



SHIVAJI UNIVERSITY, KOLHAPUR

CENTRE FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

The Structure and Function of Modern English

(Special English)

B. A. Part-III

**(Semester-V Paper-XI
Semester-VI Paper-XVI)**

(Academic Year 2015-16 onwards)

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Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar
College, Peth-Vadgaon

Dr. S. B. Bhambar
Head, Dept. of English
T. K. Kolekar Arts &
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Introduction

We are really pleased in preparing and presenting the SIM of The Structure and Function of Modern English to the students of B.A.III Special English.

The objective of introducing this paper is to acquaint the students with the phonology and structure of Modern English. English is not our native language but a foreign one. The importance of English is indispensable in the globalized IT world. It has been widely used all over the world for a variety of purposes. If our students want to keep pace with the fast moving world, they must know very well the phonology and structure of English. The syllabus of this paper encompasses both these aspects. The basic knowledge of phonology that is how the English sounds are pronounced is discussed with illustrations. This will definitely help the students to acquire the way English is spoken. Teaching pronunciation is a matter of practical work. However, our unit writers have endeavored to simplify the matter so that the students can learn on their own with the help of material presented in the units.

Secondly the structure of Modern English has fully been discussed and elaborated. The students have been studying the parts of speech, rules of grammar, sentences, discourse etc. right from the school days. However, they are not well versed in these areas. The units are such that the basics of structure are included in them. The units include the lowest and the highest elements of English language. Classes of word, phrases and sentences have been discussed with examples. The material is made very much self instructive. Cohesive devices and discourse analysis have been discussed in detail with examples. They are also made self instructive as far as possible.

The units have been split into smaller sections and these sections follow self check questions. The answers of the self check questions are given at the end of each unit. The splitting of the units into sections will enhance the students' comprehension with ease. At the end of the discussion of the subject matter, terms to remember and summary of the whole unit are given. This will again augment the students' comprehension. Each unit is concluded with reference books. It is not our claim that the subject matter discussed in these units is all exhaustive, though our unit writers have endeavored to do so, hence for more information references have been provided at the end of the units. We hope that the students will appreciate our efforts.

■ Editors ■

Prin. (Dr.) A. A. Karande
Arts and Commerce College,
Nagthane

Dr. N. K. Shinde
Associate Professor & Head
Dept of English
Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar
College, Peth-Vadgaon

Dr. S. B. Bhambar
Head, Dept. of English
T. K. Kolekar Arts &
Commerce College, Nesari

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Each Unit begins with the Objectives of the Section -

Objectives are directive and indicative of :

1. what has been presented in the Unit and
2. what is expected from you
3. what you are expected to know pertaining to the specific Unit once you have completed working on the Unit.

The self check exercises with possible answers will help you to understand the Unit in the right perspective. Go through the possible answers only after you write your own answers. These exercises are not to be submitted to us for evaluation. They have been provided to you as Study Tools to help keep you on the right track as you study the Unit.

Unit-1

Phonology

Contents

- i) Speech Mechanism
- ii) Organs of Speech
- iii) Description of Sounds with Three Term Labels
- iv) Word Transcription
- v) Word Stress / Accent : Primary Stress

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1.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able to:

1. Understand the concepts of phonology, phoneme and allophone.
2. Explain speech mechanism and organs of speech
3. Describe speech sounds with three term labels
4. Understand transcription of words
5. Comprehend the concept of primary word stress / accent

1.1 Introduction:

Language is a means of communication. It is a system of conventional oral and written signals. In English, unlike Marathi, the correspondence between the written form and the spoken form is not consistently maintained. We use a number of different speech sounds while speaking English. These speech sounds are called phonemes and the study of these speech sounds is called as phonetics. The purpose of this unit is to introduce students with English speech sounds (phonemes) and speech mechanism and to enable them to use proper pronunciation of English words.

1.2 Section 1:

Phonetic Symbols, Phoneme, Allophones, Minimal Pairs and Phonology.

Here we intend to study English speech sounds (phonemes) and phonology. Let us see first the phonetic symbols of English, the concepts of phoneme, minimal pairs and allophones of phonology.

1.2.1 Phonetic Symbols:-

In written English, we use 26 letters or alphabets from A to Z. It is the written form of English. However, we do not use the similar speech sounds for the particular letter or alphabet. So it is difficult to talk about speech sounds using the letters of the alphabet. Moreover, sometimes the same letter is pronounced differently in different words. For instance, the letter 'a' is pronounced in a different way in different words like- father, mate, cat, about, talk etc. There is a set of symbols to refer to the speech sounds of English language. These symbols are called as phonetic symbols in English. There are 44 phonetic symbols in English. These 44 sounds are divided into

consonants, and vowels. Vowels are further divided into pure vowels and diphthongs.

PHONETIC SYMBOLS

I. Consonant Sounds

No.	Symbol	Examples
1	/p/	pen /pen/, simple /sɪmpl/, tap /tæp/
2	/b/	bat /bæt/, baby /beɪbɪ/, tube /tju:b/
3	/t/	table /teɪbl/, interest /ɪntrəst/, cut /kʌt/
4	/d/	day /deɪ/, indeed /ɪndi:d/, hand /hænd/
5	/k/	cat /kæt/, skill /skɪl/, suck /sʌk/
6	/g/	get /get/, figure /fɪgə(r)/, dog /dɒg/
7	/tʃ/	chalk /tʃɔ:k/, richer /rɪtʃə(r)/, such /sʌtʃ/
8	/dʒ/	jam /dʒæm/, suggest /sədʒest/, fog /fɒg/
9	/f/	face /feɪs/, faithful /feɪθfəl/, cough /kɒf/
10	/v/	van /væn/, vivid /vɪvɪd/, move /mu:v/
11	/θ/	thin /θɪn/, nothing /nʌθɪŋ/, cloth /klɒθ/
12	/ð/	this /ðɪs/, mother /mʌð ə(r)/, smooth /smu:ð/
13	/s/	see /si:/, suspect /sʌspekt/, face /feɪs/
14	/z/	zoo /zu:/, ozone /əʊzəʊn/, rise /raɪz/
15	/ʃ/	shoe /ʃu:/, ambition /æmbɪʃn/, wash /wɒʃ/
16	/ʒ/	vision /vɪʒn/, garage /gæɾɑ:ʒ/
17	/h/	hat /hæt/, behind /bɪhaɪnd/
18	/m/	mat /mæt/, mermaid /mɜ:meɪd/, jam /jæm/

19	/n/	now /nəʊ/, annoy /ə'noɪ/, man /mæn/
20	/ŋ/	English /'ɪŋɡlɪʃ/, ankle /'æŋkl/, ring /rɪŋ/
21	/l/	leg /leg/, foolish /'fu:lɪʃ/, oil /ɔ:ɪl/
22	/r/	red /red/, marry /'mæri/, here /hɪə/
23	/j/	yes /jes/, beauty /'bju:tɪ/, few /fju:/
24	/w/	wet /wet/, swim /swɪm/, away /əweɪ/

II. Vowels: a) Pure Vowels

25	/i:/	heel /hi:l/, see /si:/
26	/ɪ/	list /lɪst/, hill /hɪl/
27	/e/	bed /bed/, ten /ten/
28	/æ/	bat /bæt/, fact /fækt/
29	/ɑ:/	dark /dɑ:(r)k/, father /fɑ:ð ə(r)/
30	/ɒ/	lock /lɒk/, got /gɒt/
31	/ɔ:/	ward /wɔ:(r)d/, saw /sɔ:/
32	/ʊ/	look /lʊk/, should /ʃʊd/
33	/u:/	pool /pu:l/, too /tu:/
34	/ʌ/	luck /lʌk/, cup /kʌp/
35	/ə/	attend /ətend/, pilot /'paɪlət/, colour /kʌlə(r)/
36	/ɜ:/	purse /pɜ:s/, girl /gɜ:l/

b) Diphthongs

37	/eɪ/	late /leɪt/, say /seɪ/
38	/aɪ/	rice /raɪs/, like /laɪk/
39	/ɔɪ/	toy /tɔɪ/, noise /nɔɪz/
40	/əʊ/	so /səʊ/, snow /snəʊ/
41	/aʊ/	town /taʊn/, now /naʊ/
42	/ɪə/	year /jɪə(r)/, real /rɪəl/
43	/eə/	hair /heə(r)/, stare /steə(r)/
44	/ʊə/	poor /pʊə(r)/, tourist /tʊərɪst/

1.2.2 What Is Phoneme?

Words are used in speech. But word is not the smallest unit of a language. A word can be divided into smallest linguistic units which are called as 'Phonemes'. Every language has certain number of distinctive sound units which are called as 'Phonemes'. Thus a phoneme is a minimal distinctive sound unit of language. To illustrate, the word 'bat' can be divided into the smallest linguistic units such as /b/, /æ/ and /t/. These are the smallest linguistic units which cannot be divided further. They are distinctive because they are the smallest units in the sound system of a language which can be used to differentiate meanings from one another. This means that when one phoneme is substituted by another, it produces change in meaning. Thus /b/ and /k/ are distinctive sound units because if /b/ is substituted by /k/ in the word bat /bæt/, it produces a change of meaning; it becomes a different word 'cat' /kæt/. In this way /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /n/..... etc. are distinctive sound units and hence they are different phonemes.

1.2.3 Minimal Pairs

We have seen that phonemes are the distinctive units which are used to differentiate meanings. The phonemes of a language can be found by collecting

‘minimal pairs’. A ‘minimal pair’ is a pair of words which differ only in one sound segment. The difference in the sound can be at the initial position, in the medial or at the end of the pair.

- e.g. 1) beat /bi:t/ meat/mi:t/ - /b/, /m/
 e.g. 2) bat /bæt/ bet /bet/ - /æ/, /e/
 e.g. 3) cut /kʌt/ cup /kʌp/ - /t/, /p/

In the same way a series of words like pet, bet, debt, get, jet, vet, set, met, net, ley, yet, wet supply us with sounds which are distinctive simply by a change in the first element of the sound sequence. It gives us a list of twelve English phonemes /p, b, d, g, dʒ, v, s, m, n, l, j, w/ which are different phonemes. Other phonemes can be found by similar substitutions in various positions.

1.2.4 Allophones

Each phoneme may have a number of variants. These variants are called as allophones. For example, the phoneme /k/ in word ‘key’ and ‘car’ at the initial position are phonetically clearly different. The phoneme /k/ in ‘key’ can be felt to be a forward articulation as it is pronounced near the hard palate; whereas the phoneme /k/ in ‘car’ is pronounced at the back of tongue. This difference or variation in the pronunciation of the same phoneme is called ‘allophone’. In the same way, the pronunciation of the phoneme ‘k’ in ‘kill’ is with a strong puff of air or aspiration which is represented by the symbol /h/ on the top of /k/. Thus, ‘kill’ is written as /k^hɪl/. On the other hand, the phoneme /k/ in skill is unaspirated. Thus [k^h] in ‘kill’ and [k] in ‘skill’ are the variants. Phonemes are enclosed in slant lines (/.../) while allophones are enclosed in square brackets. e.g. [p^h], [k^h] and [t^h] are allophones of the phonemes /p/, /k/ and /t/ respectively.

Phoneme	Allophone
/p/	[p ^h] [p]
/t/	[t ^h] [t]
/k/	[k ^h] [k]

Allophones do not bring change in meaning.

1.2.5 Phonetics and Phonology

Linguistics is a systematic study of language. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics which deals with the medium of speech. It deals with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech. It is related to the description and classification of these sounds. On the other hand, phonology is an applied phonetics. It is a branch of linguistics which deals with the sound system of a particular language. It is about different patterns of sounds. The selection and organization of the speech sounds in that particular language constitutes the phonology of that language. It also studies how the phonemes are combined into syllables and how the prosodic features of length, stress and pitch are organized into certain patterns. Thus, phonemes are studied in phonology. It is notable that phonology of one language can be different from the phonology of other languages.

1.2.6 Check your progress- I

1. Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives:
 - i) is the smallest linguistic unit of a word?
 - a) Phoneme
 - b) Morpheme
 - c) Antonym
 - d) Synonym
 - ii) A phoneme is a minimal----- sound unit of language.
 - a) subjective
 - b) distinctive
 - c) decisive
 - d) productive
 - iii) A minimal pair is a pair of words which differs from each other only in ----- sound segment.
 - a) one
 - b) two
 - c) three
 - d) four
 - iv) ----- are variants of phonemes.
 - a) Sounds
 - b) Symbols
 - c) Words
 - d) Allophones
 - v) ----- is a branch of linguistics which deals with the medium of speech.
 - a) Phonetics
 - b) Syntax
 - c) Statistics
 - d) Economics

1.3 Section 2: Speech Mechanism:

Earlier, we dealt with the concepts of phoneme, allophone, phonetics and phonology. The speech sounds are produced by human beings using a specific body's mechanism. It is called as speech mechanism. We need an air- stream for the production of speech. In other words the air that flows out of our mouth is modified into speech sounds by the action of certain organs of body. The air that we breathe out is modified into speech sounds with the help of the actions of speech organs. The expiratory lung air that is the air that we breathe out is the base for the articulation (production) of most speech sounds. For this reason the air-stream involving lung- air is called 'pulmonic air stream'. The sounds which are produced when the air is breathed out are called as 'egressive'. The sounds which are produced when the air is taken in are called 'ingressive' sounds. All English sounds are produced when the air from the lungs is breathed out. Therefore all English sounds are 'pulmonic egressive' sounds.

The air that we breathe out is modified into speech sounds. It undergoes important modifications in the upper stages of the respiratory tract before it acquires the quality of speech sound. The respiratory system consists of the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the windpipe which is called trachea. The lungs are the spongy bodies which are made up of small sacs called 'alveoli'. In these sacs the blood is cleaned of its carbon- dioxide and provided with fresh oxygen from the outer air. The air is supplied to alveoli by small tubes which are called 'bronchioles'. The bronchioles come together into two large tubes which are called 'bronchi'. The bronchi join the trachea or the windpipe. It is through the windpipe the breathed air passes through the larynx which contains 'vocal cords'. The vocal cords are movable. They can come closer to each other or can be held apart. When the vocal cords come closer to each other, there is a little gap between them and the air passes through them with vibration. Such sounds are called as 'voiced' sounds, for example /b/ /d/, /g/, /z/ etc. When the vocal cords are held apart, they do not vibrate while sounds are produced. Such sounds are called as 'voiceless' sounds. e.g. /p/ /t/, /k/ etc.

When the air stream passes through larynx, it is further modified by the upper cavities of the 'pharynx', the mouth and the nasal cavity. The air from the lungs comes at the soft palate. The soft palate can be raised or lowered. The lowering or

raising of the soft palate decides whether the sound is ‘nasal’ or ‘oral’. When the soft palate is raised the air cannot enter the nasal cavity and it goes through the mouth cavity. Such sounds are ‘oral’ sounds. When the soft palate is lowered the air passes through the nasal cavity. Such sounds are ‘nasal’ sounds.

The mouth cavity contains the organs of speech such as the tongue, the palate, the teeth and the lips. The shape of the mouth cavity depends on the position of the tongue. The roof of the mouth which is called as ‘palate’ is divided into three parts- the alveolar or teeth ridge just behind the upper teeth, the hard palate and the soft palate the end of which is called the ‘uvula’. The tongue is the most flexible and movable organ of speech. It is divided into four parts for the sake of descriptive convenience- the back, the front, the blade and the tip. The tongue comes in contact with the parts of the palate and certain sounds are produced. Though the teeth are not active they are used in the production of the sounds like /θ/, /ð/.

The lips constitute the final orifice of the mouth cavity. The lips can be held close together or far apart. The lips are used in the production of consonant sounds as well as vowel sounds. Some consonant sounds like /p/, /b/ are produced when the lips are closed tightly with complete obstruction to the air stream. Some sounds like /f/, /v/ are produced when the lower lip comes closer to the upper front teeth and the air stream passes with friction. Besides, in the production of vowel sounds, the lips are rounded, unrounded or at the neutral position. For example, in the production of the vowel sound /ɒ/ the lips are rounded, in the production of sound /e/ they are unrounded while in the production of /ə/ they are neutral.

These are the complex modifications which are made to the original air-stream by the speech mechanism.

1.3.1 Check your progress- II

1: Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct alternatives.

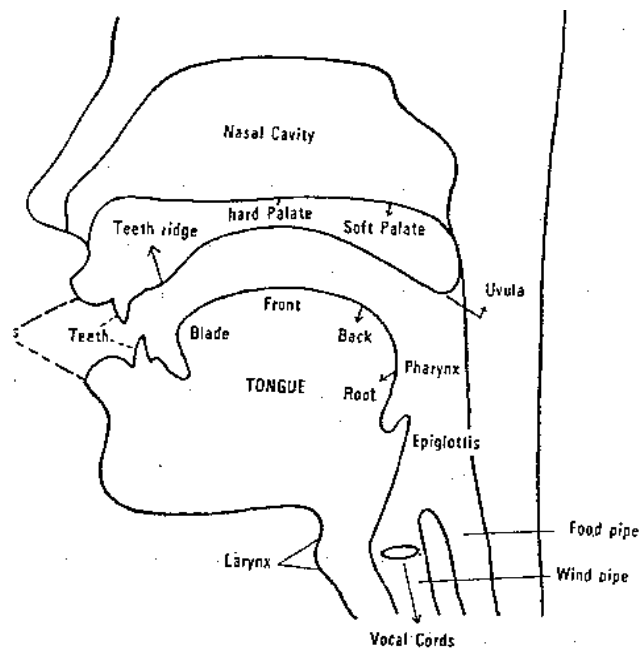
- i) We need ----- for the production of speech.
a) discipline b) skin c) an air-stream d) water
- ii) The sounds which are produced when the air is breathed out are called -----
a) ingressive b) egressive c) comparative d) positive
- iii) All the English speech sounds are -----

- a) pulmonic egressive b) ingressive c) glottal d) velaric
- iv) When the vocal cords are held apart ----- sounds are produced without the vibration of vocal cords.
- a) voiceless b) delicate c) voiced d) hard
- v) In the production of vowel sounds the lips can be -----
- a) rounded b) unrounded
- c) neutral d) rounded/unrounded/neutral

2: Write short notes

- 1) Pulmonic egressive sounds
- 2) Speech organs in mouth cavity
- 3) Oral and nasal speech sounds
- 4) Various positions of lips in the production of speech sounds.

