and RP norms of the British English influenced the entire British colony. Thus British English is widely accepted and used language across the globe today.

5.2.2 American English

Though the first attempt to codify the differences between American and British usage of vocabulary, spellings and pronunciation is seen in 1806, the English language was brought to America by the colonists from England who settled along the Atlantic sea coast in the Seventeenth century. **Three great periods of European migration** to America are important in the history of America: **the first period** extends from the settlement of Jamestown in 1607 to the end of the colonial times, till 1787, when Congress finally approved the Federal Constitution; **the second period** covers the expansion of the original thirteen colonies west of the Appalachians, at first into the South and then into the Old Northwest territory, ending finally in the Pacific- the era ends with the close of the Civil War and is marked with the immigration from Ireland and Germany; and **the third period** is since the Civil War till the recent where people from the South Europe and Slavic countries who are native to **Eurasia**, stretching from Central, Eastern, and South-eastern Europe all the way north and eastwards to Northeast Europe, Northern Asia, and Central Asia, as well as historically in Western Europe and Western Asia migrated to America. Though the later assimilation into the American culture and American English language took almost two generations, American English has certain common properties despite its diversity of the populace. This might be because of the tendency of togetherness in an alien world together with the spirit of congregationalism to the brave New World, and to prove themselves as a people belonging to the **New World** as against the Old World.

American English too has its history of development and subsequent spread. The high degree of mobility that the Americans enjoyed is one of the reasons of having uniformity in American English. The development of the locomotives, railways in America enabled people to move into different places with new settlements and mixed population in every city resulting in no fixed standards for a particular region. The system of public education at a very early age in America had a standardising influence on the English spoken in America.

As the isolated countries tend to preserve the old customs and beliefs, American English preserved the **archaic qualities** of English i.e., the preservation of old features of the language which have been long discarded in the parent country.

- Ex: 1. The preservation of the pronunciation of /r/ sound in the word final and medial positions, and the pronunciation of flat /a/ in words like path, fast, art ask etc., these features were long discarded in the 18th century British English.
2. The first vowel in the words 'either and neither' are pronounced as /i:/ sound as against the diphthong /ai/ in RP.
3. The use of 'gotten' instead of 'got' is another example of archaism.
4. The old semantics for the words like 'mad' meaning 'angry' (as in Shakespearean times); the adjective 'rare' means 'meat'; 'I guess' for 'think' (as used by Chaucer)

American English introduced many new words into its vocabulary because of new objects, animals, plants, and experiences in the New World. The new vocabulary in the new World is done through two ways-**borrowings and coining**.

1. **Borrowing of Words:** Random borrowings from the existing native language that already has an expression for the experience is an easy way for the settlers in the New World. When the colonial settlers came from England to America, they had to come to terms with a completely new topography and new flora and fauna.
 - The names of these like, ‘chipmunk’, ‘opossum’, ‘moose’, ‘raccoon’, ‘skunk’, were learnt from the native Indians;
 - Expressions like ‘wigwam’, ‘tomahawk’, ‘canoe’, ‘toboggan’, ‘moccasin’;
 - New form of administration of government like ‘presidential’, ‘congressman’ etc;
 - Words like ‘portage’, ‘cache’, ‘bureau’, ‘chowder’ came into use in American English because of their frontier contact with the French;
 - Words like ‘cookie’, ‘stoop’ are borrowed from the Dutch;
 - Words like ‘noodle’, ‘smearcase’ are borrowed from the Germans;
2. **Coining of Words:** Coining of new words from one’s own existent vocabulary is another technique for finding the right expression of a new experience. Words like ‘bluff’, ‘foothill’, ‘notch’, ‘gap’, ‘divide’, ‘watershed’ ‘clearing’ are words of English origin but when applied to new context of the new World meant differently with a changed semantic value.

The publication of the Webster’s Dictionary (1806) and American Dictionary (1828) with all these words helped the standardization of American English. The establishment of **The American Academy of Language and Belles Letters** in 1821 with an aim to preserve the ‘Americanness’ of the language helped in the emergence of standard American English.

The difference between the American and British variety of English are as following:

1. **Accent:** It’s difficult to make clear distinctions between US and UK accents when there is such a wide variety of accents within both the US and UK. A Texan and a New Yorker are both Americans, but have very different accents. The same goes for British accents in London, Manchester and Glasgow. However, some very general distinctions can be made.
 - i. Americans usually pronounce every “r” in a word, while the British tend to only pronounce the “r” when it’s the first letter of a word.
 - ii. The secondary accent of long words like Sec-ret-e-ri, Ne-ce-ssa-ri at the last syllable of ‘ri’ is also stressed in the American variety of language.
 - iii. There is a tendency to stress every syllable of the word and thereby the unaccented syllables of longer words are pronounced with greater clarity and stress in the American English.
 - iv. ‘Been’ in British English is pronounced as the word ‘bean’ but in American English it is pronounced as ‘bin’.
 - v. ‘Leisure’ is pronounced as ‘pleasure’ in British English while in American English it is pronounced with a long vowel as in ‘please’.
 - vi. The introduction of flat /a/ in words like ‘fast’, ‘past’, ‘path’, ‘grass’, ‘dance’, ‘half’ etc.
 - vii. The rounding of lips is lost in the pronunciation of /o/ as in words like ‘not’, ‘lot’, ‘top’, ‘hot’ etc.

viii. The American pronunciation is slow and giving stress on every syllable of the word, while British is fast and follows the rules of stress more.

2. **Spellings:** The American spellings are examples of spellings according to the pronunciation and avoiding of double letters and silent letters in spelling. Some of the major differences in British and American English are as following.

American English	British English
Color	Colour
Behavior	Behaviour
Honor	Honour
Meter	Metre
Organize	Organise
Traveled	Travelled
Wagon	Waggon
Center	Centre
Theater	Theatre
Fiber	Fibre

3. **Vocabulary:** The most noticeable difference between American and British English is their respective vocabulary. The Americans pronounce of the alphabet, 'z' as 'zee' as in 'zebra'. There are hundreds of everyday words that are different. For example, British call the front of a car the *bonnet*, while Americans call it the *hood*. Americans go on *vacation*, while Brits go on *holidays*, or *hols*. New Yorkers live in *apartments*; Londoners live in *flats*. The other differences are as following:

American English	British English
Apartment	Flat
College	University
Theater	Theatre
Vacation	Holiday
Chips	Crisps
(French) fries	Chips
The movies	The cinema
Soda / pop / coke / soft drink	Soft drink / fizzy drink
Sneakers / tennis shoes	Trainers
Sweater	Jumper
Mailbox	Postbox
Band-aid	Plaster
Drugstore	Chemist's
Soccer	Football
Cookie	Biscuit
Truck	Lorry

Expressions like --‘Don’t be a chicken’ for ‘don’t be a coward’; ‘restroom’ for toilet; ‘cilantro’ for coriander; ‘eggplant’ for aubergine; ‘lady’s fingers’ for okra; ‘clippers’ for nail-cutter; ATM for the British ‘Cash Point’ are also very common in American English.

4. **Grammar:** Though the American English has its Parent language as the British English, grammatically speaking, a number of differences can be observed between both the varieties.

i. **Prepositions:** The differences below are only a general rule. American speech has influenced Britain via pop culture, and vice versa. Therefore, some prepositional differences are not as pronounced as they once were.

American English	British English
I’m going to a party on the weekend.	I’m going to a party at the weekend.
What are you doing on Christmas?	What are you doing at Christmas?
Monday through Friday.	Monday to Friday.
It’s different from/than the others.	It’s different from/to the others.

ii. **Past Simple vs Present Perfect:** Americans tend to use the simple past tense when describing something that has recently occurred, while people in the UK are more likely to use the present perfect.

American English	British English
I ate too much.	I’ve eaten too much.
I went to the store.	I’ve been to the shop.
Did you get the newspaper?	Have you got the newspaper?

iii. **The past participle of get:** In the UK, “gotten” as the past participle of “get” is considered archaic and was abandoned long ago in favor of “got.” However, in the US people still use “gotten” as the past participle.

American English	British English
get — got — gotten	get — got — got
I haven’t gotten any news about him.	I’ve not got any news about him.

iv. **Collective nouns: singular or plural?:** In British English, a collective noun (like committee, government, team, etc.) can be either singular or plural, but more often tends toward plural, emphasizing the members of the group. Collective nouns in the US, by comparison, are always singular, emphasizing the group as one whole entity.

American English	British English
The government is doing everything it can during this crisis.	The government are doing everything they can during this crisis.
My team is winning.	My team are winning.
The band is good.	The band are good
My staff is very punctual.	My staff are very punctual.

- v. **Regular or irregular verbs?:** This is a subtle difference that can be easily be overlooked in speech, but is much more apparent in written form. Many verbs that are irregular in Britain (*leapt, dreamt, burnt, learnt*) have been made regular in America (*leaped, dreamed, burned, learned*).
- vi. **Auxiliary verbs like will and shall:** The British usage is 'shall' for the first person both the numbers and 'will' for second and third persons to express future time while the Americans prefer to use 'will' at all places.
- vii. When Americans want to express a lack of obligation, they use the helping verb *do* with negative *not* followed by *need*. "You do not need to come to work today." The British drop the helping verb and contract *not*. "You needn't come to work today."
- viii. Americans use tag questions, less often than British.

A. C. Bough identifies seven marked dialects in American English—the Mexican Variety, the South-East Variety, the South-West Variety, the North-East Variety, The North-West Variety, the Mid-West Variety and the Mid-East Variety of American English; of which **the Mid-West Variety** is supposed to be the standard American English also known as the **General American English**. The Mexican and the South-West varieties are considered lower by status and suffer discrimination in jobs. The Canadian English was largely influenced by the American Variety but tend to use more French words as Canada was at the same time both a British as well as a French colony. The new settlers in New Zealand, Australia and South Africa had the influence of both the parent British English through the imperial rule and the American English as it is the language of the New World along with their new vocabulary and borrowings from the respective native aboriginal settlers.

5.2.3 Australian English

Australia, officially the **Commonwealth of Australia**, <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Australia> - cite note-15 is a sovereign country comprising the mainland of the Australian continent, the island of Tasmania and numerous smaller islands. It is the world's sixth-largest country by total area with a population of 25 million. Australia's capital is Canberra, and its largest city is Sydney. The country's other major metropolitan areas are Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth and Adelaide.

Indigenous Australians inhabited the continent for about 60,000 years prior to European discovery with the arrival of Dutch explorers in the early 17th century, who named it "**New Holland**". In 1770, Australia's eastern half was claimed by Great Britain and by the time of an 1850s gold rush, most of the continent had been explored and an additional five self-governing crown colonies established.