1.4 Section 3: Organs of Speech



We have studied that for the production of speech sounds we need speech mechanism. The air that we breathe comes out of the lungs. Before it gets into the outer atmosphere, various organs in our body convert it into speech sounds. These organs are known as ‘organs of speech’. The following diagram is a vertical cross-section of human speech organs.

Diagram no. 1: ‘Organs of Speech’

The organs which are used for the production of speech sounds are called as organs of speech. The speech organs include the vocal cords, the palate, the tongue, the teeth and the lips.

Let us see how these speech organs work in the production of sounds.

1.4.1 The vocal cords:

The air which is released by the lungs comes up through the wind pipe or trachea and arrives at the larynx. Larynx is situated at the top of windpipe. In the larynx there is a pair of lip-like small bands of elastic tissue lying opposite each other across the air passage. These are vocal cords. They can be brought closer to each other or held apart. The space between the vocal cords when they are drawn apart is called ‘glottis’, through which the air can pass freely. This is the usual position when we breathe in and out

Figure 2(a)

Figure 2(b)

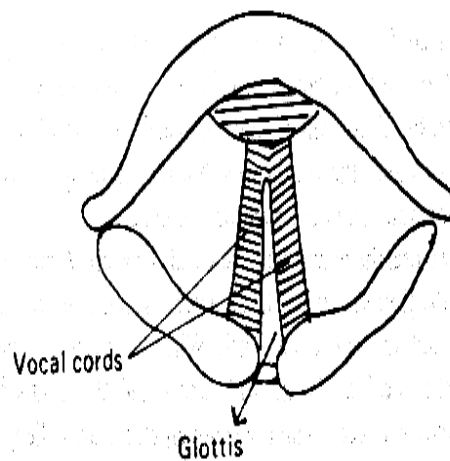
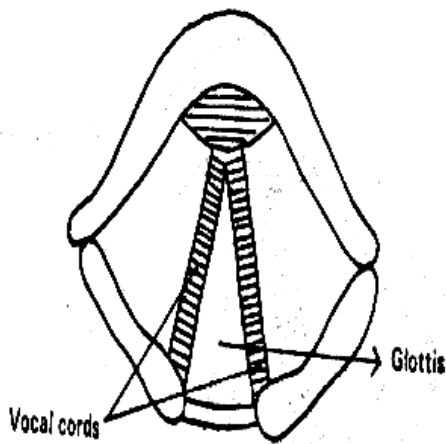


Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Vocal cords wide apart and the glottis fully open—position for breath and during the production of voiceless sounds.

Vocal cords kept loosely together—position for vibration during the production of voiced sounds.

Vocal cords wide apart and the glottis fully open-position for breath and during the production of voiceless

Vocal cords kept loosely together-position for vibration during the production of voiced sounds.

Diagram no. 2: Vocal Cords

When we produce some speech sounds, like /t/, /p/, /s/, /f/ etc. , the vocal cords are held wide apart and the air from the lungs passes through them easily. The vocal cords do not vibrate. Such ‘non-vibrated’ sounds produced with a wide open glottis are called ‘voiceless’ sounds. (See figure 2 (a))

During the production of certain speech sounds like /b/, /d/, /g/, /dʒ/, /m/ etc. the vocal cords are loosely held together and the air from the lungs passes with pressure to make them open and close rapidly and vibrated speech sounds are produced. Thus, the sounds produced when the vocal cords vibrate are called ‘voiced sounds’ (See figure 2 (b)). In this way, the vocal cords play very important role in the production of speech sounds.

1.4.2 The palate

The palate forms the roof of the mouth and separates the mouth cavity from the nose

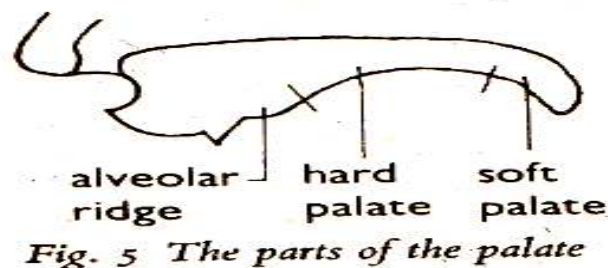


Diagram no. 3:

The Parts of Palate cavity. (See diagram no. 3)

You can see in the diagram that the palate is divided into three parts for the sake of convenience. The hard, convex body or raised part adjacent to the upper front teeth is called ‘teeth ridge’ or ‘alveolar ridge’. The hard concave area behind the teeth-ridge is called the ‘hard palate’. There is a soft portion behind the hard palate, it

is the 'soft palate'. At the end of the soft palate is a fleshy finger like part. It is called as 'uvula'.

The soft palate is movable. It can be raised or lowered. If the soft palate is raised so that it touches the back wall of the pharynx, the passage into the nose is closed. It forms a firm contact with the rear wall of the mouth and this stops the breath from entering the nasal cavity. The air goes through mouth cavity only. Such sounds are called 'oral sounds' e.g. /p/, /b/, /s/ etc. If the soft palate is lowered, the passage into the nose opens and the air from the lungs passes through the nasal cavity. Thus the sounds during the production of which the air escapes only through the nose/ nasal cavity are called 'nasal sounds' e.g. /m/, /n/ etc.

Apart from this raising or lowering of the soft palate the whole of the palate (including alveolar ridge, hard palate and soft palate) is used to produce certain sounds. The alveolar ridge is used when we produce sounds like /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/ etc. The hard palate is used in the production of /j/. The soft palate is used in the production of sounds like /k/, /g/, /ŋ/.

1.4.3 The Tongue

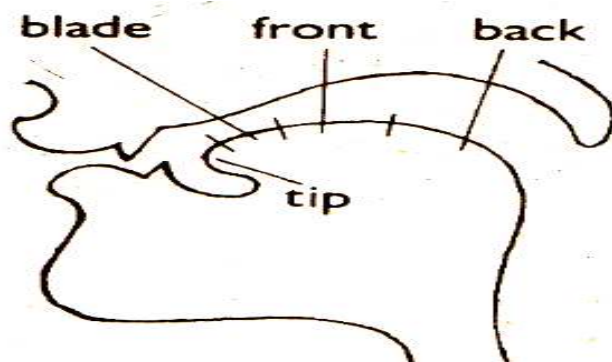


Fig. 6 The parts of the tongue

Diagram no . 4 : The Parts of the Tongue

The tongue is very important organ of speech as it has greater variety of movements. It has a number of different positions during the production of various sounds. For the sake of convenience, the tongue is divided into four parts- the tip, the blade, the front and the back. The extreme edge of the tongue is called the 'tip'. The part immediately after the tip is called 'blade'. Both the 'tip' and 'the blade' lie under

the alveolar ridge during resting position. The 'front' of the tongue lies under the hard palate. Beyond the front is the 'back' of the tongue, which lies opposite the soft palate when the speech organs are at rest. These various parts of the tongue are used to produce different speech sounds.

1.4.4 The Teeth

The teeth, in fact, are not active articulators. They are the passive articulators. The upper front teeth and the lower front teeth are useful in the production of speech sounds. The lower front teeth are important in speech except that if they are missing, certain sounds like /s/, /z/ will be difficult to produce. But the upper front teeth are used to produce speech sounds like /θ/, /ð/, /f/ and /v/.

1.4.5 The Lips

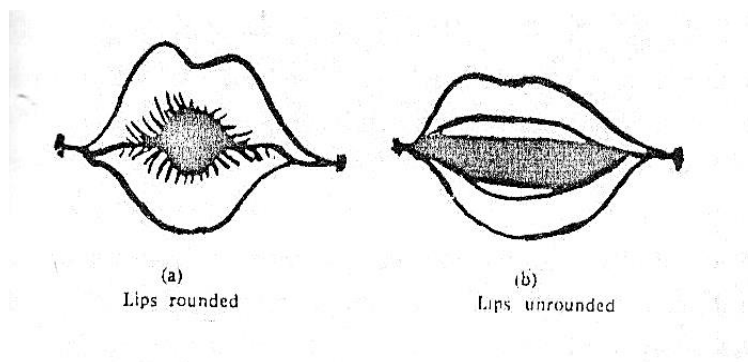


Diagram no .5

Both the lower and upper lips play their part to produce certain consonant and vowel sounds. The lips can take various different positions. The two lips are brought together so that they completely block or obstruct the mouth and then suddenly released. Certain sounds like /p/, /b/, /m/ are produced. The lower lip is drawn inward and slightly upward to touch the upper front teeth in the production of sounds like /f/ and /v/.

In the production of vowel sounds, the lips play an important part. In the production of some vowel sounds like /ʊ/, /ʊ/ etc. the lips are in round shape. This is called 'lip rounding' (see diagram 5 (a)). The lips are said to be rounded otherwise they are said to be unrounded as in the production of vowel sounds like /æ/, /e/, /ɪ/ etc. (see diagram 5 b). The lips with regular position at the time of rest are called 'neutral'.

1.4.6 Check your progress- III

- 1 Write short notes on the following
 - i) The vocal cords
 - ii) The tongue
 - iii) The palate
 - iv) The lips

1.5 Section 4: Description of Sounds with Three Term Labels

We have studied the organs of speech used for producing speech sounds. Now, let us study description of sounds with three term labels.

In English there are 44 speech sounds. These sounds are broadly divided into two categories- consonants and vowels. This division is based on whether the obstruction is created to the air-stream during the production of sound or not. There are 24 consonant sounds and 20 vowel sounds. The vowel sounds are further divided into two groups- pure vowels and diphthongs. A vowel sound is a sound in the production of which the air passes over the tongue without audible friction in the mouth while a diphthong is a union of two vowels within a syllable.

The 24 consonant sounds in English are:

/p, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/,

/f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/,

/h/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /w/

The 12 pure vowel sounds in English are:

/i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ɑ:/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ʌ/, /ɜ:/, /ə/

The 8 diphthongs in English are :

/eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɪə/, /eə/, /ʊə/

1.5.1: Description of consonant sounds

Consonant sounds are those sounds in the production of which the obstruction is created to the air-stream. These sounds are generally made by a definite interference of the speech organs with the air stream. During the production of consonant sounds the air released from the lungs escapes through the mouth with friction. The consonant sounds can be described with the help of the following points:

- a) The position of vocal cords
- b) The place of articulation
- c) The manner of articulation

Let us study these points in a detailed way

a) Voiced or Voiceless consonant sounds

Whether the consonant sounds are voiceless or voiced depend upon the state of glottis in the vocal cords. In the production of some consonant sounds, the vocal cords are kept loosely together and therefore they vibrate while producing sounds. Such sounds are called 'voiced sounds'. In the production of some consonant sounds, the vocal cords are kept apart and the glottis is wide open. Hence, they do not vibrate. Such sounds are 'voiceless' sounds. Thus, the 24 consonant sounds are divided into voiceless and voiced in the following way

Voiceless Consonants	voiced consonants
/p/	/b/
/t/	/d/
/k/	/g/
/tʃ/	/dʒ/
/f/	/v/
/θ/	/ð/
/s/	/z/
/ʃ/	/ʒ/
/h/	/m/

/n /

/ŋ/

/l/

/r/

/j/

/w/

b) Place of Articulation:

Here, we study the place where the sound is produced. That is to mean which organs of speech are used for the production of the consonant sounds. Consonant sounds can be classified according to the place of articulation as follows:

- i) **Bilabial** – The sounds are articulated by the two lips. The two lips (the lower and the upper lip) are used in the production of the sounds. e .g./p/, /b/, /m/, /w/.
- ii) **Labio-dental** – The sounds are articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth. The lower lip and the upper front teeth come in contact with each other to produce the sound. e. g. /f/, /v/.
- iii) **Dental** – The sound is articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth. Here, the tip of the tongue and the upper front teeth are used to produce the sounds. e. g. /θ/, /ð/
- iv) **Alveolar** – The tip or the blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge are the articulators in the production of these sounds .e. g. /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/, /z/.
- v) **Post –alveolar** –The sound is articulated by the tip of the tongue against the back of the teeth ridge e. g./r/
- vi) **Palato –alveolar** –The tip or blade of the tongue is raised against hard palate. Simultaneously, the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. e. g. /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/.
- vii) **Palatal** –The front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate. e. g./j/.
- viii) **Velar** –The back of the tongue is raised against the soft palate. The back of the tongue comes in contact with the soft palate. e.g. /k/, /g/, /ŋ/.
- ix) **Glottal** –The sound is produced by an obstruction and narrowing between the vocal cords. Glottal sound is produced at the glottis of vocal cords. e.g. / h /.

c) Manner of articulation:

Here, we study the manner i.e. how the sound is produced. The way in which the sound is articulated is called the manner of articulation. Consonants can be classified according to the manner of articulation as follows:

- I) **Plosives** – The two speech organs come together in the mouth cavity to form a complete closure of the air pressure. The air released from the lungs is blocked at this closure. Then the air is released suddenly with explosive sound. Thus, the sound is produced with complete closure and sudden release. e.g. /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/.
- II) **Affricatives** – The speech organs in the mouth cavity come together to form a complete closure of the air passage in the mouth. The air pressure builds up at the closure. Then the organs are separated slowly so that friction is heard. Thus, affricate sounds are produced with a stricture of complete closure and slow release. e. g. /tʃ/, /dʒ/.
- III) **Fricatives** – The two speech organs come close to each other but there is a narrow passage between them. The air passes through the passage with friction. Thus, fricatives are the sounds that are articulated with a stricture of close approximation, e.g. /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/.
- IV) **Nasals** – The two organs come together to form a complete closure in the mouth. Then the soft palate is lowered. Therefore, the air escapes through the nose cavity. Thus, the sounds that are articulated with a stricture of complete oral closure are called nasals. e.g. /m/, /n/, /ŋ/
- V) **Lateral** – At some point in the mouth there is a closure or contact in the middle but the air escapes through the sides of the contact. Thus, the lateral sounds are articulated with a complete closure in the centre of the vocal tract but with the air escaping along the sides of the tongue without any friction. e. g. /l/
- VI) **Frictionless continuant or Rolled** – There is no closure or friction but the sound has a consonantal function. The sound is produced with a stricture of open approximation. e. g. /r/
- VII) **Semi Vowels** – The sounds have a vowel glide with a consonantal function e.g. /j/, /w/,

Three Term Labels: Consonants

CONSONANT CHART

Place →	Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Post-Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar		Palatal	Velar		Glottal
	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl
Plosive	p	b					t	d					k	g	
Affricate										tʃ	dʒ				
Fricative			f	v	θ	ð	s	z		ʃ	ʒ				h
Nasal		m						n						ŋ	
Lateral								l							
Frictionless continuant									r						
Semi-vowel		w										j			

Vl = Voiceless
Vd = Voiced

/p/ - voiceless, bilabial, plosive

/b/ - voiced, bilabial, plosive

/t/ - voiceless, alveolar, plosive

/d/ - voiced, alveolar, plosive

/k/ - voiceless, velar, plosive

/g/ - voiced, velar, plosive

/f/ - voiceless, labio-dental, fricative

/v/ - voiced, labio-dental, fricative

/θ/ - voiceless, dental, fricative

/ð/ - voiced, dental, fricative

/s/ - voiceless, alveolar, fricative

/z/ - voiced, alveolar, fricative

/ʃ/ - voiceless, palato - alveolar fricative

/ʒ/ - voiced palato - alveolar, fricative

/h/ - voiceless, glottal, fricative
/tʃ/ - voiceless, palato -alveolar affricate
/dʒ/ - voiced, palato -alveolar affricate
/m/ - voiced, bilabial, nasal
/n/ - voiced, alveolar, nasal
/ŋ/ - voiced, velar, nasal
/l/ - voiced, alveolar, lateral
/r/ - voiced, post -alveolar, frictionless continuant/rolled
/j/ -voiced, palatal, semi -vowel
/w/ -voiced, bilabial, semi- vowel

1.5.2 Description of vowel sounds:

The vowel sounds are further divided into two types: pure vowels and diphthongs. A vowel sound can be defined as a voiced (vibrated) sound in the production of which the air released from the lungs, passes over the tongue without audible friction in the mouth. The air is not disturbed or cut off at any point. There is no closure of the air passage and no narrowing that would cause friction. We classify the English vowel sounds with the help of three points.

- i) The Part of the tongue that is raised (front/central/back)
- ii) The Height of the tongue (close, half close, open, half open)
- iii) The Position of the lips (rounded/unrounded/neutral)

i) Part of the tongue that is raised-

The part of the tongue can be raised towards the palate of the mouth. Thus there can be different degrees of raising of the tongue- front/central/back. In the production of certain vowels, the front of the tongue is raised. Such vowels are called ‘front’ vowels e.g. /i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ / etc. In the production of some vowels the back of the tongue is raised which are called ‘back’ vowels e.g. /ɒ/, /ɑ:/, /ʊ / etc. In the production of some vowel sounds, the central part of the tongue is raised. These vowels are called as ‘central’ vowels e.g. /ə/, /ɜ:/ etc.

ii) Height of the tongue:-

According to the degree of raising of the tongue, vowel sounds are divided into four categories- close, half-close, half-open and open. The following diagram shows the tongue position in the production of vowel sounds.

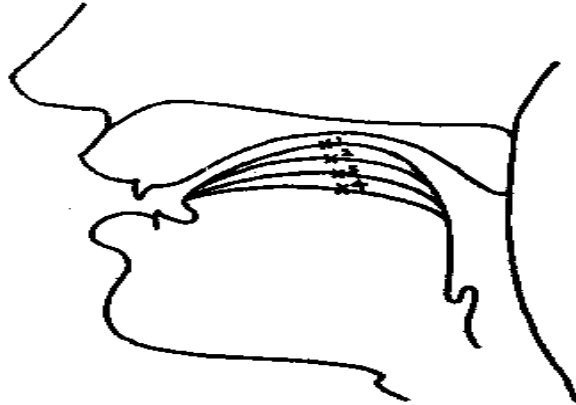
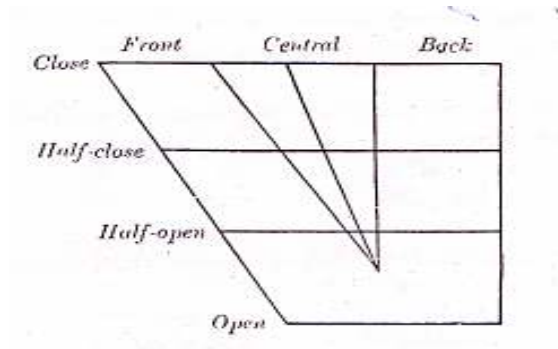


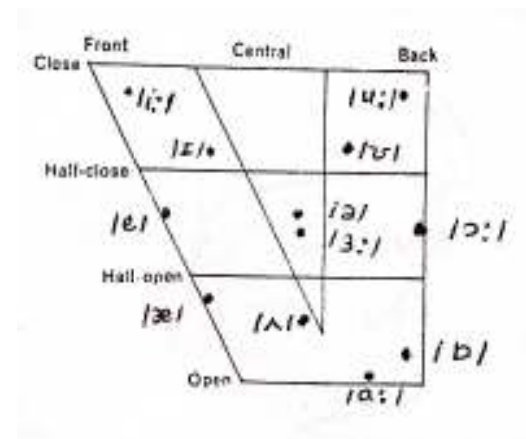
Fig. 32

In the production of some vowel sounds, the tongue remains at the lowest position (see number 4). When the tongue is at the lowest position, the mouth cavity remains open. This position is called as 'open' position. Here, the tongue is far away from the roof of the mouth. In the production of some vowel sounds, the tongue is raised towards the palate. It comes close to the palate (see number 1). Therefore, this position is called as 'close' position. When the tongue is between the close and open position, and closer to the close position is called 'half-close' position (see number 2). When the tongue is between the close and open positions, but closer to open position is called 'half-open' position (see number 3)

According to the height of the tongue and position of the lips, we get the cardinal vowel scale which is given below:



Now all the 12 vowels can be marked on the cardinal vowel scale as shown in the following diagram



Now we can describe the English vowels with the help of three terms-

- i) The Part of the tongue that is raised (front/central/back)
- ii) The Height of the tongue (close, half-close, half-open, open)
- iii) The Position of lips (rounded/unrounded/neutral)

Now let us describe the English vowels

1) /i: / :-

This is a front vowel. During the articulation of this vowel the front part of the tongue is raised almost near close. The lips are unrounded. It can be described as a *front, close, unrounded vowel* e.g. chief

/tʃi:f/ dream /dri:m/
tree /tri:/ seize/si:z/

2) /ɪ/ :-

This is a front vowel. During the production of this vowel the rear part of the front of the tongue is raised just above the half- closed position. The lips are unrounded. It can be described as *a centralized front just above the half close position, unrounded vowel* e.g.

rich /rɪtʃ/ effect /ɪfekt/
busy /bɪzɪ/ build /bɪld/

3) /e/ :-

This is a front vowel. During the articulation of the vowel the front part of the tongue is raised to a position between half close and half open. The lips are unrounded. The vowel can be described as *front, between half close and half open position, unrounded* e.g.

bed /bed/ dead /ded/
many /meni/ friend /frend/

4) /æ/ :-

This is a front vowel. The front of the tongue is raised slightly below the half-open position. The lips are unrounded. It can be described as *front, just below the half open position, unrounded vowel* e.g.

hat /hæt/ rank /rænk/
tax /tæx/ ant /ænt/

5) /ɑ:/ :-

This is a back vowel. During the production of this vowel the back of the tongue is in fully open position. The lips are unrounded. It can be described as *back, open. unrounded vowel* e.g.

ask /ɑ:sk/, dance /dɑ:ns/,
laugh /lɑ:f/, path /pɑ:θ/

6) /ɒ/ :-

This is a back vowel. The back of the tongue is raised just above the open position. The lips are rounded. The vowel can be described as *back, just above the open, rounded* e.g.

Dog /dɒg/ sorry /sɒri/
because /bɪkɒz/ lock /lɒk/

7) /ɔ:/ :-

This is a back vowel. The back of the tongue is raised to a position between half-open and half-close. The lips are rounded. The vowel can be described as *a back, between half open, and half-close, rounded* vowel e.g.

all /ɔ:l/ corn /kɔ:n/
horse /hɔ:s/ call /kɔ:l/

8) /ʊ/ :-

This is a back vowel. During the articulation of this vowel sound the back of the tongue is raised toward just above half close position. The lips are rounded. The vowel can be described as *back, just above half close, rounded* vowel e.g.

book /bʊk/, sugar /ʃʊgə(r)/,
full /fʊl/, cushion /kʊʃən/.

9) /u:/ :-

This is a back vowel. During its articulation the back of the tongue is raised very near to the close position. The lips are rounded. The vowel can be described as *back, close, rounded* vowel e.g.

Rule /ru:l/ moon /mu:n/
Group /gru:p/ move /mu:v/

10) /ʌ/ :-

This is a central vowel. The centre of the tongue is raised to a height just above the open position. The lips are neutral. The vowel can be described as *central, just above open, neutral* vowel e.g.

luck /lʌk/ cup /kʌp/
duck /dʌk/ uncle /ʌŋkl/.

11) /ɜ:/ :-

This is a central vowel. The centre of the tongue is raised to a height between half close and half open position. The lips are neutral. The vowel can be described as *central, between half close and half-open, neutral vowel* e.g.

serve /sɜ:v/ girl /gɜ:l/
purple /pɜ:pl/ surface /sɜ:fes/

12) /ə/ :-

This is a central vowel. The central part of the tongue is raised just below half-open position. The lips are neutral. The vowel can be described as *a central, just below half-open, neutral vowel* e.g.

about /əbaʊt/ father /fɑ:ðə(r)/
problem /prɒbləm/ human /hju:mən/.

Thus we can describe the vowels using three term labels as follows:

Three Term Labels: Vowels

- 1) /i:/ :- front, close, unrounded
- 2) /ɪ/ :- centralised front, just above half-close, rounded
- 3) /e/ :- front, between half close and half open, unrounded
- 4) /æ/ :- front, just below the half-open, unrounded
- 5) /ɑ:/ :- back, open, unrounded.
- 6) /ɒ/ :- back, just above open, rounded.
- 7) /ɔ:/ :- back, between half-open and half close, rounded.
- 8) /ʊ/ :- back, just above half close, rounded.
- 9) /u:/ :- back, close, rounded.
- 10) /ʌ/ :- central, just above open, neutral.
- 11) /ɜ:/ :- central, between half-close and half open, neutral.
- 12) /ə/ :- central, just below half-open, neutral.

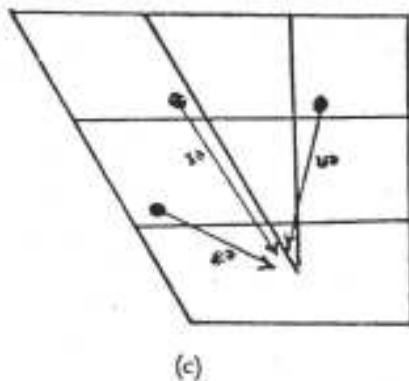
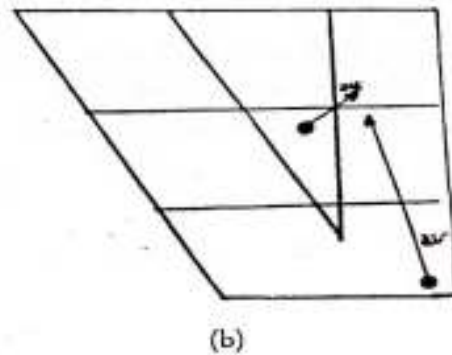
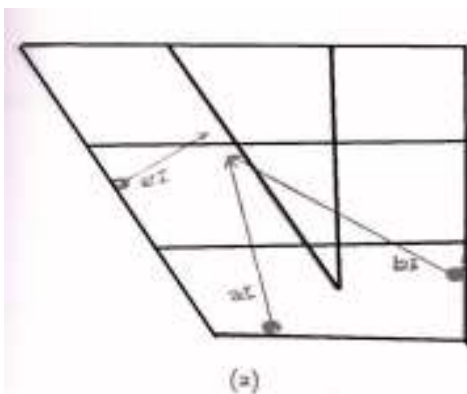
1.5.3 Description of Diphthongs :

Diphthongs are vowel glides within a syllable. In the production of the diphthong sound, the tongue begins from a position required for the production of one vowel and moves towards another vowel within a single syllable. In diphthongs most of the length and stress is given to the first element (vowel). Thus, diphthong sounds are made up of the combination of two pure vowels where the glide begins at one element and moves towards another.

There are eight diphthongs in English. These are:

/eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɪə/, /eə/, /ʊə/

The following diagrams represent the diphthongs in English



Now let us describe the diphthongs in English

1) /eɪ/ :-

The glide begins from the front, just below half close position and moves towards R.P. /i/. The lips are unrounded e.g.

gate /geɪt/ paste /peɪst/
rain /reɪn/ they /ðeɪ/

2) /aɪ/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from the front, open, unrounded position and moves towards R.P. /i/. The lips are unrounded e.g.

light /laɪt/ write /raɪt/
silence /saɪləns/ type /taɪp/

3) /ɔɪ / :-

The glide for this diphthong begins near the back, half-open position and moves towards /i/. The lips are rounded in the beginning and unrounded at the end e.g.

choice /tʃɔɪs/ point /pɔɪnt/
boy /bɔɪ/ voice /vɔɪs/

4) /əʊ/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins at a central position, just below the half-close position and moves toward /ʊ/. The lips are neutral in the beginning and rounded at the end e.g.

go /gəʊ/ home /həʊm/
open /əʊpən/ social /səʊʃəl/

5) /aʊ/:-

The glide for the diphthong begins from the back, open, unrounded position and proceeds towards /ʊ/. The lips are unrounded in the beginning and rounded at the end e.g.

cow /kaʊ/ house /haʊs/
town /taʊn/ mouth /maʊθ/

6) /ɪə/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from the centralised front, just above the half-close position and moves towards /ə/. The lips are unrounded in the beginning and neutral at the end e.g.

Cheer /tʃɪə(r)/ dear /dɪə(r)/
period /pɪəriəd/ real /rɪəl/

7) /eə/:-

During the production of this diphthong the glide begins from front between half-close and half-open position and moves towards /ə/. The lips are unrounded in the beginning and neutral at the end e.g.

air / eə(r)/ chair /tʃeə(r)/
care /keə(r)/ share /ʃeə(r)/

8) /ʊə/:-

During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from the back, just above half-close position and moves towards /ə/. The lips are rounded in the beginning and neutral at the end e.g.

poor /pʊə(r)/ pure /pjʊə(r)/
sure /ʃʊə(r)/ tour /tʊə(r)/

Three term labels- Diphthongs

Now let us describe the diphthongs with three term labels.

1) /eɪ/ :-

The glide begins from front, just below the half-close position and moves towards R.P. /ɪ/. The lips are unrounded.

2) /aɪ/:-

The glide begins from front, open and moves towards R.P. /ɪ/. The lips are unrounded.

3) /ɒɪ/:-

The glide begins from back, half-open position and moves towards /ɪ/. The lips are rounded in the beginning and unrounded at the end.

4) /əʊ/:-

The glide begins from central position, just below the half-close position and moves toward R.P. /ʊ/. The lips are neutral in the beginning and rounded at the end.

5) /aʊ/:-

The glide begins from back, open position and proceeds towards R.P. /ʊ/. The lips are unrounded in the beginning and rounded at the end.

6) /ɪə/:-

The glide begins from the centralised front, just above half-close position and moves towards R.P. /ə/. The lips are unrounded in the beginning and neutral at the end.

7) /eə/:-

The glide begins from front, between half-close and half-open position and moves towards /ə/. The lips are unrounded in the beginning and neutral at the end.

8) /ʊə/ :-

The glide begins from back, just above half-close position and moves towards R.P. /ə/. The lips are rounded in the beginning and neutral at the end.

1.5.4. Check your progress –IV

1. Describe the following sounds giving three term labels:

/p/, /t/, /dʒ/, /tʃ/, /v/, /i:/, /eɪ/, /aʊ/

2. Write short notes on:

1. Voiced and voiceless consonant sounds
2. Place of articulation of consonant sounds.
3. Nasal consonants

4. Three term labels of vowels
5. Fricatives

1.6 Section 5: Word Transcription

As we know that in English language, there is no one to one correspondence between the letters of the alphabet and speech sounds that they represent. One letter of the alphabet may stand for more than one or the same sound is represented by different letters of the alphabet. For example the alphabet 'a' can be represented in phonetic transcription in different ways like ant /ænt/, laugh /lɑ:f/, about /ʌbəʊt/, etc. Phonetic transcription is a useful way to avoid limitation and to be more correct in pronunciation. Phonetic transcription is a way of writing words using the phonetic script e.g. the word 'tax' is transcribed using phonetic script as /tæks/. In the same way we can transcribe laugh into /lɑ:f/, young into /jʊŋ/, finger into /fɪŋgə(r)/ etc.

In phonetic transcription we transcribe the word by writing the standard pronunciation of the word. The standard pronunciation is also known as 'Received Pronunciation' (R.P.). The transcription of words is written between two slant lines (/ /) using the phonetic script. Good dictionaries like 'Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English' by A.S. Hornby and 'English Pronouncing Dictionary' by Daniel Jones give standard pronunciation of words with stress. Here are some words with phonetic transcription

life	/laɪf/	thank	/θæŋk /	leaf	/li:f/
colour	/kʌlə(r)/	market	/mɑ:kɪt/	mission	/mɪʃən/
fashion	/fæʃən/	academy	/əkædəmɪ/	pocket	/pɒkɪt/
permission	/pə'mɪʃən/	mouth	/maʊθ/	minute	/mɪnɪt/
place'	/pleɪs/	close	/kləʊz/	mouse	/maʊs/
computer	/kəm'pjʊ:tə(r)/	complete	/kəm'pli:t/	because	/bɪkəʊz/
church	/tʃɜ:tʃ/	vision	/'vɪʒən/	nation	/neɪʃən/
listen	/lɪsən/	signal	/sɪgnəl/	mistake	/mɪsteɪk/
person	/pɜ:sən/	ribbon	/rɪbən/	river	/rɪvə/
habit	/hæbɪt/	paper	/peɪpə(r)/	ladder	/lædə(r)/
mobile	/məʊbaɪl/	cricket	/krɪkɪt/	college	/kɒlɪdʒ/
basket	/bɑ:skɪt/	wonderful	/wʌndəfəl/	earth	/ɜ:θ /

1.6.1 Check your progress: - V

1. Give the phonetic transcription of the following words:

Bottle, culture, position, power, examination, object (V), famous

1.7 Section 6: Word Stress/Accent: Primary Stress

We have seen how to give phonetic transcription of the words. Now, let us see syllable and word accent/stress.

1.7.1 The syllable:

We have already studied that phoneme is the smallest unit of speech sound. Vowels and consonants are organized into syllables to form a word. A word is made up of one or many syllables. A 'syllable' is a natural division of a word. A syllable is formed by the natural change in glide within the word e.g. the word 'pencil' has two pauses within word: pen-cil. It means that the word 'pencil' has two syllables. Similarly, the word 'population' consists of four syllable- 'po-pu-la-tion'. Thus, one or more phonemes for the next higher unit is called 'syllable'. The most important segment in forming syllable of a word is the 'vowel'. If vowels are removed from a word 'solid' we will get /sld/ which does not form a syllable. Hence, the vowel is called the nucleus of a syllable.

The words containing only one syllable are called 'monosyllabic' words e.g. get /get /, lamp /læmp/, root/ ru:t/, etc. The words containing two syllables are called 'disyllabic' words e.g. tailor /teɪlə(r)/, father /fɑ:ðə(r)/ etc. The words containing more than two syllables are called 'polysyllabic' words e.g. relationship /rɪleɪʃnʃɪp/, examination /ɪgzæmɪneɪʃn/ etc.

1.7.2 Word stress/Accent: primary Stress

We do not pronounce all the syllables in a word in the same way. Some syllables are pronounced with greater force than the others. For example, in the word 'Academy' the second syllable 'ca' is pronounced with greater energy. Thus, the syllables which are articulated with greater breath force or muscular force is called as stress or accent. In other words, the syllable that is pronounced more prominently than the other or others in the same word is known as accented or stressed syllable. In a polysyllabic word the syllable on which pitch movement or change takes place is said to have primary stress/accent. It is also known as tonic accent. For example, in

the word 'bicycle' the pitch movement is on the first syllable 'bi'. Primary stress or accent is marked with a vertical bar (') above and in front of the syllable to which it refers. Some examples are.

'captain 'calculate

'master di'sposal

Exami'nation notifi'cation

de'light 'educate

It is difficult for non-native speakers of English to place the accent on the correct syllable. The second difficulty about the English word-accent is a shift in the accented syllable e.g. a'cademy (N) and aca'demic (Aj).

To overcome these difficulties, here are some general guidelines about placing primary stress/accent correctly.

1) **Compound words:**

In compound a word consisting of combination of two words, the primary stress/accent is generally on the first element e.g.