On 1 January 1901, the six colonies federated, forming the Commonwealth of Australia. Australia has since maintained a stable liberal democratic political system that functions as a federalparliamentaryconstitutional monarchy, comprising six states and ten territories. Australia is a highly developed country, with the world's 14th-largest economy, the world's tenth-highest per capita income, the world's 13th-highest military expenditure, the world's ninth-largestimmigrant population, with immigrants accounting for 29% of the population. Although Australia has no official language, English has always been entrenched as the *de facto* national language. Over 250 Indigenous Australian languages are thought to have existed at the time of the first European contact, of which fewer than twenty are still in daily use by all age groups.

Australian English is a major variety of the language with a distinctive accent and lexicon, and differs slightly from other varieties of English in grammar and spelling. General Australian serves as the

standard dialect. There are many similarities but here are some differences between British English versus Australian English:

1. Different words with the same meaning

British English	Australian English
Accident	Prang
Cheap Wine	Plonk
Excellent	Ace
How are you?	How are you going?
English Person	Pom or Pommie
New Zealander	Kiwi
Post man	Postie
Vegetables	Vegies
Lady	Sheila

- Accents:** British settlers went out to Australia to live with the majority coming from either London or from Ireland. Australian English then began to be influenced by Americans which is the reason that the Australian accent began to change. Australians have an accent which is recognized all over the world.
- Pronounce word final ‘r’ like the British-together, river, car, forgiver etc
So the word “smarter” is pronounced /smɑ:tər/ in American English, but /smɑ:tə/ in British and Australian English.
- Don’t pronounce the word final ‘g’ like the British, as in the words fishing, catching, something etc
- Australian slang is very interesting to observe:** Clipping of polysyllabic words is very common in Australian English. For Example:
Aussie=Australian; Ambo=Ambulance; bogan=- a poor jobless person; boogie board=serf board; brickie= a brick layer; g day=hello; kindy=kinder garten; lollies=candy or sweets; rellie=relative; trackioes=track suit; togs=swim suit; sanga=sandwiches; cobber=a friend; etc.
- Pronunciation:** Both Australian English and British English follow Received Pronunciation (RP). Oxford University recognizes this as the most common form of pronunciation. The British English accent uses both vowel and consonant phonics whereas Australian English is predominantly **vowel based phonics**. In addition to the pronunciation of words, **the intonation** (the pitch of your voice) can be very different in different countries. For example, if a person asks a yes/no question in American English, their voice goes up at the end. But if a person asks that question in Australian English or British English, their voice would go down.
- Spellings:** The spellings of Australian English are a mix of British English and American English. Shorter words are spelt more like British spellings and longer words tend to be spelt like American English.

USA	Australia /UK
Center	Centre
Color	Colour
Organize	Organise
Analog	Analogue
Traveled	Travelled

8. **Grammar:** Australian grammar is a mixture of American English and British English due in part to the American television and computer software mixed in with British grammar.

USA	Australia	UK
The class is happy.	The class is happy.	The class are happy.
I'd forgotten.	I'd forgot.	I'd forgot.
I learned it.	I learnt it.	I learnt it.
The staff has decided it.	The staff has decided it.	The staff have decided it.

The difference in **accents** is the first noticeable difference between the Australian, American and the British English languages. Some of the typical Australian expressions with their respective meanings are as following.

- 'See you in the arvo' (as in, see you in the afternoon),
- 'she'll be right' – meaning all is good,
- 'you serious?' meaning i can't believe it,"
- "what youse mob up to tonight?" – which means "what are you all up to tonight?"
- 'alf' meaning stupid person;
- 'dinkie die' for the whole truth;
- 'to hump' meaning to carry;
- 'mozzie' for mosquito;
- 'sheila' for woman;
- 'chooks' for chicken; and
- The famous 'g'day' for 'hello'

The Australian accent is well known throughout the world.

5.2.4 African English

Africa is the second largest continent in the world with 54 fully recognised and independent countries in Africa. It is thought to be the continent where the first humans evolved. The history of Africa begins from the first modern human beings and leads to its present difficult state as a politically developing continent.

Africa's ancient historic period includes the rise of Egyptian civilization, the further development of societies outside the Nile River Valley and the interaction between them and civilizations outside of Africa. In the late 7th century North and East Africa were heavily influenced by the spread of Islam. Between the seventh and twentieth centuries, the Arab slave trade took 18 million slaves from Africa via trans-Saharan and Indian Ocean routes. Between the fifteenth and the nineteenth centuries (500 years), the Atlantic slave trade took an estimated 7–12 million slaves to the New World. Between 1808 and 1860, the British Navy captured approximately 1,600 slave ships and freed 150,000 Africans who were aboard. In the late nineteenth century, the European powers occupied much of the continent, creating many colonial and dependent territories. African independence movements had their first success in 1951 when Libya became the first former colony to become independent. Modern African history has been full of revolutions and wars as well as the growth of modern African economies and democratization across the continent. Africa is one of the world's most multilingual areas, and upon a large number of indigenous languages rests a slowly changing superstructure of world languages (Arabic, English, French, and Portuguese).

The Republic of South Africa, the oldest British settlement in the continent, resembles Canada in having two recognized European languages within its borders: English and Afrikaans, or Cape Dutch. Afrikaans is a **Low Franconian West Germanic language** descended from Dutch and spoken mainly in South Africa and Namibia. Both British and Dutch traders followed in the wake of 15th-century Portuguese explorers and have lived in widely varying war-and-peace relationships ever since. South Africans (English speaking not Afrikaans- the Lingua Franca) today use English language as their official language, with some differences in nuances when compared to the American and British English.

1. Although the English spoken in South Africa differs in some respects from standard British English, its speakers do not regard the language as a separate one. They have naturally come to use much Afrikanerism, such as *kloof*, *kopje*, *krans*, *veld*, and *vlei*, “Braai” for barbequeto denote features of the landscape and employ African names to designate local animals, plants, and social and political concepts. South Africa’s 1996 constitution identified 11 official languages, English among them. The words *trek* and *commando*, notorious in South African history, are among several that have entered world standard English.
2. “robots” used in Western South Africa mean Traffic lights
3. the adjective “Lekker” means ‘good or nice’
4. “Braai” is for barbecue of meat
5. “Cozzie” is swimming suit
6. “Eina” is very emotional
7. “*cake* –means ‘idiot’
8. “ja well no fine” means ‘all is well’
9. “Eish!!” to express emotional interjections
10. *sakkie-sakkie* – is a Ballroom dance.
11. “Crunchies” is a piece of South African lexis for Flapjack. “these crunchies are lekker”
12. Nouns such as “Takkies” or “Pants” both feature the inflection of ‘s’, yet concrete nouns like “Lappie” haven’t featured an inflection. This feature of spoken language is mirrored in the English transcript with concrete nouns such as “apples” “crackers”. This shows no difference between the South African and British English dialect in the application of inflections, not helping to solve the language investigation.
13. Adjectives don’t tend to have inflections such as suffixes added to them in either dialect.
14. Adverbs are also similar with no real noticeable difference between the two different dialects.
15. Dynamic verbs used with past tense inflections of ‘-ed’ as well as present tense inflections of ‘-e’: “i lagged...”

Elsewhere in Africa, English helps to answer the needs of wider communication. It functions as an official language of administration in, and is an official language of, numerous countries, all of them multilingual. Liberia is among the African countries with the deepest historical ties to English—the population most associated with the country’s founding migrated from the United States during the 19th century—but English is just one of more than two dozen languages spoken there by multiple ethnic groups. English’s place within that linguistic diversity is representative of English in Africa as a whole.

5.2.5 Indian English

English, in India, is used as a medium of communication by more than eighty million people, which surpasses the speakers of English even in Great Britain. Languages spoken in India belong to several language families, the major ones being the Indo-Aryan languages spoken by 78.05% of Indians and the

Dravidian languages spoken by 19.64% of Indians. In a country that has 22 official languages with 122 major languages has Hindi in Devanagari script as the national official language; it also accepted English to be the official language in India, since its independence in 1947.

By the year 1600, England has established trading contacts with America, Africa and Asia. The growth of English in India can directly be correlated with the growth of imperial rule in India. However, the exposure of the new religion of Christianity in India through the missionary work and proselytizing is the main reason of English entering into the Indian society rather than trade and commerce. The efforts that started in 1614, became more effective in 1659 and the addition of the 'missionary clause' in 1698 gave a different colour of enhancement of the Church to the mere interest of the trading activity of the East India Company. It provided the company with a legitimization principle for the exploitation that they were pertaining in the land. In 1765, when encouragement of missionaries was stopped, a great resentment was seen and by 1813, the missionary purpose along with the spread of education in India restarted the work of proselytizing and educational activities of the missionaries.

It is because of the **Macaulay's Minute (1835)** by Lord Macaulay and the **Woods Despatch (1854)** by Sir Charles Wood that three universities were established in 1857 –at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras by Lord Dalhousie, the Governor General in India. By the end of 19 century, the Punjab (Lahore) and Allahabad universities were established. Woods Despatch contained two interesting clauses: the first is emphasising the use of vernaculars instead of Sanskrit or Arabic and the second is to make English education optional-to teach English language only there, where there is a demand for it. This was to dilute the Macaulay Minute (1835), though the policy of education that was followed in later years was more influenced by the Minute than the Despatch.

With the spread of colleges and universities, English became the academic language of India. It became a language of prestige replacing Persian and all other Indian languages in the first decade of the twentieth century. The nationalist movement of freedom struggle was anti-British, but the movement itself was strangely, in English. Though Raja Rammohan Roy and others grouped as the **Anglicists** welcomed and supported the English education, the **Orientalists** led by H. T. Prinsep criticised the Minute as 'hasty and indiscrete' and demanded the education system to be in Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian. The Minute with the agenda of 'creating a class of persons, Indian by blood and colour but British in taste', introduced the value of English instruction in the education system of India. **Indian Education Commission of 1882** emphasised the spread of the knowledge of English in India. **Indian Universities Commission of 1902** emphasised the modern Indian languages at primary and secondary level of education in India, and English medium at the Higher Education System. In spite of strong opposition from Gandhi and others regarding the medium of education as English in India, by and large the situation remained unchanged in the pre-independence era, till 1947.