'earthquake

'goldsmith

'anything

'school bus

'footprint

However, there are a few compound words ending with- *ever* or *self*, the second element receives primary stress e.g.

my'self how'ever

her'self when'ever

2) **Conversion words :-**

There are a number of words of two syllables in which the stress/accent pattern depends on the class of word. When the word is a noun or an adjective the stress is

on the first syllable and when the word is a verb, the stress is on the second syllable
e.g.

Word	noun or adjective	verb
Absent	/'æbsənt/	/əb'sənt/
Conduct	/'kɒndʌkt/	/kən'dʌkt/
Object	/'ɒbdʒɪkt/	/əb'dʒɪkt/
Perfect	/'pɜ:fɪkt/	/pə'fɪkt/
Produce	/'prɒdju:s/	/prə'dju:s/

- 3) Words ending with the suffixes – ion, –ity, –ic, –ical, –ically, –ial, –ian, –ious take the stress on the syllable preceding the suffix .e.g.

'Prepare	prepa'ration
Patriot	patri'otic
Bi'ology	bio'logical
'Labour	la'borious
A'cademy	aca'demic
Po'litical	poli'tician

- 4) Words with the suffix – ee, –eer, –aire etc. take the stress on the suffix.

Em'ploy	em'plo'yee
'Engine	engi'neer
'Million	millio'nair

- 5) The inflexional suffixes – ed, –es and – ing do not affect the stress or accent

'match	'matches
sub'mit	sub'mitted
'reason	'reasoning

- 6) The derivational suffixes – age, –ance, –en, –er, –ess, –ful, –hood, –ice, –ish, –ive, –less, –ly, –ment, –ness, –or, –ship, –ter, –ure and –zen do not affect the accent. Such words do not change stress in spite of addition of these suffixes e.g.

'carry	'carriage
a'ppear	ap'pearance
per'form	per'formance
'bright	'brighten
be'gin	be'ginner
'actor	'actress
'beauty	'beautiful
'brother	'brotherhood
'coward	'cowardice
'fool	'foolish
at'tract	at'tractive
'aim	'aimless
'certain	'certainly
'manage	'management
'bitter	'bitterness
col'lect	col 'lector
'author	'authorship
'laugh	'laughter
'city	'citizen
'blood	'bloody

- 7) Words with weak prefixes are stressed on the root and not on the prefixes e.g.
a 'head, a 'cross, be 'cause, a 'broad
- 8) Polysyllabic words ending with suffix 'ity' take the stress/accent on the third syllable from the end e.g.
mo'rality, ca'pacity, oppor'tunity, elec'tricity.

9) Words ending with the suffixes –al, –ally, affect on the stress pattern e.g .

'origin - o'riginal

'autumn - au'tumnal

Now, let us see some more words and their primary stress/accent.

Categorical	kætə'gɔːrɪkl/
Examination	/ɪg,zæmɪ'neɪʃən/
International	/,ɪntə'næʃənəl/
Present (N)	/'prezənt/
Object (V)	/'əbdʒəkt/
Contact (N)	/'kɒntækt/
Health	/'helθ/
Beautiful	/'bjʊ:tɪfəl/
Annual	/'ænjʊəl/
Alone	/ə'ləʊn/
Prevention	/'prɪ'venʃən/
Application	/,æplɪ'keɪʃən/
Entry	/'entri/
Estate	/ɪ'steɪt/
Private	/'praɪvɪt/
Colour	/'kʌlə(r)/
Breakfast	/'brekfəst/
Advice	/əd'vaɪs/
Economy	/ɪ'kɒnəmi/
Faithful	/'feɪθfl/
Couple	/'kʌpl/
Interest	/'ɪntrəst/

Measure	/meʒ'ə/
Justice (n)	/'dʒʌstɪs/
Duty	/'dju:tɪ/
Commerce	/'kɒmɜ:s/

1.7.2 Check your progress- VI

1 . Give primary stress/accent to the following words:

Footprint, perfect (V), politician, factory, faceless, below

1.8 Summary

Here, in this unit we studied English phonemes, allophones and minimal pairs. A phoneme is a minimal distinctive sound unit of language while ‘minimal pair’ is a pair of words which differ only in one sound segment. The variants in a phoneme are allophones. We have also studied the concepts of phonetics and phonology. Phonetics deals with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech while phonology deals with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech while phonology deals with the sound system, as well as different patterns of sounds in a particular language. We have also seen how speech mechanism works. The speech organs like vocal cords, palate, the tongue, the teeth, the lips are active to articulate speech sounds. We have studied in detail the description of speech sounds with three term labels as well as phonetic transcription of words. Finally, we studied primary stress/accent.

1.9 Terms to Remember

1. **Phonology** – a branch of linguistics which studies the sound system of a particular language.
2. **Phoneme** – minimal distinctive sound unit of language
3. **Consonant** – sounds in the production of which the obstruction is created to the air released from lungs.
4. **Vowel** – a voiced sound in the production of which the air passes out without obstruction or friction in the mouth.

5. **Diphthong** – union of two vowel sounds where the glide begins from one position and moves towards another vowel.
6. **Syllable** – minimum rhythmic unit of spoken language consisting of a vowel often preceded or followed by consonants
7. **Primary stress** – the syllable on which pitch movement/change takes place
8. **R.P.** – Received pronunciation or standard pronunciation.

1.10 Exercises

1. Give three term label description of the sounds.
/ p/, /f/, /k/, /m/, /ʌ /, /ɪ /, /eɪ/, /vɪ/
2. Give the phonemic transcription of the following words:
Feather, unhappy, progress (N), book, culture, emotion, develop
3. Give primary stress/accent to the following words.
analysis, bread, whoever, reason, achievement, student.
4. Write Short notes on the following
 1. Phoneme
 2. Vocal cords
 3. Voiced consonants
 4. Primary stress

1.11

1.12 Reference Book

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- 4) Velayudhan S. and Mohanan K.P. 'An Introduction to the Phonetics and Structure of English'. New Delhi: Samaiya pub. Pvt. Ltd.
- 5) Hornby, A.S. 'Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English'.

6) Jones, Daniel. 'English Pronouncing Dictionary' (18th edition).

1.13 Answers to check your progress.

A) Check your progress – I

- i) a) phoneme
- ii) b) distinctive
- iii) a) one
- iv) d) Allophones
- v) a) phonetics

B) Check your progress – II

- i) c) an air stream
- ii) b) egressive
- iii) a) pulmonic egressive
- iv) a) voiceless
- v) d) rounded/unrounded/neutral

C) Check Your progress – IV

/p/ - voiceless, bilabial, plosive

/t/ - voiceless, alveolar, plosive

/dʒ/ - voiced, palate- alveolar, affricate

/tʃ/ - voiceless, palate- alveolar ,affricate

/ʊ/ - back, just above open, rounded

/i:/ - front, close, unrounded

/eɪ/ - the glide begins from the position just below the front, half close position and moves towards R.P. /i/. The lips are unrounded.

/aʊ/ - the glide for the diphthong begins from the back, open, unrounded position and proceeds towards /ʊ/. The lips are unrounded in the beginning and rounded at the end.

D) Check your progress- V

Bottle –/bɒtəl/

Culture –/kʌltʃə(r)/

Position –/pəzɪʃən/

Powder – /paʊdə(r)/

Examination –/ɪg,zæmɪneɪʃən/

Object (V) –/əbdʒɪkt/

Famous – /feɪməs/

E) Check your progress – VI

'footprint

per'fect (V)

poli'tician

'factory

'faceless

be'low



Unit-2

Morphology

I) Morpheme.

II) Classification of Morphemes.

III) Word Formation Processes.

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2.0 Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able to:

- Understand the terms ‘Morphs’, ‘Morphemes’, ‘Allomorphs’ and ‘Morphology’.
- Identify the various types of morphemes like ‘free’ and ‘bound’ morphemes.
- Analyze the structure of complex words by identifying affixes, roots and stems.
- Understand the various processes of word formation.

2.1 Introduction:

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It studies the various aspects of language. Phonology is the study of speech sounds. Syntax is the study of sentence construction and the organization of units of language such as words, phrases and clauses. Semantics is the study of meaning in all its aspects. Morphology is the study of words formation. It is the study of how words are constructed out of morphemes. In short, morphology is the grammar of words. The knowledge of morphology is essential to enrich the vocabulary and to understand the various processes of word formation.

2.2 Subject Matter – I

2.2.1 Morphology

Morphology is the scientific study of word building. The branch of linguistics which is concerned with the word-structure is called morphology. In morphology the linguists study the smallest unit of grammar i.e. morpheme and formation of these morphemes into words. The following definitions will help us know morphology.

- 1) **Dorfman:** Morphology is the study of the ways and methods of grouping sounds into sound complexes or words of definite, distinct and conventional meaning.
- 2) **Bloomfield:** Morphology is the study of the constructions which sound forms appear among the constituents.

Broadly speaking, morphology is the study of the patterns of word-forms. It studies how the words are formed, where they originate from, what their grammatical forms are, what is the function of prefixes and suffixes in the word formation process and how and why the word forms change. Morphology is the structure of level between the phonology and the syntax. To be simple, morphology is the grammar of the words. It can divide the word into parts and establish relationship between them. We can show the parts which make up a word. For example, the word 'table-cloth' is made up of two parts i.e. 'table' and 'cloth' while the word 'unhappiness' can be divided into three parts:- 'un', 'happy' and 'ness'. So, Morphology is the study of the patterns of word-forms. The way in which morphemes are combined to form words is known as the morphology of language.

Morphological analysis is the observation and description of the grammatical elements in a language by studying their form and function, their phonological variants, and their distribution and mutual relationships within larger stretches of speech.

2.2.2 Morpheme

Morphemes are minimal units of grammatical structures. A morpheme is a minimal grammatical unit in a grammatical system of a language. Morphemes are described as minimal units of grammatical analysis-the units of 'lowest' rank out of which words, the units of next 'highest' rank are composed. So morphemes are the distinct grammatical units which form words. They can also be defined as the minimal units of meaning out of which words are composed in various ways for ex. The word 'telephones' has three morphemes- 'tele-', 'phone' and '-s'.

A morpheme is a distinct linguistic form which is not divisible or analyzable into its constituents or smaller forms/units. If we try to break or analyse a morpheme into smaller units, it loses its identity and we end up with a sequence of meaningless noises, for instance: 'nation' (na+tion) or (nati+on). Thus analyzing morphemes leads us straight into the realms of phonology.

Morpheme may or may not have meaning, may or may not have a phonological representation. {un-} has negative meaning in {unable}, but is meaningless in {under}. In plural words like 'sheep', 'fish' we have two morphemes in each word. The first morpheme in each case has phonological representation but the second one

has no phonological representation. This is called as ‘zero morpheme’, which is present in the meaning but not physically present in spelling or pronunciation.

Morphemes sometimes vary in their phonological manifestations. The plural morpheme {-s} is pronounced as {s}, {z} and {Iz}. It is not always clear whether or not a given sound sequence should be considered a morpheme for e.g. the word ‘natural’ has two morphemes {nature} and {-al}, but in ‘animal’ it cannot be divided as above. Shouldn’t we then regard ‘woman’ as a word having two morphemes {wo-} and {man}? A sound sequence is a morpheme in some words; it is not in some others.

A morpheme may be monosyllabic as {man, dog, write, play, blue or a/an/the} These words are made up of only one morpheme. Such words are called ‘monomorphemic’ words. A morpheme may be polysyllabic as { writing, cricket, singing, careful etc. }. These words are made up of more than one morpheme. Such words are called ‘polymorphemic’ words.

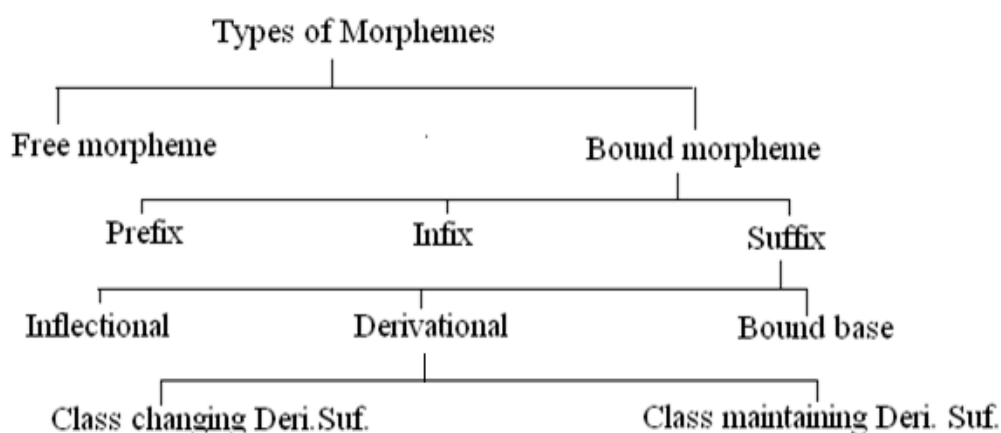
2.2.3 Classification of Morphemes

Ronald W Langacker in his book ‘**Language and its Structure**’ has divided morphemes into two classes: Lexical and Grammatical.

Lexical morphemes: Lexical morphemes are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. They have more or less independent meaning. Lexical morphemes are large in number in a language. They go on changing frequently their forms. New members are added to the lexicon quite often. For e.g. Boy, write, beauty, rare etc.

Grammatical morphemes: Grammatical morphemes are elements like prepositions, articles, conjunctions, forms indicating number, gender, tense or so on. They, by and large, do not change frequently. New members in their family in any language are added rather infrequently.

However, the distinction between lexical and grammatical morphemes is artificial and inadequate. ‘Hood’ is lexical morpheme in “She wears a hood”, but it is not so in ‘boyhood’. Prepositions are classed as grammatical morphemes, yet they are not all empty of semantic content. Even small grammatical morphemes such as {un-} in ‘unemployment’ and {-er} in ‘teacher’ have definite semantic content. Hence, there is a necessity of more rationalistic division of morphemes. Some linguists have distinguished morphemes between ‘free’ and ‘bound’ morphemes.



Free morpheme: Free morphemes are those morphemes that can occur alone as independent words. For e.g. rat, cat, go, back etc. Most lexical morphemes are free morphemes. Free morphemes can be used freely as words having their own specific meaning. They always contain and sustain their meaning wherever they occur in a sentence.

Bound morpheme: Bound morphemes are those morphemes that cannot occur as independent words. The morphemes like un-, re-, en-, dis-, -ness, -tion, -ment etc. are bound morphemes. For example, ‘anticorruption’, in this word ‘corrupt’ is a free morpheme and ‘anti’- and ‘-tion’ are bound morphemes. Most grammatical morphemes are bound morphemes. A bound morpheme attached to some other form is called an ‘affix’ and the form to which the affix is attached is called a ‘stem’. All affixes are examples of bound morphemes. However, some morphemes like ‘and’, ‘or’, ‘but’ etc. are grammatical morphemes yet they are independent words.

Roots and Affixes:

The root morpheme is that part of the word which is left when all affixes are removed. It may be bound or free. They are potentially unlimited in a language, because languages go on creating new words or borrowing ‘loan words’ from other languages. In a word ‘beautiful’, **beauty** is the root. All affixes are bound morphemes, for they cannot occur alone.

Roots and affixes may be of any structure and length, but affixes are generally shorter than roots. The criterion of determining the root is its indivisibility into constituent morphemes. The affixes are recurrent formative morphemes of words other than roots. Affixes are of three types- **Prefixes, Infixes and Suffixes.**

Prefixes:-

Prefixes are affixed before the roots and cannot occur independently. They are bound morphemes. For e.g. un-, re-, pre-, in-, etc.

Negative prefixes:		Place prefixes	
un-	unfaithful, unlawful, uneducated	ab-	absent,
in-	inattentive, insincere,	circum-	circumspect
ir-	irresponsible, irregular	trans-	transport
il-	illogical, illegal	inter-	international
im-	impractical, impossible	pro-	project
a-	amoral,	sub-	substation, subtype
dis-	disloyal, disapprove	epi-	epicenter
anti-	anticorruption, antiestablishment	de-	demote, declass
mis-	misfortune, misconduct		
mal-	malpractice, malnutrition		

Number prefixes			
uni-	unilateral	bi-	biweekly, bisect
tri-	tricolour	quad-	quadruped
multi-	multicolour	mono-	monologue, monopoly
hyper-	hypertension	poly-	polygon
ambi-	ambidextrous	pan-	Pan-American

Time prefixes:

Pre- prehistory, presemester **re-** return, reassemble

Post- postmodern, post modifier **retro-** retroactive, retrospect

Examples of class-maintaining prefixes:-

Prefix	Stem	A New Word
dis-	connect	disconnect
im-	possible	impossible
re-	produce	reproduce
under-	estimate	underestimate
super-	market	supermarket
in-	constant	inconstant

Examples of class-changing prefixes:-

Prefix	Stem	A New Word
de-	throne [n]	dethrone [v]
en-	slave [n]	enslave [v]
em-	power [n]	empowerb [v]
be-	calm [adj.]	becalm [v]
as-	sure [adj.]	assure [v]

Suffixes:-

Suffixes are affixed after the roots or stems. The plural formative (-s/-es), the comparative and superlative endings of the adjectives (-er, -en) and so many other final position formatives such as -ness, -less, -ment are called suffixes.

Noun forming suffixes

-ion	location, creation	-ence	interference
-ation	admiration, inspiration	-ment	management
-sion	admission	-ity	ability, creativity
-ness	kindness, vastness	-acy	accuracy
-ant	attendant	-ent	president
-ist	specialist	-ice	cowardice
-er	runner, winner	-or	creator, conductor

Adjective forming suffixes

-y	rainy, spicy, windy	-ible	credible, audible
-ful	skillful helpful	-ish	childish, foolish
-ive	active, sportive	-ant	hesitant, resistant
-al	natural, logical	-ic	economic, terrific
-ical	economical, psychological	-ous	dangerous, industrious
-able	believable, willable	-ing	enchancing, interesting
-some	troublesome, awesome	-worthy	trustworthy, noteworthy
-esque	picturesque, picaresque		

Verb forming suffixes:

-ise/-ize	specialize, chastise
-ify	classify, clarify
-en	widen, worsen
-ate	activate, terminate

Adverb forming suffixes

-ly	faithfully, fully
-wise	classwise, markwise

Infixes: Infixes are less commonly found in English apart from one mode of analysis of plurals like- men, geese etc. Infixes are found in Cambodian, in Sudanese and in Sanskrit also.