The language policy during the post-independence was pro-vernacular with Gandhian thought but the Nehruvian thought emphasised the importance of English in the modern world. The **University Education Commission of 1948 -49** emphasised the use of both Indian and English languages in the Indian education system. The Kothari Commission 1964-66 emphasised the **Three Language Formula** in India, where every Indian would learn three languages in course of the education system-Mother tongue, Hindi as the official Indian Language and English as the International Language.

Features of Indian English: English has a special status in India. Apart from having a place in the public institutions of the country, in parliament, the law courts, broadcasting, the press and the education system English has spread in our daily life. English plays a key role in professional relationships between foreign and Indian companies. English permeated symbolizes in Indian minds better education, better culture and higher intellect. Actually 4% of Indian use English. Thus India ranks third in the world after USA and the UK to use English as spoken language. Indian English comprises several dialects or varieties of English spoken primarily in India. This dialect evolved due to British colonial rule of India for nearly two hundred years. English is the co-official language of India, which has the world's largest English-speaking population. After Hindi English is the most commonly spoken language in India. But usually Indians mingle English with Indian languages. Stylistic influence of Indian local languages is a particular feature of Indian literature in English. The following expressions make Indian English very interesting.

- “What is your good name?” which is translation of Hindi “Apka Shubh naam kya hai?” Shub means auspicious or good, and it is basically used as a polite way of asking someone’s name.
- “Today morning” (aaj Subha) or “Yesterday night” (kal raat) to mean this morning last night.
- Shut up (chup bhait) which is generally used more causally in Hindi but it is offending term in America.
- Indians commonly use “you people” when they want to address more than one person. It is a simple translation of “aap log” or “tum log” but they do not realize that it carries with it racial connotation.
- Some expressions such as “general mai” (in general) and “ek minute” (one minute) are prevalent in Indian English.
- Use of ‘yaar, machaa, abey, arey’ in an English conversation between Indians, mainly by people of native Hindi-speaking origin; ‘da’, ‘machaa’ is more frequently used in the South.
- The progressive tense in stative verbs: ‘I am understanding it. She is knowing the answer’ are an influence of traditional Hindi grammar, it is more common in northern states.
- Use of "off it" and "on it" instead of "switch it off" and "switch it on."
- Use of "current went" and "current came" for "The power went out" and "The power came back"
- Use of word "wallah" to denote occupation or 'doing of/involvement in doing' something, as in "The taxi-wallah overcharged me."
- Use of "Can you drop me?" and "We will drop her first" instead of "Can you drop me off?" and "We will drop her off first"
- "Out of station" to mean "out of town"- This phrase has its origins in the posting of army officers to particular 'stations' during the days of the East India Company.
- "Tell me" used when answering the phone, meaning "How can I help you?"
- "Order for food" instead of "order food", as in "Let's order for sandwiches".
- Referring to elders, strangers or anyone meriting respect as ""jee""/""ji"" (suffix) as in "Please call a taxi for Gupta-ji" (North, West and East India)
- Use of prefixes "Shree"/"Shri" (Mr) or "Shreemati"/"Shrimati" (Ms/Mrs): Shri Ravi Shankar or Shreemati Das Gupta.
- As with Shree/Shreemati, use of suffixes "Saahib/Sāhab" (Mr) and "Begum" (Mrs) (Urdu) as in "Welcome to India, Smith-saahib." or "Begum Sahib would like some tea."
- Use of "Mr" and "Mrs" as common nouns- For example, "Jyoti's Mr came to the college yesterday" or "My Mrs is not feeling well".

- Use of "Ms" with first name- For example, Swathi Ashok Kumar might be addressed as "Ms Swathi" instead of "Ms Kumar". This is logical and perhaps the only possible correct usage in South India, especially in Tamil Nadu, where most people don't use a surname.
- Use of the English words 'uncle' and 'aunty' as suffixes when addressing people such as distant relatives, neighbours, acquaintances, even total strangers (like shopkeepers) who are significantly older than oneself. E.g., "Hello, Swathi aunty!" In fact, in Indian culture, children or teenagers addressing their friend's parents as Mr Patel or Mrs Patel (etc.) is considered unacceptable, perhaps even offensive—a substitution of Sir/Ma'am is also not suitable except for teachers. On the contrary, if a person is really one's uncle or aunt, he/she will usually not be addressed as "uncle"/"auntie", but with the name of the relation in the vernacular Indian language, even while conversing in English.
- It is interesting to observe that calling one's friends' parents auntie and uncle was also very common in Great Britain in the 1960s and 70s but has is much rarer today. For example, if a woman is one's mother's sister, she would not be addressed (by a Hindi speaker) as "auntie" but as *Mausi* (Hindi)
- Use of Respected Sir while starting a formal letter instead of Dear Sir; Again, such letters are ended with non-standard greetings, such as "Yours respectfully", or "Yours obediently", rather than the standard "Yours sincerely/faithfully/truly".
- Use of "Baba" (father) while referring to an elderly male, such as "No Baba, just try and understand, I cannot come today".
- Use of interjections 'Arey! and acchha!' to express a wide range of emotions, usually positive though occasionally not, as in "Arey! What a good job you did!", "Accha, so that's your plan." or "Arey, what bad luck, yaar!"
- Use of the word "chal" (Hindi for the verb "walk") to mean the interjection "Ok", as in "Chal, I gotta go now" at the end of a phone call.
- Use of T-K as 'theek hai' in place of O.K. when answering a question, as in "Would you like to come to the movie?" -- "T-K, I'll meet you there later." ("theek hai", literally "fine is", meaning "okay")
- Use of oof! to show distress or frustration, as in "Oof! The baby's crying again!"
- Use of "Wah" to express admiration, especially in musical settings, as in "Wah! Wah! You play the sitar so well!"
- "Paining" is used when "hurting" would be more common in Standard American and British: "My head is paining."
- People from North India, especially Uttar Pradesh, tend to add 'i' before the words starting from 'S', such as screw, scooter, start, style, etc., and pronounce them as iscrew, i scooter, istart, istyle and so on.

Here are some more examples:

- My manager is from Delhi only, ('only' is superfluous.)
- She is my cousin sister. (Either 'cousin' or 'sister' would suffice)
- The meeting has been postponed to Saturday, (the correct word is 'advanced'.)
- She is in the family way. (This is an Indian usage, alien to Americans, which means that 'she is pregnant')
- I am going gymming this weekend, (this is not used elsewhere)

Many such examples of 'Indianisms' are commonly used by Indians in business. Since such expressions are not used abroad, people outside India will not be in a position to readily understand the meaning.

- It is worth mentioning here that 3T Corporation, headquartered in Princeton, New Jersey, recently launched a website called wordwala.com, which gives American English options for typical Indian English words.
- Many words from Indian native languages have been introduced into the global English language spoken worldwide; some notable examples being jungle, bungalow, punch, sari, paan, shawl, and veranda.
- And just as is true with American and British English, there are some words which are unique to speakers from India and instances of misunderstanding are not uncommon. Two examples of Indian English words that non-Indian English speakers probably never encounter include “airdash” which is used for someone who is in a hurry, and “badmash”, another word for a hooligan.
- For instance, if a person wears a “hi-tech outfit”, it does not mean that they are equipped with the latest digital gadgets. Instead, a hi-tech outfit stands for fashionable and modern and that follows the latest trends.
- “Achcha hain” the middle of a conversation led in English, it only means good.
- In other cases, words from the local dialects and languages make their way into Indian English – words that would be unintelligible to non-speakers. Sometimes these words replace the English entirely.

Differences in pronunciation: Differences in vocabulary are not the only characteristics that make common communication more difficult between speakers of Indian English and speakers of other forms of English, certain differences in pronunciation further set these styles apart.

- Speakers of English in India do not make any difference when it comes to the sound /v/, which is produced using one’s lower lips and top teeth; and sound /w/ in the production of which both lips are used.
- The two “th” sounds /θ/ and /ð/ are usually replaced by /d/ and /t/.
- /ə/ and /ʌ/ most commonly disregarded and replaced by the vowel /a/.
- Another characteristic of the sounds used by speakers of English in India is the replacement of two adjacent vowels by a single long vowel followed by /r/sound. So beer becomes /bir/ and pear is pronounced as /per/.

These are some of the special features of Indian English which are accepted in India. In fact, the English pronunciation by Indian belonging to each region pronounces with a different favour according to his/her mother tongue impact and thereby making English pronunciation sound like Minglish (Marathi or Malayalam +English), Tinglish (Telugu or Tamil + English), Pinglish (Punjabi+English), Hinglish (Hindi+English) and so on.

The ‘Indian-ness’ in Indian English:

Indian-ness in Indian English can be because of the mother tongue impact on English which in the linguistic sense is called as the L1 interference in L2. This could be either a literal translation or a shift based on the underlying source item.

1. **Translation:** Translation may be by establishing equivalent or partially equivalent formations in Indian English from the formation of Indian languages. Either the L1 expression is literally translated or metaphorically translated.

For Ex: ‘Namak Haram’ has been translated by Mulk Raj Anand as the ‘Spoiler of Salt’ (metaphorical translation). ‘Iswar –prem’ is literally translated as ‘god-love’. Other examples are ‘car-festival’, ‘caste-mark’, ‘caste-dinner’, ‘cow worship’, ‘cousin-sister’, ‘cousin brother’, ‘waist-thread’, ‘twice-born’ etc.

2. **Shift:** In a shift, no attempt is made to establish formal equivalence. Shifts are usually an adaptation of the expressions from the Indian cultural traits.

For ex: ‘May the fire of ovens consume you’

‘May the vessel of your life never float in the sea of existence.’

‘Crocodile tears.’

‘Elephant’s teeth.’

Generally, the underlying source item of a shift is a fixed collocation of Indian language which deviates grammatically from British or American expressions; they may involve loan shifts from Indian languages; they may be formally non-deviant but contextually deviant. Such collocation deviation of Indianisms can be formal or contextual.

Formal collocation deviation: It means the deviation in terms of the lexical items which operate in the structure of a collocation. Ex: dining leaf, paan, aarati, Prasad, flower-bed etc.

Contextual collocation deviation: The typical English expressions like: a bunch of keys is reduced to ‘key-bunch’, an address of welcome’ is reduced to ‘welcome address’, ‘love of God’ is reduced to ‘god-love’. Expressions like ‘London-returned’, ‘America returned’ are similar examples.

‘Attar bottle’, ‘kum-kum mark’, ‘sacred ash’, ‘cow-dung cakes’, ‘beetle-bag’, ‘bride-showing’, ‘wedding-house’, ‘police-jamaadar’, ‘aarti-plate’, etc. are some more interesting examples of Indian-ness of Indian English.