Inflectional and Derivational Suffixes:-

There are two major types of suffixes: Derivational and Inflectional suffixes. Both inflectional and derivational morphemes are suffixes; they are bound morphemes. Inflection and derivation are therefore sub-categories of suffixes. But they differ from each other.

Inflectional Suffixes: Inflectional suffixes are also called as *inflections*. Unlike derivational suffixes, they do not derive one word from another; instead, they represent a different form of the same word. Inflections are terminal i.e. they occur at word final position and their termination does not change the class of the root. Inflections like –s, -es, -ed, -en. –ing do not change the form of the word. e.g. run[v.] – runs[v.] – running [v.] Inflections have a very wide distribution i.e. they are of wide occurrence; their distribution is regular

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives/Adverbs
i] Plural –s, -es e.g. boy – boys, e.g. box - boxes	i] Present tense third person Singular –s, -es e.g. do-does, sit-sits	i] Comparative -er e.g. tall-taller great-greater
ii] Possessive -‘s e.g. Ram- Ram’s Student- Student’s	ii] Past tense –ed e.g. walk- walked iii] Present participle -ing e.g. sing – singing iv] Past participle -en e.g. eat - eaten	ii] Superlative -est e.g. great - greatest

Derivational Suffixes:

As its name implies, a derivational suffix is used to derive one word from another: for example, if we add the derivational suffix *-er* to *sprint*, we change the word *sprint* into a fresh word *sprinter*. All prefixes are derivational. Derivational suffixes may be followed by other suffixes. Derivational suffixes like *-ment*, *-able*, *-ly*, *-tion*, *-ation*, *-ize*, *-ive*, *-ity*, *-er*, *-al*, *-ate*, *-ic*, *-ical*, *-ically*, *-y*, *-ness* etc. may be final in the group to which they belong or they may be followed by other derivational suffixes or by inflectional suffixes. They are of relatively limited occurrence and their distribution tends to be arbitrary.

Class Maintaining and Class Changing Derivational Suffixes:-

Derivational suffixes are sub-classified into two types: i) Class maintaining derivational suffix and ii) Class changing derivational suffix.

Class-Maintaining Derivational Suffix: Class maintaining derivational suffixes are those which produce a derived form of the same class as the underlying form; they do not change the class of a parts of speech. For instance, *-hood*, *-ship*, *-ing* etc. are class maintaining derivational suffixes.

Class – Maintaining Derivational Suffixes

Suffix	Stem	Derived Word
-ship	friend [n.]	friendship [n.]
-let	book [n.]	booklet [n.]
-hood	mother [n.]	motherhood [n.]
-dom	king [n]	kingdom [n.]
-eer	engine [n.]	engineer [n.]
-ry	bribe [n.]	bribery [n.]

. **Class-Changing Derivational Suffix:** Class changing derivational suffixes are those that produce a derived form of another class. For example, *-ish*, *-ment*, *-al*, *-er*, *-ity*, *-tion*, *-ize*, *-ive*, *-ation*, *-ly*, *-able*, *-ic*, *-y*, *-ness* etc are class changing derivational suffixes.

Class – Changing Derivational Suffixes

Suffix	Stem	Derived Word
-ful	beauty [n.]	beautiful [adj.]
-ness	kind [adj.]	kindness [n.]
-en	strength [n]	strengthen [v.]
-ation	explore [v.]	exploration [n.]

Bound bases

Bound bases are those morphemes which serve as roots for derivational forms but which never appear as free forms. In words such as *include*, *exclude*, *preclude*, *conclude* the **-clude** is a bound base and so is the **-ceive** in *receive*, *deceive*, *perceive*.

Compounds

A compound is a lexical unit in which two or more lexical morphemes are juxtaposed e.g. aircraft, textbook, fingerprint etc.

2.3 Subject Matter - II

2.3.1 Allomorphs

“Any phonetic shape or representation of a phoneme is morph” (Hockett). **John Lyons** says, “When a word is segmented into parts, these segments are referred to as morphs’. Each morph represents a particular morpheme, but each morpheme does not have a morph. For ex. The plural noun **sheep** has one morph, but two morphemes [(sheep) and (plural aspect)]. **Went** has one morph, but it has two morphemes [(go) and (-ed)]/

Morpheme	Allomorph	Example	
Plural morpheme {-s/es}	[-s]	Cats	/kæts/
	[-z]	Bags	/bægz/
	[-Iz]	Churches	/tʃɜ:ʃIz/
Past morpheme {-ed}	[-t]	Passed	/pɑ:st/
	[-d]	Bagged	/ bæg d/
	[-Id]	Wanted	/wɑ:ntId/

Many morphemes are morphologically conditioned. The regularity of phonologically conditioning is restricted. There are several irregular forms and we cannot explain the direction of their change. In case of plural form of **child-children**,

sheep-sheep, explanation is not possible. These are not phonologically conditioned i.e. adjacent (neighbouring) sound do not affect these forms. [**-en =oxen, children, brethren**]. Such changes are said to be due to morphological conditioning. Following are the major types of conditioning.

A] Zero suffix: represented as /-θ/

Example: sheep (s) sheep (p) Cut (present) cut (past)

B] i) Vowel mutation/ replacive:

A change in vowel takes place or such morphemes involve replacement of a vowel.

Example: find-found mouse-mice catch- caught take- took

ii) Consonant change:

Example: send- sent wife- wives knife- knives wolf- wolves

C] Supplition:

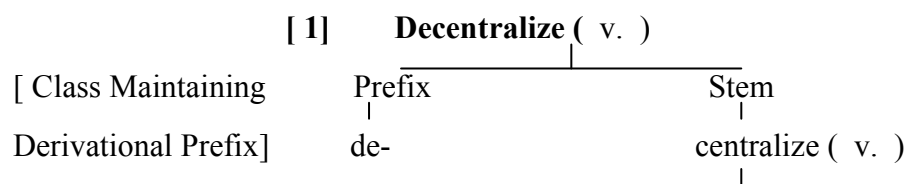
In Supplition, instead of a partial change in root (vowel change/ consonant change/ addition of ‘s’), the entire form of the root is replaced by a new form. We see a complete shape in the phonemic shape of the stem.

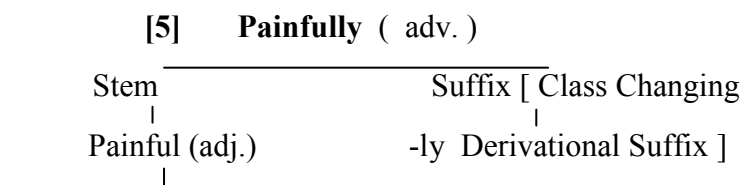
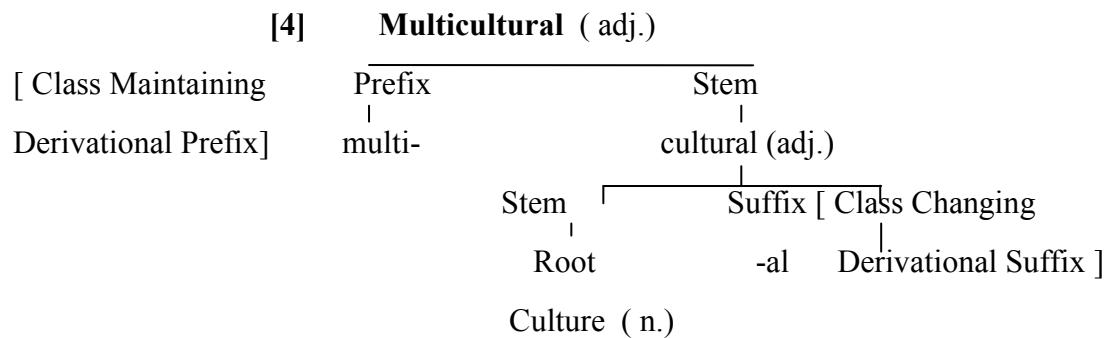
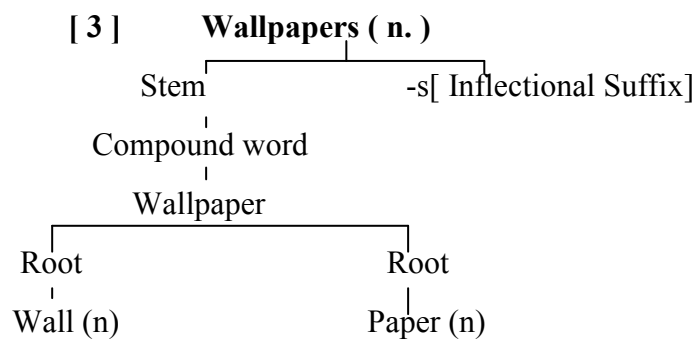
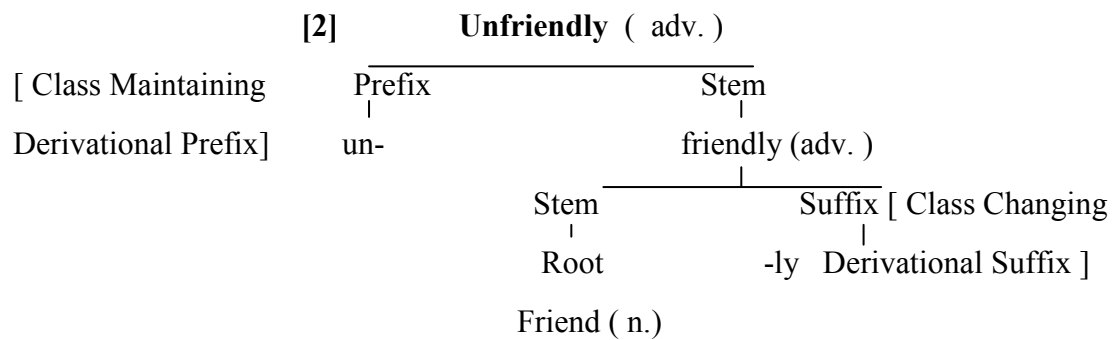
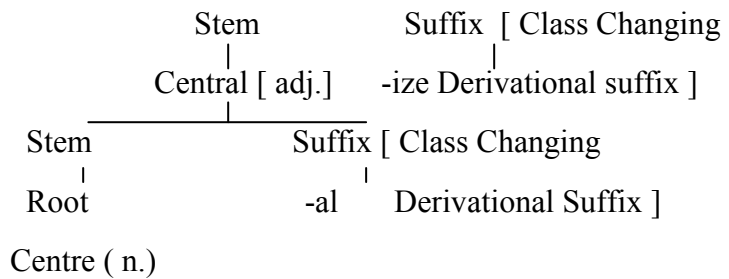
Example: go-went moon (N)-lunar (Adj) sun (N)- solar (Adj)
 sea (N)-marine (Adj) mouth (N)- oral (Adj) tooth (N)- dental (Adj)

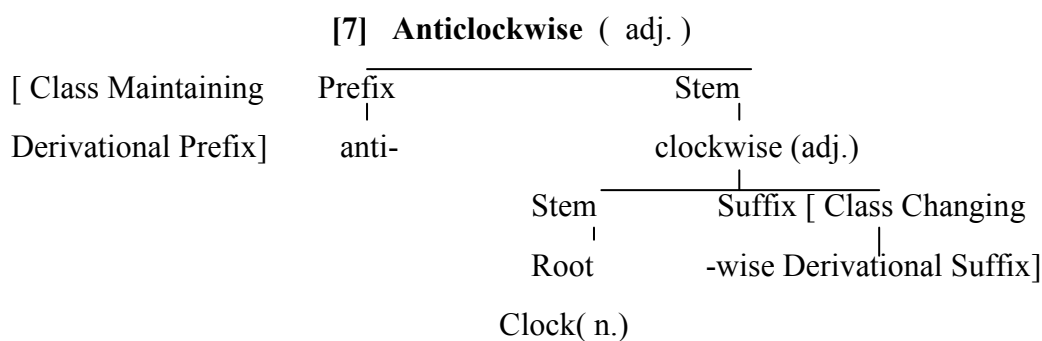
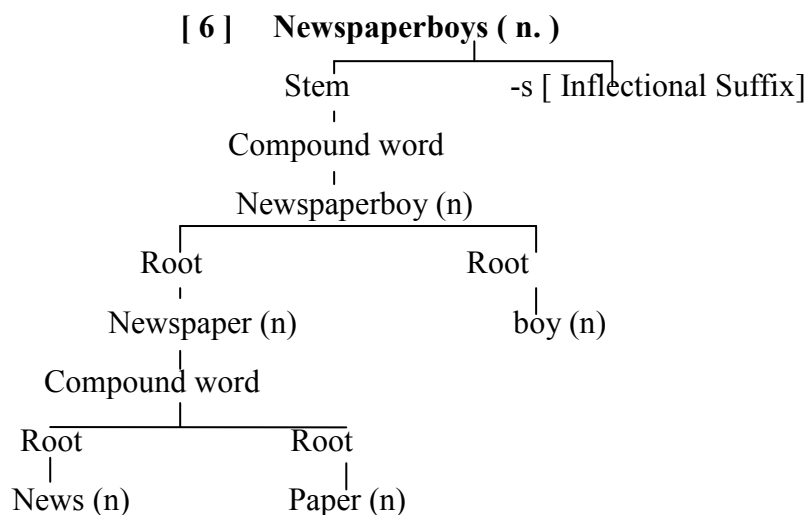
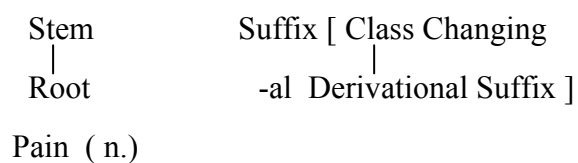
2.3.2 Morphological Analysis

Morphological Analysis

While analyzing words morphologically, one should see whether the divided stem is in usage. Morphological analysis is the observation and description of the grammatical elements in a language by studying their form and function, their phonological variants, and their distribution and mutual relationships within larger stretches of speech.







2.3.3 Check Your Progress I

Answer the following questions in a word/phrase/sentence each :-

- 1] What is a morpheme?
- 2] Define the term 'morphology'
- 3] What is a bound morpheme?
- 4] What is a free morpheme?
- 5] How many morphemes are there in a word 'anticorruption'?

- 6] What are the types of affixes?
- 7] Give an example of compound word.
- 8] How many types of inflectional suffixes are there?
- 9] Give two examples of class changing derivational suffixes.
- 10] Identify the free and bound morphemes in a word 'disestablishment'

2.4 Subject Matter - III

2.4.1 Word Formation Processes / Morphological Processes

Morphological processes or word formation processes produce new words. We can create a lot of words with the help of these morphological processes. Sometimes we create new words by affixing a prefix or suffix to a root or base form: for example, '*national*', '*ensure*' etc. Sometimes we bring two words together to create a new word: for example, '*black-pearl*', '*sweet-heart*' etc. Other times we shorten a word as in '*flu*' or use initial letters like 'B.A.'. We repeat a word for example, *bye-bye*. The following are some morphological processes that we use for making new words.

1. Affixation: Affixation is a major morphological process used for coining new words. Affixes are divided into two types: prefixes and suffixes. On the basis of this division, we have two sub-processes.

[a] Prefixation: Prefixes occur before a root or base form. Prefixation means fixing a prefix before a root or base form. All prefixes are derivational. Prefixes may change the class of the word or may not change. It means prefixes can be class changing or class maintaining. Prefixes can be negative as in: *un-unemployed*, *im-improper*, *ir-irregular*, *dis-dislike*, *non-non-violence*, *il-illegal* etc. Some prefixes are derogatory (pejorative) that indicate derogation in use and meaning: for example, *mis-misconduct*, *mal-malnutrition*, *pseudo-pseudo-classical* etc. Prefixes of degree and size include *arch-archpriest*, *super-superman*, *out-outstanding*, *over-overtime*, *under-underestimate* etc. Prefixes of time and order include *fore-foretell*, *pre-prewar*, *post-postmodern* etc. other prefixes are *a-*, *be-*, *co-*, *anti-*, *pro-*, *counter-*, *sub-*, *en-*, *multi-*, *pan-*, *semi-*, *vice-*, etc.

[b] Suffixation: Suffixes occur at the end of a root or base form. Suffixes can be inflectional or derivational. Derivational suffixes can be divided into class changing

and class maintaining suffixes. Suffixes like *-er, -or, -ness, -ship, -tion, -ist, -ation, -ment, -age, -let, -ity* are noun forming suffixes. Suffixes like *-en, -fy, -ize, -ise* etc. are verb forming suffixes. Suffixes like *-ion, -al, -ful, -tive, -cal, -ic, -less, -ive, -able, -er, -est* etc are adjective forming suffixes. Suffixes like *-ly, -ward, -wise* etc. adverb forming suffixes.

2. Compounding: Compounding is a morphological process in which two or more roots or bases are brought together to coin a new word. Though two or more bases or roots are brought together, they are treated as a single word. There are noun compounds and they can be used as nouns in sentences: for example, *black-board, type-writer, vacuum-cleaner, motor-cycle, head-phone, sun-glass, window-pane, photo-shop* etc. There are adjective compounds which function as an adjective in sentences: for example, *mouth-watering, breath-taking, home-sick, colour-blind duty-free* etc. There are verb compounds that function as verbal in sentences: for example, *sleep-walk, lip-read, baby-sit* etc.

3. Conversion: In this morphological process, we find change in the class of the word without changing the form of the word. A noun can be used as an adjective or verb or an adjective can be used as a noun. A grammatical unit can be used as a noun.