The Indian writers in English also have popularised such Indian expressions through their writings. If poets from Kashiprasad Ghosh, till A. K. Ramanujan have Indian-ness expressed through their poems; Writers like Raja Rao, Mulk Raj Anand, R. K. Narayan, Anita Desai, Ruskin Bond popularised Indian English through their fiction. With the publication of Salman Rushdie’s *Midnight’s Children* (1980), the chutnification of language has the fullest communication. Rushdie’s use chutnification of English is a fine mixture of Hindi, Urdu words with English to reflect India’s hybrid culture. Words like ‘updownup’, ‘downupdown’, ‘almostseven’, ‘nearlynineyearsold’, ‘godknowswhat’, ‘funtoosh’, ‘gora’, ‘zenana’, ‘unbeautiful’, ‘memoryless’, ‘dislikable’, ‘doctori’, ‘lifelessness’, ‘informations’, ‘mens’, ‘phirangi’ etc, are wonderful examples of Indian English to create magic realism in fiction.

This is rightly followed by Amitav Ghosh, Upamanyu Chatterjee, Rohinton Mistry and others in the recent times. It is true that Indian English writing demands its own place in the galaxy of English writings with its own expression of ‘**Indian English**’.

5.3 Social Varieties of English

The study of a language in relation to the society is called as **sociolinguistics**. Linguists like Saussure, Bloomfield, Noam Chomsky aimed at standardizing the syntactic rules of the language i.e., the rules that deal with the grammaticality and thereby aimed at achieving linguistic competence among the speakers of language. Chomsky in *Aspects of Theory of Syntax* (1965) opines that ‘the concepts of linguistic theory are concerned with the ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogenous society’. But language is always spoken in society and in social situations and hence Dell Hymes’ (1971) states that ‘more important than the linguistic competence, a speaker must achieve communicative competence’, i.e., a

speaker should know as to what, where, how and whom in a particular expression that a linguistic piece is suitable.

Socio linguistics deals with the features like –‘how to speak, where to speak, whom to speak and what to speak’ in the society. Thus, the phenomenon of communicative competence deals with not only the facts of language (linguistic competence) but also of its use in the society (sociolinguistics) and this is of prime importance in Sociolinguistics. In the second half of the twentieth century sociolinguistic concepts like Speech Community, Speech repertoire, Speech situation, speech event and speech act gained prominence.

5.3.1 Speech Repertoire

In a multilingual speech community a whole range of languages, or repertoire, is available to speakers, who choose to use some of them in their linguistic interaction to perform particular social roles. Repertoire applies at two different levels to both the community and the individual. **Speech repertoire or verbal repertoire** refers to the range of languages available for use for a speaker in the speech community. Each language available enables the speaker to perform different social role(s). Speech repertoire is not simply composed of linguistic forms but a set of variety of language, each with an internal structure that are available to the speakers of the community for performing different functions. In monolingual communities, varieties, dialects and styles constitute the speech repertoire while in the bilingual and multilingual communities, two or more languages and their varieties, dialects and style constitute the speech repertoire. All speech communities can be studied within the framework of the verbal repertoire. The notion of speech community, speech situation, speech event and speech act are more important to understand the use of language in a society.

Speech Community is ‘a group of people in a society who interact by means of speech’ according to Bloomfield. All the people ‘who use a given language or dialect’ for social interaction purposes are termed as the speech community. The social group could be **Monolingual** which uses only one language as one observes in China, Japan, Korea; or **Bilingual**, that uses two languages for interaction as one observes in England using English and French or as in the or the US with English and Spanish; or **Multilingual**, where people know and interact with more than one language as in India where speakers are acquainted with more than two languages, mother tongue, Hindi and English and may bay be more. Sharing a common language along with shared attitudes to language is the most important group identity in a speech community.

Speech Situation refers to the situation to use the language with in the speech community. Occasions in the society like the ceremonies, parties, hunts, meals, seminar/conference presentations, fights etc. are speech situations where language is used by the speakers.

Speech Event: Within a speech situation, a **speech event** is a smaller unit of description. Speech events are restricted to aspects of activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech. If a seminar in the town is a speech situation, a lecture, a formal introduction or a conversation is a speech event.

Speech Act: A **speech act** is the smallest unit of the concept which represents a level distinct from a sentence and not identifiable with any single portion of other levels of grammar. A speech act if a functional unit while a sentence is a grammatical or formal unit of language.

For ex: A party is a speech situation; a conversation during the party between two or more guests is a speech event; and a joke cracked in it is a speech act. A college is a speech situation; a lecture between a specific timing is a speech event; the classroom discussion between the teacher and the students are speech acts.

The study of language in social contexts with its functions and the communicative competence required by the speaker to perform various functions in different speech situations through speech acts is the important aspect of study in sociolinguistics. Hence much research today in language studies concentrates on speech acts in different speech events/situations.

So the notion of language as a uniform and invariant structure in all its varieties with prescriptive rules applied to all the varieties of language is today replaced. All varieties of language as used in the society are studied; a variety is described as a body of human speech patterns which is sufficiently homogenous to be analysed syntactically and has a broad semantic scope of function in all normal speech situations for effective communication. Mutual intelligibility is the criteria to decide whether two varieties belong to the same language or should be considered as different languages. For example, Konkani Marathi and Vaidarbi Marathi are intelligible to all Marathi speakers with all their variations and hence become the varieties of the same language of Marathi, while Gujarathi and Marathi are two languages as they both are not intelligible to a normal Marathi speaker or a Gujarathi speaker. For similar reasons, French and English are two different languages and Cockney, Welsh, are varieties of English. Other linguistic factors like phonological or syntactic similarities and genetic relatedness are not helpful in differentiating languages and varieties. The ultimate decision in applying the label of language and variety rests with the members of the speech community and is generally determined by socio-political factors.

Language varieties can be classified according to three main criteria:

1. **Varieties defining the User-** of native and non-native: Dialects and Accents
2. **Varieties defining the Use-**Registers
3. **Varieties defining social relationships between speakers and hearers-**formal, informal and intimate styles.

5.3.2 Dialects

A dialect is a variety of language distinguished according to region and social class. Dialect is a variety of a language that signals where a person comes from. Thus the regional dialects of Hindi are spoken in Banares and Meerut. Social dialects of Hindi are spoken by educated class and uneducated class; a news reader and an auto rickshaw driver on the streets.

The notion is usually interpreted geographically (regional dialect), but it also has some application in relation to a person's social background (class dialect) or occupation (occupational dialect). The word *dialect* comes from the Ancient Greek *dialektos* "discourse, language, dialect," which is derived from *dialegesthai* "to discourse, talk." A dialect is chiefly distinguished from other dialects of the same language by features of linguistic structure—i.e., grammar (specifically morphology and syntax) and vocabulary. In morphology (word formation), various dialects in the Atlantic states have *clim*, *clum*, *clome*, or *cloome* instead of *climbed*, and, in syntax (sentence structure), there are "sick to his stomach," "sick at his stomach," "sick in," "sick on," and "sick with." On the level of vocabulary, examples of

dialectal differences include American English *subway*, contrasting with British English *underground*; and *corn*, which means “maize” in the United States, Canada, and Australia, “wheat” in England, and “oats” in Scotland.

Nevertheless, while dialects of the same language differ, they still possess a common core of features. Although some linguists include phonological features (such as vowels, consonants, and intonation) among the dimensions of dialect, the standard practice is to treat such features as aspects of accent. In the sound system of American English, for example, some speakers pronounce *greasy* with an “s” sound, while others pronounce it with a “z” sound. Accent differences of this kind are extremely important as regional and class indicators in every language. Their role is well recognized in Great Britain, for example, where the prestige accent, called Received Pronunciation, is used as an educated standard and differences in regional accent, both rural and urban, are frequent. There is far less accent variation in Canada, Australia, and large parts of the United States.

Frequently, the label dialect, or dialectal, is attached to substandard speech, language usage that deviates from the accepted norm—e.g., the speech of many of the heroes of Mark Twain’s novels. On the other hand, the standard language can also be regarded as one of the dialects of a given language, though one that has attracted special prestige. In a historical sense, the term *dialect* is sometimes applied to a language considered as one of a group deriving from a common ancestor. Thus, English, Swedish, and German are sometimes treated as Germanic dialects.

There is often considerable difficulty in deciding whether two linguistic varieties are dialects of the same language or two separate but closely related languages; this is especially true in parts of the world where speech communities have been little studied. In these cases especially, decisions regarding dialects versus languages must be to some extent arbitrary. Sometimes socio-political factors play a role in drawing the distinction between dialect and language.

Geographic dialects

The most widespread type of dialectal differentiation is regional, or geographic. As a rule, the speech of one locality differs at least slightly from that of any other place. Differences between neighbouring local dialects are usually small, but, in traveling farther in the same direction, differences accumulate. Every dialectal feature has its own boundary line, called an **isogloss** (or sometimes **heterogloss**). Geographic dialects include local ones (e.g., the Yankee English of Cape Cod or of Boston, the Russian of Moscow or of Smolensk) or broader regional ones, such as Delaware Valley English, Australian English, or Tuscan Italian.

Social dialects

Another important axis of differentiation is that of social strata. In many localities, dialectal differences are connected with social classes, educational levels, or both. More-highly educated speakers and, often, those belonging to a higher social class tend to use more features belonging to the standard language, whereas the original dialect of the region is better preserved in the speech of the lower and less-educated classes. In large urban centres, innovations unknown in the former dialect of the region frequently develop. Thus, in cities the social stratification of dialects is especially relevant and far-reaching, whereas in rural areas, with a conservative way of life, the traditional geographic dialectal differentiation prevails. Educational differences between speakers strongly affect the extent of their vocabulary.

The **International Dialects of English Archives (IDEA)** was created in 1998 as internet first archive of dialects and accents and within a short time of 170 hours, 1400 samples from 120 countries and territories have registered as the dialects and of English.

5.3.3 Accents

The differences in pronunciation by the speakers mark differences in accents in speech. The Received Pronunciation RP spoken by educated speakers in the Southern part of London and Cockney used by uneducated speakers in London are accents of English. Spoken English shows great variation across regions where it is the predominant language. Accent is the part of dialect concerning local pronunciation.

Primary English-speakers show great variability in terms of regional accents. Some, such as Pennsylvania Dutch English, are easily identified by key characteristics; others are more obscure or easily confused. Broad regions can possess sub-forms as identified below; for instance, towns located less than 10 miles (16 km) from the city of Manchester, such as Bolton, Rochdale, Oldham and Salford, each have distinct accents, all of which together comprise the broader accent of Lancashire county; while these sub-dialects are very similar to each other, non-local listeners can identify firm differences. On the other side of the spectrum, Australia has a "General accent" that is virtually consistent over thousands of kilometers. There are considerable variations within the accents of English across England, one of the most obvious being the trap-bath split of the southern half of the country.