1. They dialed wrong number. (Noun----Verb)
2. He bottled juice. (Noun----Verb)
3. The judge ordered his release. (Verb----Noun)
4. They discussed his say. (Verb----Noun)
5. Bolt took good start.(Verb----Noun)
6. His claim is rejected.(Verb----Noun)
7. Bolt bettered his own record. (Adj.----Verb)
8. You must perfect your grammar.(Adj.----Verb)
9. English is a must subject. (Grammatical unit-----Noun)
10. Here are some dos and don'ts. (Grammatical unit-----Noun)
11. Society is divided into haves and have nots. (Grammatical unit-----Noun)
12. No ifs and buts please. (Grammatical unit-----Noun)

4. Reduplication: In reduplication two words are brought together to form a new word, but it is different from compounding. In reduplication, two words have one or two identical elements or the same word is repeated. When the same word is used twice to form a new word, the original meaning is either softened or hardened. The examples of reduplication: *bye-bye, goody-goody, ding-dong, tick-tock, super-duper, sing-song, tring-tring, tip-top, walkie-talkie* etc.

5. Clipping: In fact, clipping is not a morphological process; it is resulted from human tendency to shorten a longer word. Clipping includes shortening of long words. One or two syllables from the existing words are dropped to shorten it: for example,

Sr no.	Original word	Clipping word
1	Aero-plane	Plane
2	Omnibus	Bus
3	Advertisement	Ad
4	Examination	Exam
5	Influenza	Flu
6	Laboratory	Lab
7	Fountain pen	Pen
8	Professor	Prof.
9	Doctor	Doc./Dr.
10	Photograph	Photo
11	Coca-cola	Coke
12	Taxi-meter Cabriolet	Taxi (Bri.) Cab (Amr.)

6. Blending/ Blend: Blending is a morphological process that combines two words to form a new word, but while combining words one or two elements are dropped in this process. That's why it is called Blending. Generally the first part of the first word is blended into the last part of the next word.

Sr. No	Original words	Blend
1	Potato and Tomato	Pomato
2	Breakfast and Lunch	Brunch
3	Smoke and Fog	Smog
4	Motor and Hotel	Motel
5	Transfer and Registor	Transistor
6	Motor and Pedal	Moped
7	Escalade and Elevator	Escalator

8	Automobile and Omnibus	Auto-bus
9	European and Television	Eurovision
10	International and Police	Interpol
11	Biology and Technology	Bio-tech
12	Information and Entertainment	Infotainment
13	Education and Technology	Edu-tech
14	Global and local	Glocal

7. Acronyms: Acronym is a morphological process in which new words are formed from the initial letters of words. It is a minor process of word formation. New acronyms are generally created, particularly for names of organizations. Acronyms pronounced as sequences of letters can be called ‘*alphabetism*’.

Sr. No	Original word/s	Acronym
1	United States of America	USA
2	United States	US
3	Television	T.V.
4	With effect from	w.e.f.
5	State transport	S.T.
6	State Eligibility Test	SET
7	National Eligibility Test	NET
8	Very important person	VIP
9	Central Bureau of Investigation	C.B.I.
10	Central Investigation Department	C.I.D.

2.4.2 Check Your Progress II

Identify the word formation (morphological) processes in the underlined words in the following sentences.

- I want to see the semifinal.
- Her house is near the water-tank.
- Edu-tainment is a new word.
- The clock on the wall sounds tick-tick.
- Prof. Ramnath teaches well.
- The terrorist was arrested under TADA.

7. Please, book a ticket for me.
8. His application was rejected.
9. It is a super-duper film.
10. They dial a wrong number.
11. They took the help of Interpol.
12. Mr. John was suffering from flu.
13. I met her unexpectedly.
14. We stayed in the motel.
15. They listened to her say.

2.5 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt that morpheme is the smallest unit of form into which a word can be divided. Morphology is the scientific study of the formation of words. It is the study of morphemes, their classification, characteristics features and organization of formation of words. We have also studied the difference between morphemes and allomorphs, types of affixes, inflectional and derivational suffixes, class maintaining and class changing affixes. A labeled morphological analysis is the process of dividing a word into its constituents using a tree diagram and using a label to each constituents of the word showing the features of that morphemes. We have also studied different types of major and minor word formation processes.

2.6 Glossary and Notes

1. minimal : smallest, unit that cannot be further divided.
2. monosyllabic : having one syllable only.
3. polysyllabic : having more than two syllables.
4. morphological : relating to the study of word formation.
5. phonetic : about pronunciation.
6. conversion : change, the class of words without changing its form.
7. clipping : shortening the form of a word.
8. blending : mixing two words by dropping some elements.

9. segment : part or unit.
10. acronym : formation of new words by just taking initial letters of long name.
11. reduplicate : repeat with or without a slight change.

2.7 Exercises :

I] Answer the following questions in about 10 to 15 sentences.

- 1] What is a morpheme? What is the difference between free and bound morpheme?
- 2] Explain the concept of 'allomorphs' and give suitable examples.
- 3] Write a note on inflectional and derivational suffixes.
- 4] Affixation is a major word formation processes. Explain.
- 5] What is the difference between prefixes and suffixes ?
- 6] Write a note on 'conversion' as a word formation processes.
- 7] What are the minor word formation processes ? Give examples.

II] Give a labelled morphological analysis of the following words using tree diagrams:

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| 1] Unwanted | 2] Photography | 3] Foreknowledge | 4] Disfigurement |
| 5] Counter-attack | 6] Disentangled | 7] Interchangeable | 8] Maladjustment |
| 9] Unknowingly | 10] Readability | 11] Cowardliness | 12] Misrepresent |
| 13] Internationalization | 14] Di-syllabic | 15] Neo-classical | |

2.8 Reference Books

1. Velaydhan and Mohanan: **An Introduction to the Phonetics and Structure of English** Somaiya Pub. Ltd., New Delhi.
2. Hocket Charles :**The Course In Modern Linguistics**
3. Krishnaswamy N. : **An Introduction To Linguistics for Language Teachers.**
4. Verma S. K. and Krishnaswamy N. : **Modern Linguistics : An Introduction, O.U.P.1989.**
5. Dr. Varshney Paul : **An Introductory Textbook of Linguistics and Phonetics**
6. Leech G. N. : **English Grammar For Today : A New Introduction.**

2.9 Answers to Check Your Progress – I

1. The minimal meaningful unit in a grammatical analysis of a language.
2. Morphology is the scientific study of organization of words.
3. A morpheme that can't stand independently as a word in a phrase or a sentence.
4. A morpheme that can be used as a unit in a phrase or a sentence.
5. Three morphemes are in this word i.e. anti + corrupt + ion.
6. Prefixes, Infixes and Suffixes.
7. school-teacher, post-office, writing table mouth wash etc.
8. There are four types of inflectional suffixes e.g. plural 's, possessive 's, tense showing suffix and words in degree [great/greater/greatest]
9. Class changing derivational suffixes :- -ful and -ly
10. 'establish' is free morpheme and 'dis-' and '-ment' are bound morphemes.

2.10 Answers to Check Your Progress – II

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------|
| 1] Affixation [Prefixation] | 2] Compounding |
| 3] Blending | 4] Reduplication |
| 5] Clipping | 6] Acronymy |
| 7] Conversion | 8] Affixation [Suffixation] |
| 9] Reduplication | 10] Conversion |
| 11] Blending | 12] Clipping |
| 13] Affixation [Prefixation and Suffixation] | |
| 14] Blending | 15] Conversion |



Unit-3

Words

Word Classes-Open and Closed.

Form and Function.

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3.3 Subject Matter II

3.3.1 Closed Word Classes

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3.4 Check Your Progress

3.5 Sum Up

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3.7 Reference Books

3.8 Answers to Check Your Progress.

3.0 Objectives:

After the study of this unit you will be able to-

1. Understand open class and closed class words.
2. Identify the class of the given words.
3. Distinguish between form and function of the words.

3.1 Introduction:

In the last unit you have studied the grammatical concept, Morphology. It is the scientific study of the smallest grammatical units of language and their formation into words. There are Free Morphemes and Bound Morphemes. A free morpheme can stand alone as an independent word in a phrase. But the bound morpheme cannot occur as an independent unit or as word. In this unit, you will be introduced with the concept of word as a grammatical unit.

Words can be intuitively felt but the notion of 'word' is difficult to define. The concept of word has been with us ever since we began to speculate on linguistic matter. It is true that all languages have words in a particular form. The words are probably the most accessible linguistic units to the lay man. When we speak, we often employ word or sequences of words. The sequences of sounds are fully articulated to make up a word. The word is one of the linguistic constructs used for communication. It is one of the aspects of language. A grammar of language contains a lexicon i.e. a listing of the words occurring in that language along with their linguistic properties. There are four aspects of a word, namely phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic. The different types of words appear in a language. So there should be a scientific approach to study words of a particular language. Such study facilitates the learners of that language.

The word is a genuine linguistic unit. In written language, we recognize words as they are separated by spaces. When we speak, we use pauses. These pauses occur not within words but between words. So, a word is defined as "any segment of a sentence bounded by successive points at which pausing is possible." Let us see

another definition,-“A word is the smallest segment of speech that can be used alone”.

Traditional Grammar defined parts of speech by their meaning and function. English grammar is chiefly a system of syntax that decides the order and patterns in which words are arranged in sentences. Grammar can be briefly described as a set of rules for constructing and for analyzing sentences. In modern Linguistics, words are grouped into classes on the basis of their form and function, i. e. on the basis of their phonological, morphological and syntactic properties. The correlation between meaning and grammatical classes is also important. But this correlation is not found perfect. So it is better to classify words on the basis of form and function first, then meaning. A distinction can be made between major word-classes and minor word-classes.

The major word classes:- They are also called open- class words. Major word-classes are ‘open’ in the sense that new members can easily be added. Main Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs are the open word-classes.

The minor word-classes:- Words that belong to the minor word-classes are also called closed-class words. Minor word-classes are ‘closed’ in the sense that their membership is limited in number, and they can be listed. A minor word-class cannot easily be extended by new additions. So for all practical purposes the list is closed. Auxiliary verbs, Determiners, Pronouns, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are closed word-classes. Thus, there are two kinds of word classes in English, Open Classes and Closed Classes.

The Structural Grammar:- The units of grammar can be ordered in terms of RANK. The sentence is the largest unit of language. It is composed of smaller units; CLAUSES, PHRASES, and WORDS. In the structural grammar, the words are at the bottom of the rank scale. Grammar is described as a set of rules for constructing and analyzing sentences. The process of analyzing sentences into their parts, or CONSTITUENTS, is known as PARSING. There are semantic definitions of word classes i.e. definitions in terms of meaning. Such definitions are a useful starting-point, especially in the early days of learning about grammar, but they have two drawbacks:-a) they are often vague and, b) they are sometimes wrong. Considering these matters, for convenience in parsing, each grammatical category is introduced by a shorthand symbol.

Rank	Grammatical units of language	Symbol
Higher	A sentence consists of one or more clauses.	Se
	A clause consists of one or more phrases.	Cl
	A phrase consists of one or more words.	Ph
Lower	A word.	Wo

FORM CLASSES – Form classes of words or parts of speech: -There are two major kinds of word classes in English. They are 1) Open classes and 2) Closed classes.

3.2 Subject Matter - I

Word Classes: Open and Close

Traditional grammar classified the words into various groups. These groups are called the parts of speech. This classification was based on formal criteria. But this aspect of the traditional grammar has been criticized by the structural linguists and many modern grammarians. While using the categories noun, verb, adverb etc. they refer them as ‘word classes’ or ‘form classes’ instead of ‘parts of speech’ in order to dissociate themselves from the traditional view.

Modern grammar classifies words into two classes:- Open Classes and Closed Classes.

3.2.1 Open Word Classes / Content Words

Open class	Symbol	Examples
Noun	N	boy, table, sugar, beauty, idea, love etc.
Verb (-full verb)	V	dance, go, seem, water, cook, see, wash, eat etc.
Adjective	Aj	cold, good, beautiful, clean, smart etc.
Adverb	Av	now, there, away, fast, today, quickly etc.

These classes of words are called as open classes because we can easily make new words to add to them. It is easy to coin new nouns and verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The number of the members in each of these classes is not fixed. The

membership is fairly open ended. New words are continuously added to the list. e.g., the word ‘satellite’ is recently coined and added to the list of nouns. The vocabulary of English is, thus, continually being extended to meet new demands. It is very important to note that a member of one class may be identical in spelling and pronunciation with a member of another class. For example, ‘water’ can be a noun or a verb: We can ‘water’ our garden with waste ‘water’.

V

N

The words in these classes are also called ‘content words’ because they contain lexical, meaning. Secondly, the content words can be inflected. For example, a noun can take a suffix and be modified e.g. cat-cats, class-classes, box-boxes, write-writes, help-helper etc. Thus they contain some kind of meaning and they are representational.

It is important to note that the symbols used for open word classes begin with initial capital letters i.e. N, V, Aj and Av.

Criteria to define open word classes

In defining the open classes: N, V, Aj and Av, we use three types of test or criterion.

1. Form:

The class of a word can be recognized from its form. Certain suffixes help us to determine the word classes. e.g.

1. Noun-forming suffixes:

-ity	electric + ity	=	electricity (N.)
-ness	kind + ness	=	kindness (N.)
2. Verb forming suffixes:

-ify	class + ify	=	classify (V)
-ize	character + ize	=	characterize (V)
3. Adjective forming suffixes:

-al	classic + al	=	classical (Aj)
-less	mercy + less	=	merciless (Aj)

4. Inflectional Suffixes:

Certain suffixes can be added to change the form of the word e.g.

box + es = boxes (N)

work + ed = worked (V)

tall + er = taller (Aj)

take + en = taken (V)

5. In some less cases, English words have inflections which involve some other change in the form of a word e.g. change of a vowel. (**man - men, sing - sang, foot - feet, eat-ate**). In the extreme cases there is a complete change in the word. (**go - went- gone, good - better - best**).

2. Function

Function is the most important and reliable criterion in defining the word class. The word has a certain function in a phrase and in a clause and we can tell the class of a word by the way it behaves or functions in a larger unit. e.g. 'They water garden with the waste water'. We can identify the first water as a Verb and second as a Noun because of their function.

Thus a 'noun' can function as a subject, object, complement; 'verb' as predicator; 'adjectives' qualify nouns and function as modifiers, head and complement. Similarly 'adverbs' modify verbs and have adverbial function. Therefore, Subject, Object, Complement, Adverbial and Predicator are function labels and Noun, Verb, Adjective, Adverb are form labels.

3. Meaning

Meaning is also helpful in determining the class of a word. This is a supportive criterion, in that if we learn to recognize certain semantic types of words (i. e. the word types classified according to meaning) such as action verbs, state verbs, concrete nouns, abstract nouns etc. this will help us to check the purely grammatical criteria those of form and function.

We can place FUNCTION as the most important. FORM is next most important and MEANING is the least important tests in defining the word class.

3.2.2 Nouns (N)

The class of nouns (N) is the most numerous word class. It is rather impossible to list all the nouns in a language.

Function

Nouns can function as head (H) of a noun phrase e.g.

$NP(MThe^M little^H cat)$

$NP(MMy^M favourite^H Player)$

$NP(H_N Tigers)$ are wild.

Usually, the nouns take articles before them and a good test for a noun (except proper nouns) is whether it can fit in the frame 'The.....' e.g. The cat, the player, the idea, the beauty, the salt etc.

Form:

1. Many nouns have characteristic suffixes:
e.g. - ist (idealist), - ism (classicism), - hood (childhood), - ness (Kindness) etc.
2. Most nouns can be pluralized by adding suffixes like -s/ - es
e.g. chair - chairs, box - boxes, boy - boys etc.
3. Some other nouns change form.
(e.g. woman-women, foot-feet, tooth - teeth etc.)

Meaning

Nouns refer to physical phenomena like people, objects, places etc. they refer to other abstract things also like beauty, idea etc. We can divide the nouns into following subclasses according to the meaning:

i) Common Noun

It is a name given in common to every person, or thing of the same kind. Examples: dog, boy, teacher, action, doctor, pen, market, table, city etc.

ii) Proper Noun

A proper noun is a name used for a particular person thing, place etc. Examples: John, India, Mumbai, Thane, Himalaya, Krishna, Bihar etc.

iii) Concrete Noun

It is a name given to a thing or object which we can touch or see i.e. which has concrete physical shape. Examples: boy, hall, fan, lap, tree, book etc.

iv) Abstract Noun

An abstract noun is a name of quality, action, state etc. Examples: joy, love, happiness, sad, idea, truth, genius etc.

v) Count Noun

It refers to things or objects that can be counted or divided into singular and plural. Examples: table, dog, man, girl, word, sentence, pen, mile, radio etc.

vi) Mass Noun

It refers to things or substances that cannot be counted or divided into singular and plural. Examples: water, air, food, tea, milk, sugar, truth, beauty, gold etc.

vii) Collective Noun

These are generally count nouns, but they refer to collection of things, people or animals. Examples: family, team, army, council, staff, crew, crowd, bunch, herd etc.

viii) Material Noun

A material noun is a name of material or substance out of which things are made. Examples: steel, silver, gold, glass, clay, wood, plastic, paper etc.

3.2.3 Verbs (V)

Verb is another important open class of words. Here we are dealing with full verbs.

1) Function

Full verbs always function as the main element of a Verb Phrase. They can stand on their own as a Predicator (P) or they can follow other operator verbs. *e.g.*

1. The dogs $\overset{P}{\underset{VP}{\left(\underset{V}{Mv} \text{ bark} \right)}}$

2. The dogs $\overset{P}{\underset{VP}{\left(\underset{V}{v} \text{ are } \underset{V}{Mv} \text{ barking} \right)}}$

3. The dogs $\overset{P}{\underset{VP}{\left(\underset{V}{v} \text{ must } \underset{V}{v} \text{ have } \underset{V}{v} \text{ been } \underset{V}{Mv} \text{ barking} \right)}}$

The predicator is the central or pivotal element of the clause and every predicator contains a main verb.