Two main sets of accents are spoken in the **West Country**, are Cornish, Devon, Somerset, Gloucestershire, Bristol, Dorset and Wiltshire. The accents of **Northern England** are also distinctive, including a range of variations: Northumberland, Newcastle upon Tyne, Sunderland, Cumbria, and Lancashire. The accents of **Yorkshire** are also distinctive, having regional variants in Leeds, Bradford, Sheffield, York, Hull, and Middlesbrough. There is also great variation **within Greater London**, with various accents such as Cockney, Estuary English, Multicultural London English and Received Pronunciation being found all throughout the region and the Home Counties. English accents can differ enough to create room for misunderstandings. For example, the pronunciation of pearl in some variants of Scottish English can sound like the entirely unrelated word petal to an American ear.

Secondary English speakers tend to carry over the intonation and phonetics of their mother tongue in English speech. For example in India, a number of distinct dialects of English are spoken like English along with the native tongues of Nepali, Hindi, Punjabi, Rajasthani, Sindhi, Balochi, Pashto, Marathi, Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Kannada, Marathi, Odia, Maithili, Malayalam, Sinhala, Tamil, Telugu, Tulu, Urdu and many more, creating a variety of accents of English. Accents originating in this part of the world tend to display several distinctive features, including, syllable-timing and not stress-based timing and "sing-song" pitch.

An accent may be identified with the locality in which its speakers reside (a regional or geographical accent), the socioeconomic status of its speakers, their ethnicity, their caste or social class (a social accent), or influence from their first language (a foreign accent).

5.3.4 Registers

Registers are the topic-oriented varieties of language. Registers vary due to different professions in the society. The language of Medicine, Law, Computers and Sports vary because of different professions.

Registral varieties are characterised by variation in the lexicon, and less frequently variation on grammar. Registral switching is very important for a speaker's communicative competence.

In sociolinguistics, a register is a variety of language used for a particular purpose or in a particular communicative situation. M. A. K. Halliday and R. Hasan (1976) interpret register as "the linguistic features which are typically associated with a configuration of situational features – with particular values of the field, mode and tenor...". **Field** for them is "the total event, in which the text is functioning, together with the purposive activity of the speaker or writer; includes subject-matter as one of the elements". **Mode** is "the function of the text in the event, including both the channel taken by language – spoken or written, extempore or prepared – and its genre, rhetorical mode, as narrative, didactic, persuasive, 'phatic communion', etc." The **tenor** refers to "the type of role interaction, the set of relevant social relations, permanent and temporary, among the participants involved". These three values – field, mode and tenor – are thus the determining factors for the linguistic features of the text. "The register is the set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns, that are typically drawn upon under the specified conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in the realization of these meanings." Register, in the view of M. A. K. Halliday and R. Hasan, is one of the two defining concepts of text. "A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive."

The ISO has defined standard ISO 12620 on Data Category Registry (ISO, 2018). This is a registry for registering linguistic terms used in various fields of translation, computational linguistics and natural language processing and defining mappings both between different terms and the same terms used in different systems. The registers identified are:

- Bench-level register
- Dialect register
- Facetious register
- Formal register
- In house register
- Ironic register
- Neutral register
- Slang register
- Taboo register
- Technical register
- Vulgar register

The term diatype is sometimes used to describe language variation which is determined by its social purpose (Gregory 1967). **Diatype** is usually analysed in terms of **field**, the subject matter or setting; **tenor**, the participants and their relationships; and **mode**, the channel of communication, such as spoken, written or signed.

5.3.5 Styles

Apart from regional, social and registral varieties, another major kind of variation found in language use is the stylistic variation. Stylistic variation is an individual idiosyncratic expression in different situations and role relations in the society. Stylistic variation is in accordance with the degrees of

formality and informality. Martin Joos (1961) describes five styles in spoken English: frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate.

- **Frozen:** Also referred to as static register. Printed unchanging language, such as Biblical quotations, often contains archaisms. Examples are the Pledge of Allegiance of the United States of America and other "static" vocalizations. The wording is exactly the same every time it is spoken.
Ex: Visitors should make their way at once to the upper floor by way of the staircase.
- **Formal:** One-way participation; no interruption; technical vocabulary or exact definitions are important; includes presentations or introductions between strangers.
Ex: Visitors should go upstairs at once.
- **Consultative:** Two-way participation; background information is provided – prior knowledge is not assumed. "Back-channel behavior" such as "uh huh", "I see", etc. is common. Interruptions are allowed. Examples include teacher/student, doctor/patient, expert/apprentice, etc.
Ex: Would you mind going upstairs right away please?
- **Casual:** In-group friends and acquaintances; no background information provided; ellipsis and slang common; interruptions common. This is common among friends in a social setting.
Ex: Time you all go upstairs now.
- **Intimate:** Non-public; intonation more important than wording or grammar; private vocabulary. Also includes non-verbal messages. This is most common among family members and close friends.
Ex: Up you go boys!!; Chaos move on up!!; Hi, go up!!

5.4 Some Aspects of Sociolinguistics for Languages in Contact

Languages basically could be native variety and non-Native variety depending on whether the language is the mother tongue of the inhabitant users or otherwise. Standard and non-standard varieties among a speech community is another way of understanding the status of a language within the speech community. Language in contact gives rise to sociolinguistic phenomenon like bilingualism/multilingualism, diglossia, code-switching and code-mixing, pidgins and creoles.

5.4.1 Native and Non-native Varieties

The social situation where a language is spoken as the Mother tongue is called as the native variety and if it is not the mother tongue but learnt for communicative purposes or professional purposes, it becomes the non-native variety of language. For example, English in England, America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are spoken as the first language as it is the mother tongue of the people; hence it is the native variety in these countries. But English is learnt as a second language or third language in India and as a foreign language in China, Japan, and Korea; each of the countries mentioned as its own mother tongue but prefer to learn English for meeting various social and professional causes; hence it is non-native variety.

A native variety is acquired from childhood in natural settings while a non-native variety is learnt in formal settings as in school. In native variety, the child's first socialization takes place while a non-native variety is learned after the child has learnt its first language. The native variety has a wide range

of use as the native speaker controls a wide range of registral and stylistic variation; while the non-native has a limited range of use.

5.4.2 Standard and Non-standard Varieties

A standard variety of language is that which is generally used by educated speakers and for which reference works like dictionaries and grammar books are available. 'Standard' refers to social acceptability and the prestige accorded to the variety in society. A non-standard variety of a language is that which is generally used by uneducated speakers and for which reference books are generally not available. It has a low social acceptability and is rated low on the prestige scale. Both native and non-native varieties have standard and non-standard varieties.

5.4.3 Bilingualism/Multilingualism

When people of widely different cultural and linguistic backgrounds live together in a geographical region sharing common socio-economic and political activities of the community, stable bilingual and multilingual communities are created. For example a country like Canada had been bilingual while a country like India can be referred as multilingual for the same reasons. Depending up on the domains in which the speaker is situated the preference of the code of language would be. Fishman (1965) suggests the domains, role-relationship, locales and topics to select the language.

Domain	Role-relationship	Locales	Topics
family	Parent-child	home	How to be a good son/daughter
religion	Preist-parishioner	church	How to be a good Christian
education	Teacher-pupil	School/college	How to solve a Maths problem
employment	Employer-employee	Work-place	How to do your job efficiently
government	Official-official	office	How to maintain law and order

Generally, in a bi/multi lingual situation, one language is associated with one domain. For example in India, in the family domain, it is use of mother tongue, at the work place it would be Hindi/English and with vendors in the society it could be Hindi/local language while with the friends it could be Hindi/English or local language or Mother tongue depending upon the speech situation.

5.4.4 Diglossia

Fergusson (1959) attempts to focus on the phenomenon of diglossia in a bi/multilingual society; by which he means, the same user uses two different languages simultaneously for two different functions. Fergusson names the two languages used as H (**High language**) and L (**Low Language**) and lists the following situations in which H and L are normally used. The H variety is always formal and the L variety is informal. The H variety is learnt and the L variety is acquired.

H (High language)	L (Low Language)
Sermon in the church or Mosque	Instruction to domestic staff
Speech in Parliament	Conversation with family
University lecture	Conversation with friends
News broadcast	Radio 'soap opera'
Poetry	Folk literature

In all bi/multi lingual countries like America, Canada, Australia, including India, diagglossia is very commonly seen. Fergusson studied situations of diagglossia in Arabic, Modern Greek, Swiss German and Haitian Creole and explained the phenomenon.

5.4.5 Code-switching and Code-mixing

In bi/multi lingual communities, an individual switches from one language to another in a conversation with great ease for a better communication purposes. If only a few words from another code or language are used in conversation, it is called as code-switching and if there is a mixture of entire sentences in different codes, it is called as the code-mixing. In a multi-lingual country like India, both the phenomena are very commonly seen. **For example:**

- I was going for a movie yesterday. raaste men mujhe Radha mil gayi.
Gloss: [I was going for a movie yesterday.] way in I Radha meet went **Translation:** I was going for a movie yesterday; I met Radha on the way.

- Main kal movie dekhne jaa rahi thi and raaste me I met John.
Gloss: I yesterday [movie] to-see go Continuous-marker was [and] way in [I met] John.

Translation: I was going for a movie yesterday and on the way I met John.

- “Those who support the opposition kabhi Muzaffarnagar aa kar dekho” (Those who support the opposition should come to Muzaffarnagar and see (for themselves))
- “agar aap BJP ke follower hain to is page ko like karen” (If you are a BJP follower then like this page)
- “...and the party workers (will) come with me without virodh
- “The mahagatbandhan rally will be held tomorrow”
- “Kaivta ji, I am your fan and have seen all your movies”
- Tum nahī jantī, he is chairman Mr. Mehta’s best friend, yahā do caar din ko hī aaye haī. Maine socaa, I should not miss the opportunity.
(Don’t you know, he is chairman Mr. Mehta’s best friend, he’s only here for a couple of days. I thought, I should not miss the opportunity.)

There are several reasons to switch codes in a single conversation:

- **A particular topic:** People generally switch codes during discourse about a particular topic, since it requires specific language to convey or communicate issues surrounding it.
- **Quoting someone:** People have to switch codes while quoting another person.
- **Solidarity and gratitude:** While expressing gratitude or solidarity, people may speak in ways that express these feelings.
- **Clarification:** Speakers may alter their speech when listeners have trouble understanding how they communicated a thought or idea before. Same can be said for speakers who do not know of (or don't remember) the appropriate words to use in their native language.
- **Group identity:** People may alter their language to express group identification. This can happen, for example, when introducing members of a particular group to others.
- **To soften or strengthen command:** While asking someone to do something, code-switching works to mark emphasis or provide inspiration.

- **Lexical need:** People often use some technical terms or words written in another language. In that case, if people try to translate those words, that might distort the exact meaning and value of the word or term. In this case, code-switching occurs to maintain the exact meaning of the word. Code switching could be: **Inter-sentential switching** occurs outside the sentence or the clause level (i.e. at sentence or clause boundaries); **Intra-sentential switching** occurs within a sentence or a clause; **Tag-switching** which is the switching of either a tag phrase or a word, or both, from one language to another; or **Intra-word switching** occurs within a word itself.

Code switching is helpful if it includes communicating solidarity with or affiliation to a particular social group or to convey more nuanced attitudes and emotions or to increase the impact of their speech and use it in a more effective manner. But code switching harmful if a dominant culture requires all citizens to conform to the dominant language and manner of speaking, or if subcultures are punished in any way for not conforming completely to the language majority, this is harmful. However, many linguists have stressed the point that switching between languages is a communicative option available to a bi/multilingual member of a speech community, just as switching between styles or dialects is an option for the monolingual speaker.

5.4.6 Pidgins and Creoles

Pidgin languages are simplified link languages. They arise in situations where there are languages in contact: either between the language of the ruler and being ruled or between the language of two groups of people coming together for trade and commerce. When a pidgin becomes the mother tongue of a speech community, it is called as a creole. A **creole** has a jargon or a pidgin in its ancestry; it is spoken natively by an entire speech community, often one whose ancestors were displaced geographically so that their ties with their original language and sociocultural identity were partly broken.

During colonization, many pidgin languages were used world-wide. In India, Schuchardt (1891) identified five different pidgin languages formed between the natives and the colonists: the Butler English of Madras, the Pidgin English of Bombay, the Boxwallah English of upper India, the Baboo English of Calcutta and the Cheechee English of South India.

The Butler English of Madras: The pidgin language formed between English and Tamil in Madras used normally by the Butlers or cooks in South India in the British Raj is called as the Butler English, as seen in the following examples.

- I talk, he talk; Why do you MIDDLE MIDDLE talk?
- (beech, beech = middle, middle)
- Rain will comme come ! !
- "Hey, u guys, please keep quiet. The Principal is ROTATING outside"
- "Do not smoke and spoil the BOTANY of your body"
- "Open the windows, open the windows, let the CLIMATE come in"
- "Open the windows, open the windows, let the AIR FORCE come in"

- All right. I can tell. Cut nicely brinjal. Little little piece. Ginger, garlic, hm chilly...red chilli, mustard eh jira-all want it, grind it in the vinegar. No water. After put the hoil-then put all the masala, little little slowly fry it-nice smells coming—then you can put the brinjal. Not less oil. Then after is cooking in the hoil make it cold—put in the bottle. (Hosali 1982)

The Baboo English of Calcutta: This is the pidgin language formed between the British English and the Bengali language. It can be highly verbose:

Honoured and much respected Sir, With due respect and humble submission, I beg to bring to your kind notice that for a long days, I have not the fortune to pay pay you a respect, or not to have your mental or daily welfare, therefore my request that you will be kind enough to show me some mercy and thankfulness, by pending some few lines to your wretched son and thereby highly oblige.

So a pidgin language is a simplified language at all levels of morphology, syntax and lexis. Pidgins are link languages used extensively for communication purposes.

In linguistics, a **Creole** is a type of natural language that developed historically from a pidgin and came into existence at a fairly precise point in time. A pidgin is the combination of two or more languages which sometimes occurs in trade contact, multi-ethnic or refugee situations, where participants need a functioning common language. . . . Sometimes the pidgin becomes stable and established and comes to be spoken as a mother-tongue by children: the language has then become a **creole**, which quickly develops in complexity and is used in all functional settings. The process of turning a pidgin into a creole is called *creolization*. English creoles are spoken by some of the people in Jamaica, Sierra Leone, Cameroon, and parts of Georgia and South Carolina. The historical transition from a pidgin to a creole is called *creolization*. *Decreolization* is the process by which a creole language gradually becomes more like the standard language of a region (or the acrolect).

The language that provides a creole with most of its vocabulary is called the *lexifier language*. For example, the lexifier language of most of the creoles formed during colonization and thereafter is English.

Examples of Creole in India are seen as the **Goanese creole** which is a combination of Marathi and Portuguese languages; or as the **Creole of Portuguese as seen in Diu and Daman**; or the **Creole of Pondicherry** which is a combination of French and Tamil. Labov (1970) talks about the **Black English Vernacular** spoken by uneducated people in urban regions of America and by the poor whites of the southern states of the USA.

Thus are the notion of language variety and the criteria of describing language variety in terms of international varieties and sociolinguistic varieties.

Phonetics & English Phonology

Practice

1. Word transcription

- **Some words for practice:**

Colours: Red /rɛd/, orange /'ɒrɪndʒ/, yellow /'jeləʊ/, green /gri:n/, blue /blu:/, violet /'vaɪələt/, black /blæk/, white /waɪt/, brown /braʊn/.

Fruit : Apples /'æplz/, oranges /'ɒrɪndʒɪz/, bananas /bə'nɑ:nəz/, lemons /'lemənz/, plums /plʌmz/, pomegranate /'pɒmɪgrænɪt/, pineapple /'paɪnæpl/, grapes /greɪps/, lime /laɪm/.

Vegetables: Potato /pə'teɪtəʊ/, carrot /'kærət/, turnip /'tɜ:nɪp/, cabbage /'kæbɪdʒ/, Brussel sprouts /'brʌsəl sprəʊts/, tomato /tə'mɑ:təʊ/, cucumber /'kju:kʌmbə/, onion /'ʌnjən/.

- **Transcribe the following commonly used words given in the Alphabetical order for practice. Refer to the dictionary and verify the answers.**

A

A, About, Above, Across, Act, Active, Activity, Add, Afraid, After, Again, Age, Ago, Agree, Air, All, Alone, Along, Already, Always, Am, Amount, An, And, Angry, Another, Answer, Any, Anyone, Anything, Anytime, Appear, Apple, Are, Area, Arm, Army, Around, Arrive, Art, As, Ask, At, Attack, Aunt, Autumn, Away.

B

Baby, Base, Back, Bad, Bag, Ball, Bank, Basket, Bath, Be, Bean, Bear, Beautiful, Beer, Bed, Bedroom, Behave, Before, Begin, Behind, Bell, Below, Besides, Best, Better, Between, Big, Bird, Birth, Birthday, Bit, Bite, Black, Bleed, Block, Blood, Blow, Blue, Board, Boat, Body, Boil, Bone, Book, Border, Born, Borrow, Both, Bottle, Bottom, Bowl, Box, Boy, Branch, Brave, Bread, Break, Breakfast, Breathe, Bridge, Bright, Bring, Brother, Brown, Brush, Build, Burn, Business, Bus, Busy, But, Buy, By.

C

Cake, Call, Can, Candle, Cap, Car, Card, Care, Careful, Careless, Carry, Case, Cat, Catch, Central, Century, Certain, Chair, Chance, Change, Chase, Cheap, Cheese, Chicken, Child, Children, Chocolate, Choice, Choose, Circle, City, Class, Clever, Clean, Clear, Climb, Clock, Cloth, Clothes, Cloud, Cloudy, Close, Coffee, Coat, Coin, Cold, Collect, Colour, Comb, Come, Comfortable, Common, Compare, Complete, Computer, Condition, Continue, Control, Cook, Cool, Copper, Corn, Corner, Correct, Cost, Contain, Count, Country, Course, Cover, Crash, Cross, Cry, Cup, Cupboard, Cut.

D

Dance, Dangerous, Dark, Daughter, Day, Dead, Decide, Decrease, Deep, Deer, Depend, Desk, Destroy, Develop, Die, Different, Difficult, Dinner, Direction, Dirty, Discover, Dish, Do, Dog, Door, Double, Down, Draw, Dream, Dress, Drink, Drive, Drop, Dry, Duck, Dust, Duty.

E

Each, Ear, Early, Earn, Earth, East, Easy, Eat, Education, Effect, Egg, Eight, Either, Electric, Elephant, Else, Empty, End, Enemy, Enjoy, Enough, Enter, Equal, Entrance, Escape, Even, Evening, Event, Ever, Every, Everyone, Exact, Everybody, Examination, Example, Except, Excited, Exercise, Expect, Expensive, Explain, Extremely, Eye.

F

Face, Fact, Fail, Fall, False, Family, Famous, Far, Farm, Father, Fast, Fat, Fault, Fear, Feed, Feel, Female, Fever, Few, Fight, Fill, Film, Find, Fine, Finger, Finish, Fire, First, Fit, Five, Fix, Flag, Flat, Float, Floor, Flour, Flower, Fly, Fold, Food, Fool, Foot, Football, For, Force, Foreign, Forest, Forget, Forgive, Fork, Form, Fox, Four, Free, Freedom, Freeze, Fresh, Friend, Friendly, From, Front, Fruit, Full, Fun, Funny, Furniture, Further, Future.

G

Game, Garden, Gate, General, Gentleman, Get, Gift, Give, Glad, Glass, Go, Goat, God, Gold, Good, Goodbye, Grandfather, Grandmother, Grass, Grave, Great, Green, Grey, Ground, Group, Grow, Gun.

H

Hair, Half, Hall, Hammer, Hand, Happen, Happy, Hard, Hat, Hate, Have, He, Head, Healthy, Hear, Heavy, Hello, Help, Heart, Heaven, Height, Help, Hen, Her, Here, Hers, Hide, High, Hill, Him, His, Hit, Hobby, Hold, Hole, Holiday, Home, Hope, Horse, Hospital, Hot, Hotel, House, How, Hundred, Hungry, Hour, Hurry, Husband, Hurt

I

I, Ice, Idea, If, Important, In, Increase, Inside, Into, Introduce, Invent, Iron, Invite, Is, Island, It, Its.

J

Jelly, Job, Join, Juice, Jump, Just.

K

Keep, Key, Kill, Kind, King, Kitchen, Knee, Knife, Knock, Know.