2) Form

i) Some verbs have characteristic suffixes *e.g.*

-ise real + ise = realize, realise

-ify class + fy = classify

-en deaf = deafen

But these are not very important.

ii) The important thing about the full verbs is that, each verb has upto five different forms. For Regular verbs **Ved** and **Ven** forms are identical. For Irregular verbs, of which there are about 200 in English, the **Ved** and **Ven** form can vary in a number of different ways.

Form of Verb	Vo Present tense base form	Vs /III person sing P.T. form	Ved Past tense form	Ving Present Participle form	Ven Past participle form
Regular	work play cook call dance	works plays cooks calls dances	worked played cooked called danced	working playing cooking calling dancing	worked played cooked called danced
Irregular	go write drink give show put	goes writes drinks gives shows puts	went wrote drank gave showed put	going writing drinking giving showing putting	gone written drunk given shown put

3. Meaning

Full verbs express actions, events, processes, activities, states etc. such actions can express physical activities (eat, dance, run, walk), perceptions (see), mental state (think, feel), or social dealings (buy, sell, exchange) etc..

The forms **Vo** and **Vs** are used for Present Tense, **Ved** for Past Tense, **Ving** for Present Participle and **Ven** for Past Participle.

3.2.4 Adjectives (Aj)

Adjectives are the words used to express the quality, quantity, number and to point out the person or thing.

1. Function- Adjectives in general have three functions:

a) as head of an adjective phrase (AjP)

e.g. The boy was (^Mvery ^Hpolite)
 AjP Aj

b) as modifiers in a noun phrase (NP)

e.g. (^Man ^Hhonest teacher)
 NP Aj

c) as a complement in a sentence.

e.g. That person is (^C ^Hhonest)
 AjP Aj

2. Form

Adjectives can be classified into Gradable and Non-Gradable adjectives.

i) Gradable adjectives

These adjectives are those which refer to qualities that can change along a continuous scale such as size, age, etc. e.g. large / small, young / old, heavy / light etc.

ii) Non-gradable adjectives

These refer to all or non qualities like sex, nationality etc.

Gradable adjectives can be modified by degree adverbs like, very, rather, utterly, extremely etc. They can also have comparative and superlative forms. The shorter

and more common gradable adjectives take - er and - est suffixes. The longer and less common adjectives are modified by a separate comparative and superlative adverb i.e. more - most. There are a few irregular adjectives which have special comparative and superlative forms like good, better, best. The following table shows the gradable and non gradable adjectives.

Adjectives	Simple	Comparative	Superlative	Degree Adverb
Gradable	old beautiful good	older more beautiful better	oldest most beautiful best	very old rather beautiful quite good
Non Gradable	male wooden	-- --	-- --	-- --

3. Meaning

Adjectives show the quality or the property of nouns. They refer to -

- a) **Physical quality or color** - (blue) **shape** - (round) and **size** - (large)
- b) **The psychological qualities of emotion** etc. *e.g.* timid, pretty, wonderful.
- c) **Evaluative qualities** : good, nice, dull etc.

The adjectives can occur between the determiner 'the' and head of an NP in the frame.

'the.....N' .

e.g. (the big statue.)

$$\begin{matrix} \text{NP} & & \text{Aj} & & \text{N} \\ \text{(the)} & & \text{big} & & \text{statue.} \end{matrix}$$

3.2.5 Adverbs (Av)

A word which gives more information about a verb, an adjective, a phrase or another adverb is known as an adverb. There are three types of adverbs:

i) Circumstance Adverbs:

These adverbs add some kind to circumstantial information of time, place, manner etc. to the idea expressed in the core of the clause. *e.g.*

[^S(That boy)^P (ate) ^O(the sweets) ^A(quickly) ^A(yesterday)]

$$\begin{matrix} \text{S} & & \text{P} & & \text{O} & & \text{A} & & \text{A} \\ \text{(That boy)} & & \text{(ate)} & & \text{(the sweets)} & & \text{(quickly)} & & \text{(yesterday)} \end{matrix}$$

ii) Degree Adverbs :

These adverbs modify adjectives and other words in terms of grade. *e.g.*

$\begin{matrix} M & M & H \\ (\text{fairly} & \text{new} & \text{computer}) \\ \text{Av} & \text{Aj} & \text{N} \end{matrix}$

iii) Sentence Adverbs:

These adverbs apply to the whole sentence. They express an attitude to it or a connection between it and another sentence *e.g.*

$[\begin{matrix} A \\ \text{AvP} \end{matrix} (\text{So}) \begin{matrix} S \\ \text{Aj} \end{matrix} (\text{the whole thing}) \begin{matrix} P \\ \text{Av} \end{matrix} (\text{was}) \begin{matrix} A \\ \text{AvP} \end{matrix} (\text{frankly}) \begin{matrix} C \\ \text{Av} \end{matrix} (\text{awful})]$

In this example the adverbs ‘so’, and ‘frankly’ are sentence adverbs.

1) Function

i) In a clause, the adverbs can function as ‘adverbial’ (A) **e.g.**

They spoke $\begin{matrix} A \\ \text{Av} \end{matrix} (\text{frankly}) = \text{Adverbial.}$

ii) It functions as ‘Head’ of the adverb phrase (AvP)

e.g. She looked $\begin{matrix} A \\ \text{AvP} \end{matrix} (\begin{matrix} H \\ \text{Av} \end{matrix} \text{up}) = \text{H of an AvP}$

iii) It functions as modifier (M) in an adjective phrase (AjP) or an adverb phrase

e.g.

The girl is $\begin{matrix} C \\ \text{AjP} \end{matrix} (\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{Av} \end{matrix} \text{very} \begin{matrix} Aj \\ \text{Aj} \end{matrix} \text{clever}) = \text{M in an AjP}$

He Spoke $\begin{matrix} A \\ \text{AvP} \end{matrix} (\begin{matrix} M \\ \text{Av} \end{matrix} \text{very} \begin{matrix} Av \\ \text{Av} \end{matrix} \text{frankly}) = \text{M in an AvP}$

2) Form

Adverbs can be easily recognized by

i) **their derivational suffix** - ly examples :- slowly, beautifully, hurriedly, willingly, foolishly, frankly etc.

ii) A few adverbs resemble adjectives in having **comparative** and **superlative** forms. *e.g.* fast - faster - fastest, well - better - best etc.

3) Meaning

Adverbs can express many different types of meaning, especially as adverbials in a clause by referring to place, manner, time, degree, frequency, duration, direction etc. Sometimes adverbs function as sentence connectors. As we have seen earlier, they can also modify other adjectives and adverbs.

3.3 Subject Matter - II

3.3.1 Closed Word Classes

Closed Class	Symbol	Examples
Determiner	d	a, an, the, this, some, any, all etc.
Pronoun	pn	I, you, he, it, they, one, some etc.
Preposition	p	in, of, to, at, under, before, from, into, through, for etc.
Conjunction	cj	and, or, but, if, when, so, that, either etc.
Operator-verb	v	be, can, shall, will, have, may, do, am, could etc.
Interjection	ij	oh, ooh, ugh, ghee, hell, hay etc.
Enumerator	e	one, two, first, third, last etc.

These classes of words are called as closed classes because the members of these classes are fixed in number. The list of each closed class is finite and not extendable. We cannot coin a new word and add to the list. We rarely invent new words like the, she, on, can, must etc. It is fairly easy to prepare a complete list of the words in these classes.

The words in closed classes are also called as '**structure words**'. Like content words they don't have lexical meaning or definable meaning. Therefore, semantically they are less significant than content words. But they are more significant grammatically. These words are used to build structures, so they are called structure words.

Another important thing about these words is that, they are uninflected. *i.e.* they don't take either prefixes or suffixes. They are functional and help in modifying the

meaning of content words. Like open classes, they have members which are identical in form to members of other classes. For example, the word ‘this’ may be either a determiner or a pronoun, and ‘since’ may be either a preposition or a conjunction. We can use separate labels in such cases $_d$ this and $_{pn}$ this. Again, it is necessary to note that, the same form is shared by an open class word and a closed class word: for example, ‘round’ may be either an adverb or a preposition.

We have seen that the symbols used for open word classes begin with the capital or upper case, whereas, the symbols used for closed word classes are in small letters or in lower case. i.e. d, e, p, cj, ij, v etc. The students should be very careful while using symbols for these words in their grammatical analysis of phrases and clauses. If the symbol is not represented properly, it will denote different grammatical class. For example, if capital ‘P’ is used instead of small ‘p’ for preposition, it will denote not ‘preposition’ but ‘predicator’ which is a function label used for a verb phrase.

Now let us see these closed classes of words in detail:

3.3.2 Determiners (d):

Determiners come at the beginning of noun phrases. They introduce noun phrases and function as modifiers. They are sometimes obligatory because they are necessary grammatical parts of noun phrases in which the Head of an NP is a singular count noun. e.g. we can’t say

[($\overset{H}{\underset{N}{\text{Dog}}}$) ($\overset{My}{\underset{V}{\text{is}}}$) ($\overset{H}{\underset{N}{\text{animal}}}$)] here the determiner is obligatory because the Heads of both

the noun phrases are singular count nouns i.e. ‘dog’ and ‘animal’. Therefore, we must say

[($\overset{M}{\underset{d}{\text{The}}}$) ($\overset{H}{\underset{N}{\text{dog}}}$) ($\overset{Mv}{\underset{V}{\text{is}}}$) ($\overset{M}{\underset{d}{\text{an}}}$) ($\overset{H}{\underset{N}{\text{animal}}}$)]

The articles ‘a’, ‘an’ and ‘the’ are the most common determiners. The list of determiners is given below.

Determiners(d) :

a, an, the, this, that, these, those, all, some, any, no, every, each, either, neither, one, several, enough, such, many, much, more, most, a few, fewer, fewest, a little, less, least, what, which, whatever, whichever.

3.3.3 Pronouns (pn) :

A word used in place of a noun or a noun phrase is called a pronoun. The pronouns are 'dummy' nouns or noun phrases because they have general or unspecific meaning. When pronouns are obligatory elements of noun phrases, they act as 'Head' of such phrases. They can also function as modifiers in noun phrases. The list of the pronouns in English is as given below:

Pronouns (pn) :

I, me, my, mine, myself, we, us, ourselves, our, ours, you, yourself, yourselves, your, yours, he, him, himself, his, she, her, herself, hers, it, itself, its, they, them, themselves, their, theirs, this, that, these, those, all, some, any, none, each, either, neither, one, oneself, several, enough, everybody, everyone, everything, somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, anything, nobody, no one, nothing, many, much, more, most, a few, fewer, fewest, a little, less, least, who, whom, whose, what, which, whoever, whichever, whatever, each other, one another.

There is a large overlap between determiners and pronouns: this, that, all, some belong to both the categories e.g.

1. [$\begin{matrix} S \\ d \end{matrix}$ (This flower) $\begin{matrix} P \\ \end{matrix}$ (is) $\begin{matrix} C \\ \end{matrix}$ (beautiful)] = This is a determiner.
2. [$\begin{matrix} S \\ pn \end{matrix}$ (This) $\begin{matrix} P \\ \end{matrix}$ (is) $\begin{matrix} C \\ \end{matrix}$ (a beautiful flower)] = This is a pronoun.

3.3.4 Enumerators (e)

Enumerators are the words which show number. These words include cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers and a few general ordinals e.g.

Cardinal numbers : one, two, three, sixty, hundred

Ordinal numbers : first, second, third, tenth

General numbers : next, last, other, further

3.3.5 Prepositions (p)

Prepositions come at the beginning of prepositional phrases. Prepositions are always followed by a noun or a noun phrase or a pronoun, and they express the relation of possession, place, time, direction, duration etc. e.g.

PP ($\begin{matrix} p \\ \end{matrix}$ of the girl) = possession

PP p

(at night) = time
PP p

(in the forest) = place
PP p

(into the lake) = direction
PP p

(for a month) = duration
PP p

The list of prepositions is given below:

Prepositions :

about, above, after, against, along, alongside, amid, among, around, as, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, beyond, by, despite, down, during, from, for, in, inside, into, off, of, on, opposite, outside, over, past, round, since, than, through, throughout, till, to, toward, towards, under, underneath, until, up, via, with, within, without.

We must be very careful about prepositions and adverbs because there is a large overlap between them. When the word refers to the place, duration or direction it is an adverb, and when it is a part of prepositional phrase, it is a preposition. e.g.

1. [^S(She) ^P(looked) ^A(up the sky)]. up = preposition
NP VP PP p

2. [^S(She) ^P(looked) ^A(up)]. up = adverb
NP VP AvP Av

3. [(He) (walked) (in)]. in = adverb
S P A
NP VP AvP Av

4. [^S(He) ^P(is) ^A(in the classroom)]. in = preposition.
NP VP PP p

3.3.6 Conjunctions (cj)

Conjunctions are the joining words. The verb ‘to conjunct’ means ‘to join’.

Conjunctions are used to join words, phrases and clauses e.g.

< Ram and Seeta > = words
Cj

< (a girl) and (a boy) > = phrases
Cj

< [He is honest] but [he is poor] > = clauses
Cj

The conjunctions are subdivided into two classes, subordinating conjunctions and coordinating conjunctions.

Subordinating Conjunctions:

after, although, as, because, before, but, it, how, however, like, once, since, than, till, unless, until, when, whenever, wherever, whereas, whereby, whereupon, while, in that, so that, in order that, except that, as far as, as soon as, rather than, as if, as though, in case.

Coordinating Conjunctions:

and, or, but, nor, neither.

We have to keep in mind that many of the subordinating conjunctions are written more than one word. In addition, in both the categories, there are a number of correlative conjunctions, i.e. two conjunctions occur together, one preceding one construction and the other preceding another construction. e.g.

Subordinating: if.....then, although..... yet, hardly..... when

Coordinating: both.....and, either..... or, neither..... nor, not only.....but also, no sooner than, etc.

3.3.7 Operator - verbs (v)

Operator - verbs are also called as auxiliary verbs or helping verbs. The operator verbs help the main verbs in the verb phrases in several ways such as forming different tense forms, interrogative and negative forms, passive voice, and expressing modes of action like possibility, probability, certainty, obligation etc.

The operator verbs fall into two categories: Primary verbs and Modal verbs.

1. Primary Verbs

	Vo	Vs	Ved	Ving	Ven
PRIMARY VERBS	be,	is, are	was, were	being	been
	have	has	had	having	had
	do	does	did	doing	done

2. Modal Verbs:

will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, need, dare, ought to, used to.

The modal verbs are invariable. The modal verbs could, should, would and might are regarded as the past tense forms of can, shall, will and may. The primary verbs: be, have, and do are the three most important verbs in English. They are very irregular in the sense that they have an irregular Vs form. Another very important thing about these primary verbs is that each of them can function either as auxiliaries or as main verb. e.g.

1. She $\underset{VP}{\overset{P}{}} \left(\underset{V}{\overset{Mv}{}} \text{is} \right)$ a good girl. is = Main verb
2. She $\underset{VP}{\overset{P}{}} \left(\underset{V}{\overset{Aux}{}} \text{is writing} \right)$ a letter is =Auxiliary
3. I $\underset{VP}{\overset{P}{}} \left(\underset{V}{\overset{MV}{}} \text{have} \right)$ a car have = Main verb
4. I $\underset{VP}{\overset{P}{}} \left(\underset{V}{\overset{Aux}{}} \text{have bought} \right)$ a car have =Auxiliary
5. She $\underset{VP}{\overset{P}{}} \left(\underset{V}{\overset{Mv}{}} \text{did} \right)$ her homework did = Main verb
- She $\underset{VP}{\overset{P}{}} \left(\underset{V}{\overset{Aux}{}} \text{did not know} \right)$ the reason. did =Auxiliary

3.3.8 Interjections (ij)

Interjections are the words which express sudden emotions. They are primitive expressions of feelings. They are also called as 'emotive words'. Interjections are not grammatically connected with the sentence which they precede. They are loosely integrated into the linguistic system. (Some grammarians include them in open class words.)

1. Oh! You are here.
2. Hey! I am in love.

The interjections 'Oh' and 'Hey' are not grammatically connected to the above sentences.

The following are some of the examples of interjections:

swear words : damn, shut etc.

greetings : hi, hello, hey, etc.

signaling words : yes, no, goodbye, bye, okay, oh, ouch, shoo, ssshhh etc.

3.4 Check Your Progress:

I. Say whether the following statements are 'true' or 'false'.

1. A sentence is made up of only one clause.
2. Sentences, clauses, phrases and words are the grammatical units of language.
3. A word is made up of one or more morphemes.
4. Modern grammar classifies words into open and closed classes.
5. The words in open classes are finite in number.
6. Content words contain lexical meaning.
7. Structure words are not important semantically.
8. Operator - verb is an open class of words.
9. We use lower case or small letters for closed classes.
10. Conjunctions are known as linking words.

II. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase or sentence each.

1. What does the sentence begin and end with?
2. What is a common noun?
3. Give an example of collective noun.
4. What is an abstract noun?
5. What is a pronoun?
6. What are the two types of operator - verbs?
7. What is a regular verb?
8. What is an interjection?
9. Give an example of modal verb.
10. What is meant by mass nouns?

III. Rewrite the following sentences filling in the blanks with the correct alternatives from those given below each:

1. A word used in place of noun is called _____
a) adjective b) determiner c) pronoun d) adverb.
2. Beauty is an _____ noun.
a) proper b) common c) mass d) abstract
3. Committee is a _____ noun.
a) material b) collective c) mass d) concrete
4. Sixty is _____ number.
a) ordinal b) general c) cardinal d) countable
5. Sofia won the match in the second round. The word 'round' in this sentence is _____
a) noun b) preposition c) adjective d) adverb

IV. Identify the word classes of the underlined words in the following sentences:

1. The candidates are waiting for their results.
2. Suresh ran fast but he didn't get the prize.
3. Jacky presented her a golden necklace.
4. Fortunately, John was not injured in the accident.
5. Henry applied for the post of a cook in the hotel.
6. The doctor examined the patient carefully.
7. Hurray! India won the match.
8. Sultana stood first in the university examination.
9. You should take care of your health.
10. Henry came late because he missed the bus.