L

Ladder, Lady, Lamp, Land, Large, Last, Late, Lately, Laugh, Lazy, Lead, Leaf, Learn, Leave, Leg, Left, Lend, Length, Less, Lesson, Let, Letter, Library, Lie, Life, Light, Like, Lion, Lip, List, Listen, Little, Live, Lock, Lonely, Long, Look, Lose, Lot, Love, Low, Lower, Luck.

M

Machine, Main, Make, Male, Man, Many, Map, Mark, Market, Marry, Matter, May, Me, Meal, Mean, Measure, Meat, Medicine, Meet, Member, Mention, Method, Middle, Milk, Million, Mind, Minute, Miss, Mistake, Mix, Model, Modern, Moment, Money, Monkey, Month, Moon, More, Morning, Most, Mother, Mountain, Mouth, Move, Much, Music, Must, My.

N

Name, Narrow, Nation, Nature, Near, Nearly, Neck, Need, Needle, Neighbour, Neither, Net, Never, New, News, Newspaper, Next, Nice, Night, Nine, No, Noble, Noise, None, Nor, North, Nose, Not, Nothing, Notice, Now, Number.

O

Obey, Object, Ocean, Of, Off, Offer, Office, Often, Oil, Old, On, One, Only, Open, Opposite, Or, Orange, Order, Other, Our, Out, Outside, Over, Own.

P

Page, Pain, Paint, Pair, Pan, Paper, Parent, Park, Part, Partner, Party, Pass, Past, Path, Pay, Peace, Pen, Pencil, People, Pepper, Per, Perfect, Period, Person, Petrol, Photograph, Piano, Pick, Picture, Piece, Pig, Pin, Pink, Place, Plane, Plant, Plastic, Plate, Play, Please, Pleased, Plenty, Pocket, Point, Poison, Police, Polite, Pool, Poor, Popular, Position, Possible, Potato, Pour, Power, Present, Press, Pretty, Prevent,

Price, Prince, Prison, Private, Prize, Probably, Problem, Produce, Promise, Proper, Protect, Provide, Public, Pull, Punish, Pupil, Push, Put.

Q

Queen, Question, Quick, Quiet, Quite.

R

Radio, Rain, Rainy, Raise, Reach, Read, Ready, Real, Really, Receive, Record, Red, Remember, Remind, Remove, Rent, Repair, Repeat, Reply, Report, Rest, Restaurant, Result, Return, Rice, Rich, Ride, Right, Ring, Rise, Road, Rob, Rock, Room, Round, Rubber, Rude, Rule, Ruler, Run, Rush.

S

Sad, Safe, Sail, Salt, Same, Sand, Save, Say, School, Science, Scissors, Search, Seat, Second, See, Seem, Sell, Send, Sentence, Serve, Seven, Several, Sex, Shade, Shadow, Shake, Shape, Share, Sharp, She, Sheep, Sheet, Shelf, Shine, Ship, Shirt, Shoe, Shoot, Shop, Short, Should, Shoulder, Shout, Show, Sick, Side, Signal, Silence, Silly, Silver, Similar, Simple, Single, Since, Sing, Sink, Sister, Sit, Six, Size, Skill, Skin, Skirt, Sky, Sleep, Slip, Slow, Smoke, Small, Smell, Smile, Snow, So, Soap, Sock, Soft, Some, Someone, Something, Sometimes, Son, Soon, Sorry, Sound, Soup, South, Space, Speak, Special, Speed, Spell, Spend, Spoon, Sport, Spread, Spring, Square, Stamp, Stand, Star, Start, Station, Stay, Steal, Steam, Step, Still, Stomach, Stone, Stop, Store, Storm, Story, Strange, Street, Strong, Structure, Student, Study, Stupid, Subject, Substance, Successful, Such, Sudden, Sugar, Suitable, Summer, Sun, Sunny, Support, Sure, Surprise, Sweet, Swim, Sword.

T

Table, Take, Talk, Tall, Taste, Taxi, Tea, Teach, Team, Tear, Telephone, Television, Tell, Ten, Tennis, Terrible, Test, Than, That, The, Their, Then, There, Therefore, These, Thick, Thin, Thing, Think, Third, This, Though, Threat, Three, Tidy, Tie, Title, To, Today, Toe, Together, Tomorrow, Tonight, Too, Tool, Tooth, Top, Total, Touch, Town, Train, Tram, Travel, Tree, Trouble, True, Trust, Twice, Try, Turn, Type.

U

Uncle, Under, Understand, Unit, Until, Up, Use, Useful, Usual, Usually.

V

Vegetable, Very, Village, Voice, Visit.

W

Wait, Wake, Walk, Want, Warm, Wash, Waste, Watch, Water, Way, We, Weak, Wear, Weather, Wedding, Week, Weight, Welcome, Well, West, Wet, What, Wheel, When, Where, Which, While, White, Who, Why, Wide, Wife, Wild, Will, Win, Wind, Window, Wine, Winter, Wire, Wise, Wish, With, Without, Woman, Wonder, Word, Work, World, Worry, Worst, Write, Wrong

Y

Year, Yes, Yesterday, Yet, You, Young, Your.

Z

Zero, Zoo

• **Transcribe the following words phonemically**

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Pack: _____ | 25. Glass: _____ |
| 2. Back: _____ | 26. Go: _____ |
| 3. Stop: _____ | 27. Egg: _____ |
| 4. Paper: _____ | 28. Leg: _____ |
| 5. Pool: _____ | 29. Five: _____ |
| 6. Pull: _____ | 30. Live: _____ |
| 7. Pay: _____ | 31. Free: _____ |
| 8. Bought: _____ | 32. Floor: _____ |
| 9. Piece: _____ | 33. Driving: _____ |
| 10. Peace _____ | 34. North: _____ |
| 11. Day: _____ | 35. South: _____ |
| 12. Deep: _____ | 36. Both: _____ |
| 13. Good: _____ | 37. Mouse: _____ |
| 14. Head: _____ | 38. Mouth: _____ |
| 15. Add: _____ | 39. Then: _____ |
| 16. Ten: _____ | 40. They: _____ |
| 17. Two: _____ | 41. Sit: _____ |
| 18. Light: _____ | 42. Bus: _____ |
| 19. Tea: _____ | 43. Sister: _____ |
| 20. Clean: _____ | 44. City: _____ |
| 21. Keep: _____ | 45. Sister: _____ |
| 22. Desk: _____ | 46. Easy: _____ |
| 23. Like: _____ | 47. Size: _____ |
| 24. Talk: _____ | 48. Zoo: _____ |
| | 49. Shop: _____ |

- | | |
|------------------|----------------------|
| 50. Cash: _____ | 76. Wrap: _____ |
| 51. Fresh: _____ | 77. Right: _____ |
| 52. Chip: _____ | 78. Table: _____ |
| 53. Mine: _____ | 79. Light: _____ |
| 54. Watch: _____ | 80. Teach: _____ |
| 55. Jack: _____ | 81. Peach: _____ |
| 56. Swim: _____ | 82. Mean: _____ |
| 57. Jump _____ | 83. Fish: _____ |
| 58. Bank: _____ | 84. Feel _____ |
| 59. Faint: _____ | 85. Help: _____ |
| 60. Who: _____ | 86. Said: _____ |
| 61. Whole: _____ | 87. Cry: _____ |
| 62. Help: _____ | 88. Nine: _____ |
| 63. Tall: _____ | 89. Fame: _____ |
| 64. Well: _____ | 90. Friend: _____ |
| 65. Red: _____ | 91. Cost: _____ |
| 66. Sorry: _____ | 92. Fan: _____ |
| 67. Week: _____ | 93. Feather: _____ |
| 68. Which: _____ | 94. Hello: _____ |
| 69. White: _____ | 95. Sad: _____ |
| 70. Write: _____ | 96. Care: _____ |
| 71. Windy: _____ | 97. Name: _____ |
| 72. Music: _____ | 98. Father: _____ |
| 73. climb: _____ | 99. Finish: _____ |
| 74. Rain: _____ | 100. Practice: _____ |
| 75. Wrist: _____ | |

3. Sentence Transcription

1. The autumn leaves rustled on the path. /ði 'ɔ:təm li:vz 'rʌslɪd ɒn ðə pɑ:θ/
2. Light blue touch-paper and stand well back. /laɪt blu: tʌʃ 'peɪpər ən stænd wəl bæk/
3. Keep out of direct sunlight. /ki:p aʊt əv 'daɪrɪk 'sʌn,laɪt/
4. Do not feed the animals /du: nɒt fi:d ði 'æniməlz/
5. Shake well before serving /ʃeɪk wəl bɪ'fɔ: 'sɜ:vɪŋ/
6. Replace cap after use /rɪ'pleɪs kæp 'ɑ:ftə ju:s/
7. Stand clear of the doors. /stænd klɪər əv ðə dɔ:z/
8. Richard of York gave battle in vain. /'rɪʃəd əv jɔ:k geɪv 'bætl̩ ɪn veɪn/
9. Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled pepper. /'pi:tə 'paɪpə pɪkt ə pɛk əv 'pɪklɪb 'pɛpə/

Transcribe the following sentences, mark the tone groups, identify the stressed syllables and mark the intonation.

1. The train is ten minutes late.
2. Why are you so upset?
3. Come and sit here, don't be upset.
4. Don't talk like that.
5. I think he is going to London tomorrow.
6. What can I do for you?
7. It's a beautiful day, isn't it?

8. I am confused; I don't know what to say.
9. Go straight and turn right, you will reach your destination.
10. How surprising?
11. Good morning. (routine)
12. Good morning. (excited)
13. Shut the door away.
14. Come on, cheer up.
15. Where are you going?
16. What happened child?
17. How is your mother dear?
18. Can you come tomorrow to complete the work?
19. He didn't do it, did he? (seeking to agree)
20. These are nice, aren't they? (seeking to agree)
21. He didn't do it, did he? (asking for information)
22. These are nice, aren't they? (asking for information)
23. Best of luck. (good wishes)
24. Good evening. (cheerful)
25. I saw at the shopping mall. (complaining-you said are in the library)
26. Hema is here already. (giving information)
27. Hema is here already. (asking to confirm)
28. Hema is here already. (so hurry up)

3.Paragraph Transcription

Transcribe the following paragraphs phonemically.

Transcription exercise 1: In Britain and around the world, the image of the family continues to change. The traditional "Victorian family", in which the man was the breadwinner, the woman the homemaker and the children numerous and obedient, is giving way to new ideas about what the modern family should look like.

Transcription exercise 2: One of the most obvious characteristics of the new family is that there are not always two parents. Due mostly to the rise in divorces since World War II, single-parent families are becoming more and more frequent and accepted in British society. Usually, it is the mother who takes responsibility for raising the child, and she has to balance the pressures of earning a living and raising her children at the same time.

Transcription exercise 3: However, even in families with both parents present, many mothers are giving up the role of homemaker and pursuing their own careers. Some go on maternity leave after their children are born and then take up part-time work when the child is old enough to go to school. Others

feel that their careers come first and wait until they have fully established their career before having children.

Transcription exercise 4: Another area which has changed significantly is what happens before marriage. In the past, people lived with their parents until they got married, and each marriage was supposed to be a "white wedding". Today, living together before marriage and premarital sex are considered normal, and many people "tryout" their relationship by living together before getting married.

Transcription exercise 5: These changes together with other changes such as mixed marriages, have altered the face of British society. Some people deplore them as a breakdown of traditional values. Others praise them as expressions of greater tolerance and diversity. But one thing is for sure: British families are changing and will continue to change.

Transcription exercise 6: Since many newspapers – especially their headlines – have little space to explain things in depth, they have developed a special vocabulary of their own. It features short words and tends to leave out articles and auxiliary verbs. Thus, they use "back" for "support", "deal" for "agreement", "ban" for "prohibit", "talk" for "discussion, negotiation", "probe" for "investigate", and so on. It also includes colourful words to draw the eye and add interest to a story. So prices don't "go up quickly", they "rocket", police don't "hurry" to the scene of the crime, they "race", and so on. A headline that reads "Drugs probe backs cig ban" might translate as "An investigation into drug abuse supports the prohibition of cigarette smoking. (taken from *Advanced Conversation Practice – Teacher's Book – p. 101*) /

Transcription exercise 7: This was the first time I had ever cared for AIDS patients. AIDS is often considered a social and moral disease, so it is difficult for some to be compassionate and objective. These patients need aggressive nursing care, as they are susceptible to pneumonia, fungal infections, diarrhoea, skin breakdown, malnutrition, and incontinence. Their diet must be high in calories and protein, with in-between-meal snacks and important necessity. In spite of all the medications, pulmonary treatments, oxygen therapy, daily nursing assessments, and frequent repositioning, the patient still is a human being – frightened, isolated, and with a deep fear of losing control. He needs to talk and express himself, he needs reassurance, and he has the right to have his questions answered truthfully. This is a challenge for any nurse who really cares. (from *Nursing is My Bag* by M. Kurz George, 1989, p. 113 - taken from *Advanced Conversation Practice – Teacher's Book – p. 89*)

Transcription exercise 8: Tomorrow will be another fine day with temperatures reaching the mid-twenties. A bit cool early in the morning with some showers likely but this will clear up towards midmorning and most areas will have prolonged sunshine for most of the afternoon. Wednesday's not looking so good, rather dull and overcast with winds light to moderate and rain and drizzle spread over much of the south of the country. Temperatures around 15 to 17 degrees Celsius dropping as low as 12 degrees overnight in hilly areas, possibly a few patches of fog in lowlying areas. (taken from *Advanced Conversation Practice – Teacher's Book – p. 101*)

Transcription exercise 9: This book grew out of my study of the experiences of other women. It is built on the stories of eighty women who said no, who made changes in their lives. All of them left successful

careers to find, as I did, their right livelihood. Some have permanently downshifted to part-time jobs in order to make time in the day for other interests, such as art, volunteer work, self-development, spiritual interests and travel. A number of others have created their own small businesses: two own bookstores; one runs a sheep farm; three operate day-care centers. Some have become consultants, others writers. All have given to the word success a very personal definition. (from *Work of Her Own* by Susan Wittig Albert, Ph.D., - taken from *Advanced Conversation Practice – Teacher’s Book – p. 39*)

Transcription exercise 10: The word “furnished” means different things to different people. You will normally find the essential: stove, refrigerator, beds, chairs, sofa, tables, lamps. Minimal china and glass, basic kitchen supplies, curtains, and some pictures may be supplied. Sometimes, but very rarely, there is a small supply of bed, bath, and table linens and blankets. You will need to bring your favourite kitchen utensils, some table linens or mats, extra lamps, coat hangers, whatever electrical appliances you want – such as toasters and irons. Your own pictures, books, decorations, and the like will make it seem more like home to you. The word “unfurnished” means different things, but generally a stove and refrigerator are included – also towel racks, light fixtures and other built-in items.

4. Dialogue Transcription

Transcribe the following dialogues, mark the tone groups, identify the stressed syllables, identify the nucleus and mark the intonation.

- 1) Aruna : Good morning, Mala, how are you?
Mala : Hi, I am fine, thank you. How are you?
Aruna : I am very well thanks, where are you going?
Mala : To the market to buy some fruits. Bye.
Aruna : Bye, see you in the class.

- 2) Mary : Good evening. What a fine weather.
John : Hello Mary. How do you do?
Mary : Fine thank you. I haven’t seen you for a longtime. Where were you?
John : Busy with my semester exams. Tomorrow is my last paper.
Mary : Oh! All the best. Bye.
John : Bye.

- 3) Swati : Hi friends, let me introduce my cousin Harish to you. He is doing
M.B.A. from Indira College, Pune.
Friends : Hello, Harish. Glad to meet you. I am Prema. She is Mala and he is
Ashok. We are all in final year B.Com.
Harish : Hello, everybody. Nice to meet you all.

- 4) Kaushal : Sunil, I'd like you to meet my teacher, Dr, Priya Jain. She teaches us Phonetics.
Sunil : Good evening, ma'am. I was very eager to meet you. I have heard so much about you, ma'am.
Dr. Priya : Good evening, Sunil. If you have interest in language studies, you also can join Kaushal in attending the class.
Sunil : Of course ma'am. Thank you. I will be there in the class from tomorrow.
- 5) I: Was there a robbery in our colony yester-night? Really? With so much security how come it happened?
U: I am afraid that the house was locked as the owners have gone to Ahmedabad to their native place and one of the security guards was on leave.
I: Oh, I see. It has become risky now-a-days to lock the house and go.
- 6) Anurag : Mr. Kalyan, can we meet in the evening to discuss the out line of our project?
Kalyan : I'm sorry Mr. Anurag, I must apologize. I was busy with my sister's wedding and so I could not plan it out.
Anurag : That's OK. But complete it faster. By next week end we are supposed to submit the project.
Kalyan : Yes. Certainly, Let's start working on the project from tomorrow.
- 7) Amruta: Hello, I'm Amruta speaking. May I speak to Snehal.
Snehal's mother: Hello, I'm Snehal's mother. She has gone to the music class and will be back within half an hour. Would you mind calling a little later?
Priyanka : Please forgive me for not calling you but there was no network coverage in the area and I really was helpless.
Sumana : That's alright.
- 8) Madhavi : Hello, I'm Madhavi from Hyderabad. May I speak to Dr. Rao, please?
Sitara : Dr. Rao has gone to Delhi for an urgent meeting. You can call after two days.
Madhavi : That's all right. It's a bit urgent. My son is not well. Can I get her mobile number please?
Sitara : Sure. It is 9123478956.
Madhavi : Thank you very much.
Sitara : It's all right.

- 9) Asif : Hello, I'm Asif here. Can I speak to Mr. Raja ram Jain please?
Mr. Jain : Hello, Asif. I'm Raja ram here. What a pleasant surprise?
How are you?
Asif : I'm good. How about you? It is after many years that we are
talking to each other.
Mr. Jain : Yes. Why don't you come to my house on Sunday?
I stay in Shivaji Nagar. We can talk and have a good time together.
Asif : Ok. See you then.
- 10) Gupta : Hello, This is Karan Gupta from KK Industries. Could I speak
to Mr. Desai?
Receptionist : Mr. Desai is out of town. Is there any message for him?
Gupta : May I know who is speaking?
Receptionist : I'm his assistant, Raghavan.
Gupta : Mr. Raghavan, please tell Mr. Desai that the meeting with the
Director of KK Industries is fixed at 11 a.m. on Friday at hotel Taj.
Please note this down and tell him.
Receptionist : Oh, sure and thank you. Bye.
Gupta : Thank you. Bye.

Course 01- Phonetics & English Phonology

Question Bank

- Q1. Define language. Differentiate between animal and human linguistic systems.
- Q2. Briefly discuss the History of English Language.
- Q3. Define communication and comment on the Verbal & Non-Verbal Communication systems.
- Q4. Differentiate between Human, Animal and other means of Communication.
- Q5. Define Linguistics and discuss linguistics in historical context.
- Q6. Compare and contrast between Traditional, Structural and Cognitive approach to the study of Linguistics,
- Q7. Discuss the various Branches of Linguistics.
- Q8. What is Linguistics? Explain the different levels of Linguistic Analysis.
- Q9. Attempt a note on human Speech Mechanism.
- Q10. Comment on the active and passive articulators involved in speech mechanism.
- Q11. Write a note on the description and classification of English Vowels.
- Q12. Write a note on the description and classification of English Consonants
- Q13. Attempt a short note on the following:
- The Front Vowels in English
 - The Back Vowels in English
 - The Central Vowels in English
 - The Rising Diphthongs in English
 - The Falling Diphthongs in English
 - The Closing Diphthongs in English
 - The Centering Diphthongs in English
 - Plosive in English
 - Fricatives in English
 - Stop Consonants in English
 - Affricates in English
 - Nasals in English
 - Semi-vowels in English
 - Liquid consonants in English.
- Q14. Differentiate between Phonemes and allophones.
- Q15. What is a Syllable and syllabic division? Comment on the structure of an English syllable and syllabic consonants in English.
- Q16. Define Accent or Stress and illustrate the rules of English accent.
- Q17. Illustrate the phenomenon of Elision; also comment on the types of Elision in English language.
- Q18. Define Assimilation and exemplify with English language.
- Q19. Explain the concept of rhythm in language by commenting on the use of weak forms in English language.
- Q20. What is intonation? Comment on the steps of intonating expressions in connected speech.

- Q21. Differentiate the British and American varieties of English.
- Q22. Elucidate Australian variety of English.
- Q23. Explicate the African variety of English
- Q24. Expound the Indian variety of English
- Q25. Attempt a note the speech repertoire.
- Q26. Write short notes on: Speech Community, Speech situation, Speech Event and Speech Act.
- Q27. Establish Dialects, Registers as social varieties of language.
- Q28. Illustrate various Styles of language by giving English examples.
- Q29. Exemplify Diglossia as a sociolinguistic concept.
- Q30. Write a note on Code-switching and Code-mixing,
- Q31. Attempt a note on Pidgins and Creoles.

ALL THE BEST