3.5 Let Us Sum Up

Word is an important grammatical unit of language. It is made up of one or more morphemes. Phrases, clauses and sentences are made up of words. Words are classified into two major categories. These categories are called classes of words. Nouns, Verbs (full verbs), Adjectives and Adverbs are open classes of words. They are also called as content words. Determiners, Pronouns, Enumerators, Operator Verbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions and Interjections are called as closed classes of words. These are also called as structure words. These classes of words have their significant characteristic features. The importance of the word is considered on the basis of its function in the larger unit.

3.6 Reference Books

- 1) Leech GN. **English Grammar for Today: A New Introduction**, Palgrave, 1988.
- 2) Quirk Randolph et al. **A University Grammar of English**, Longman. 2000
- 3) Todd Loreto. **An Introduction to Linguistics**, Longman, York Press 1987.
- 4) Verma S.K. and Krishnaswamy N. **Modern Linguistics : An Introduction**: O.U.P. 1989.

3.7 Exercises

I) Write short notes on the following:

- 1) Open word classes.
- 2) Types of nouns.
- 3) Regular and irregular verbs.
- 4) Gradable and non-gradable adjectives.
- 5) Types of adverbs.
- 6) Coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.
- 7) Primary verbs and modal verbs.

- 8) Prepositions.
- 9) Function of interjections.
- 10) Pronouns.

II) Identify the word classes of the underlined words in the following sentences:

- 1) This college is hundred years old.
- 2) Do you read newspapers daily?
- 3) Most of the poets are whimsical.
- 4) They have been living in Delhi since 1989.
- 5) Her ambition is to become a teacher.
- 6) These fruits are rather costly.
- 7) I think your health is better now.
- 8) Smith visits the library daily.
- 9) You must work hard.
- 10) Laughter is the best medicine.
- 11) Study hard or you will fail in the examination.
- 12) Shut! The film is boring.
- 13) Work is worship.

3.8 Answers to check Your Progress

- I - 1. False, 2. True, 3. True, 4. True, 5. False
6. True, 7. True, 8. False, 9. True, 10. True.
- II - 1. The sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop or question mark or an exclamation mark.
2. A name given in common to every person or thing of the same class or kind.
 3. team, crowd, bunch, staff etc.
 4. a name of an action, quality or state which has no concrete physical shape, size.

5. a word used in place of noun or an NP.
6. primary verbs and modal verbs.
7. the verb that has Ved and Ven forms identical.
8. the word expressing sudden emotion.
9. can, may, would, shall etc.
10. nouns that cannot be counted or divided into singular and plural.

III - 1. c - pronoun 2. d - abstract 3. b - collective

4. c - cardinal 5. a - noun.

IV - 1. pronoun 2. adverb 3. adjective

4. adverb 5. noun 6. verb (full)

7. interjection 8. enumerator 9. operator-verb

10. conjunction.



Unit-4
Phrases

1. Classes of Phrase
2. Main and Subordinate Phrase
3. Form and Function labels

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4.6 Exercise

4.7 Reference for further Study

4.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able to---

- 1) Understand phrase as a unit of language
- 2) Understand conventions to identify Phrases
- 3) Identify Main and Subordinate phrases
- 4) Identify six classes of phrase
- 5) Identify form and function labels of phrases
- 6) Analyze six classes of phrase

4.1 Section I

4.1.1 Introduction

In the earlier Unit you have studied word classes which are classified into open and closed classes. Words are grammatical units of language. They are the lowest units in the hierarchy of units of language. There are four grammatical units of language: Word, Phrase, Clause and Sentence. The word is the lowest unit in the hierarchy of language. Next to word, is the phrase. After Phrase, clause is the next Unit. Sentence is the highest unit in the hierarchy of language. Language is made up of sentences. Sentence is composed of smaller units, clauses, phrases and words. The units, sentence and word are clearly represented in writing system. We identify them according to the usual conventions. Sentence will be delimited by an initial capital letter and final full stop or question mark or exclamation mark. A word will be delimited, for most purposes, by a space or punctuation mark other than a hyphen or apostrophe on each side. For example, we can write the sequence mini + bank in three different ways: mini bank, mini-bank or minibank.

Clauses are the principal units of which sentences are composed. A sentence may consist of one or more clauses. For example:

- 1) Ram ate an apple

This standing on its own is a sentence. But (1) can also occur as part of a larger unit:

- 2) [Ram ate an apple] and his wife ate banana.
- 3) Shyam knew [that Ram ate an apple]

Here (2) and (3) are sentences but the parts of them in square brackets are clauses.

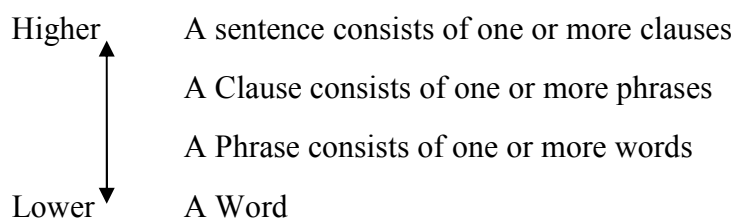
Phrases are units intermediate between clause and word. Thus (4) consists of 12 words but these words are grouped into 4 phrases:

- 4) (The old men) (are sitting) (in the garden) (since a long time)

Like words, phrases belong to a number of different classes. 'The old men' is a NOUN PHRASE, 'are sitting' is a VERB PHRASE, 'in the garden' is a PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE, and 'since a long time' is another PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

4.1.2 Hierarchy of units:

The units of grammar can be ordered in terms of RANK:



It is very important to notice that we are using 'high' and 'low' in a special way. What we mean is that a unit of the higher rank consists of one or more of the units of the next lower rank. So a sentence can consist of only one clause and such sentences are called SIMPLE SENTENCES. A Phrase can consist of only one word. See the following sentence

- 5) [(Adam) (munched) (apples) (contentedly)]

The whole of this sentence is a single clause which is shown by the square bracket. Each word in the above example (5) constitutes a phrase which is shown by

the round bracket. Even a whole sentence can consist of a single word: Kill! is a sentence consisting of one clause consisting of one phrase consisting of one word.

4.1.3 Grammatical Notations:

For clarity and brevity it is essential to have a way of representing grammatical structure on paper. There are two ways of graphic notations: bracketing and tree diagram

1) **Bracketing:** Phrases are enclosed in round bracket, for example:

(The best book)

The functional labels of the phrases are written on top before the bracket and the formal labels are written below and before the round bracket, for example:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \text{P} & \text{C} \\ \text{(The table)} & \text{(is)} & \text{(very fine)} \\ \text{Np} & \text{VP} & \text{AjP} \end{array}$$

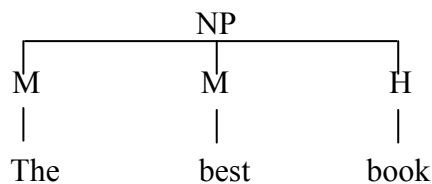
NP, VP and AjP are formal labels and they were written below and before the round brackets S, P and C are functional labels and they are written on top before and outside the round brackets.

Clauses are enclosed in square brackets for example:

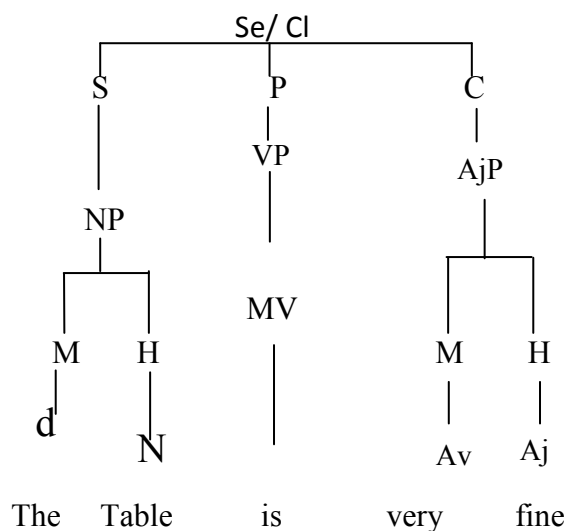
[They are playing cricket nowadays]

2) **Tree diagram:** Bracketing is very easy to use but does not give a very clear visual picture of the relation between constituents. Tree diagram gives a clear visual picture of the relation between various constituents. In tree diagram formal and functional labels are given in a hierarchical order. Functional labels are given just above the formal labels. For example:

1) The best book



2) The table is very fine



4.1.4 Form and function labels:

When we analyze phrases in a clause we use the following symbols/labels.

I) Form labels for phrases

Classes of Phrase	Symbol/ Label	Example
Noun Phrase	NP	the book, the tree
Prepositional phrase	PP	in the garden
Genitive phrase	GP	John's book
Adjective Phrase	AjP	good class, fine
Adverb Phrase	AvP	very early, late
Verb Phrase	VP	has gone, is writing

II) Function Label for Phrases :

Elements	Symbols	Example
Subject	S	(Grammar) is very easy
Predictor	P	I ^P (write) a book
Object	O	He posted ^O (a letter)
Indirect object	O _i	I gave ^{O_i} (him) a pen
Direct object	O _d	She sent an ^{O_d} (e-mail) to him
Complement	C	They are ^C (very sincere)
Subject complement	C _s	Seeta appears ^{C_s} (simple)
Object complement	C _o	They choose him ^{C_o} (the Leader)
Adverbial	A	She come ^A (very fast)

4.1.5 Main and Subordinate Phrase

As we have already seen that phrase is an intermediate unit between word and clause. It may consist of a single word or many words. The words in a phrase are closely tied to one another. It is not easy to define the word 'phrase' because the definition fits the elements into a fixed frame work and the difficulties arise. However, we can broadly describe the 'Phrase' as the word/words that are closely related to each other. In other words they are immediate constituents which are related to each other. For example:

(The old man) (has been wandering) (aimlessly) (in the garden)

In the above sentence there are four phrases. The words/constituents in each phrase are related to each other. 'Old' is related to 'man' and 'the' is also related to 'man'. Hence 'the old man' is one phrase. Similarly 'has' and 'been' are related to 'wandering'. Hence it forms a phrase which is called a verb phrase. The word 'aimlessly' stands alone. Hence it is a phrase itself which is called Adverb Phrase. In the same way 'in' and 'the' are related to 'garden' and it is a prepositional phrase.

Phrases function as elements in a clause. The functions of phrases are Subject (S), Object (O), Predictor (P), Complement (C), and Adverbial (A). These functions are known as clause elements.

Phrases are divided into two groups: Main phrases and subordinate phrases. A Main Phrase is one which is a direct constituent of a clause; it is not part of another phrase. For example:

[(The boy) (is studying) (in the library)]

In the above example there are three phrases and they are the direct constituents (parts) of the whole clause i.e. 'The boy is studying in the library'.

Subordinate Phrases are those which are part of other phrases. They are not direct constituents of clauses, but indirect constituents. It is a phrase within phrase. For example:

[_{NP}(The teacher _{PP}(in the garden)) (is wearing) (a blue shirt)]

In the above clause 'in the garden' is a prepositional phrase and it is the part of 'the teacher' which is a Noun Phrase. Hence 'in the garden' is the subordinate Phrase. It is a phrase within a phrase. In other words Prepositional phrase 'in the garden' comes in the Noun Phrase 'the teacher'. Hence Prepositional Phrase in this example is a subordinate phrase. We can again represent the cases of subordination in terms of bracketing as follows:

{NP}(The bride ^M{PP}(of royal family))

{NP}(^M{GP} (The royal (family's) bride)

The Prepositional Phrase (PP) and the Genitive Phrase (GP) in the above examples are subordinate phrases.

4.1.6 Check your Progress I

- 1) Which is the lowest unit in the hierarchy of unit of language?
- 2) Which is the intermediate unit between word and clause?
- 3) Which is the highest unit in the hierarchy of unit of language?
- 4) Which bracket is used for enclosing phrases?
- 5) Which bracket is used for enclosing clauses?
- 6) What are the two ways used for analyzing phrases?
- 7) What are the elements of a clause?
- 8) What is a main phrase?

- 9) What is a subordinate phrase?
- 10) How many phrases are there in English? Which are they?

4.2 Section II

4.2.1: Classes of Phrase

We have already mentioned six classes of phrase. They are:

- 1) The Noun Phrase (NP)
- 2) The Prepositional Phrase (PP)
- 3) The Genitive Phrase (GP)
- 4) The Adjective Phrase (AjP)
- 5) The Adverb Phrase (AvP)
- 6) The verb phrase (VP)

The Noun phrase (NP), the Adjective Phrase (AjP) and the Adverb (AvP) all have the same basic structure:

$$\{M\} H \{M\}$$

‘M’ means modifier. ‘H’ means head. These phrases must have a head (H). The modifiers are optional. They may come or may not. The enclosure of modifier ‘M’ in curly brackets shows they are optional. Again there are two kinds of modifiers: pre modifiers and post modifiers. Pre Modifiers come before the head ‘H’ and the post modifiers after the head ‘H’. For example:

N_p (^Mawful ^Hclimate) = awful is a pre modifier

N_p (^Hsomething ^Mnasty) = nasty is a post modifier

Prepositional phrases (PP) and Genitive Phrases (GP) may be thought of as NPs with an extra particle or marker added to them:

The book $_{PP} (P \text{ of } ^M_N \text{English}^H_N \text{Grammar}) = \text{prepositional Phrase}$

The extra marker added is the preposition (P) before ‘English grammar’.

$_{Gp} (\overset{M}{d} \text{The } \overset{M}{Aj} \text{ old } \overset{H}{N} \text{man 's}) \text{bungalow }) = \text{genitive phrase}$

The extra marker added is the apostrophe 's to the man.

The Verb phrase (VP) has a different structure from those of other phrases. It has a pivotal role in the clause. Without verb phrase (VP), clause is not possible. Hence it is compulsory in a clause. The structure is:

{Aux} {Aux} {Aux} Mv.

The Verb Phrase may have two elements: The main verb (Mv) and Auxiliary (Aux). The auxiliaries are optional and precede the main verb. In the above structure the 'Aux' are enclosed in curly brackets which show that they are optional and 'Mv' is not enclosed in any bracket that shows that it is essential element in the Phrase.

4.2.2 The Noun Phrase (NP)

Function: The NP may function as subject (S), as object (O), as complement (C) or an adverbial (A). The following examples indicate these functions

1) $[\overset{S}{NP} (\text{The bungalow}) (\text{was}) (\text{empty})] \quad NP = S$

2) $[(\text{They}) (\text{have purchased}) \overset{O}{NP} (\text{the farm house})] \quad NP = O$

3) $[(\text{This}) (\text{must be}) \overset{C}{NP} (\text{the college building})] \quad NP = C$

4) $[(\text{They}) (\text{ran}) \overset{A}{NP} (\text{ten kilometers})] \quad NP = A$

Structure: The structure of NP is as follow:

{M} H {M}

We have already discussed this concept. 'M' is modifier, it may be pre or post modifier. 'M' is enclosed in curly bracket which shows that it is optional and Head (H) is essential.

1) **The head of NP:** NPs have various heads. They are as follows:

i) A Noun as head in NP:

$_{NP}(\text{The}_{N}^H \text{college})$

$_{NP}(\text{The beautiful}_{N}^H \text{girls})$

ii) A Pronoun as head in NP

$_{NP}(\text{They}_{pn}^H) \text{ study grammar}$

$_{NP}(\text{You}_{pn}^H) \text{ must concentrate}$

iii) An Adjective as head in NP:

$_{NP}(\text{The}_{Aj}^H \text{rich}) \text{ will get a chance}$

$_{NP}(\text{The}_{Aj}^H \text{greedy}) \text{ will take all the things}$

$_{NP}(\text{The}_{Aj}^H \text{poor}) \text{ are deprived}$

iv) An Enumerator as head in NP

$_{NP}(\text{All}_{e}^H \text{twenty}) \text{ went away}$

$_{NP}(\text{Hundreds}_{e}^H) \text{ drowned}$

v) A Genitive Phrase (GP) as head in NP

$_{NP}(\text{John's}_{Gp}^H) \text{ is only the right choice}$

2) The Pre modifiers of an NP: The pre modifiers in an NP may be determines (d), enumerators (e), adjective (Aj), nouns (N), Genitive Phrases (GP), adverb (Av)

i) Determiner as pre modifiers of an NP:

$_{NP}(\text{this}_{d}^M \text{evening}_{N}^H)$

$_{NP}(\text{A}_{d}^M \text{university})$

ii) Enumerators as pre modifiers of an NP:

NP (M_e five apples)

NP (The M_e first girl)

iii) Adjective as pre modifiers of an NP

NP ($^M_{Aj}$ red mangoes)

NP ($^M_{Aj}$ Smart boys)

iv) Nouns as pre modifiers of an NP:

NP (M_N Silver H_N ring)

NP (M_N Science H_N College)

NP (M_N College H_N Building)

v) Genitive phrases as pre modifiers of an NP:

NP ($^M_{Gp}$ (Rama's) Book)

NP ($^M_{Gp}$ (Someone else's) money)

NP ($^M_{Gp}$ (Girl's) College)

vi) Adverbs as pre modifiers of an NP

NP ($^M_{Av}$ Quite a noise)

NP ($^M_{Av}$ very happy teacher)

3) The post modifiers of an NP: The post modifiers of an NP may be prepositional Phrases (PP), relative clauses (RCI), adverb (Av), Adjective (Aj) Noun Phrases in oppositions

i) Prepositional Phrases as post modifiers of an NP:

$_{NP}$ (The boys $_{PP}^M$ (in the class))

$_{NP}$ (The best day $_{PP}^M$ (of my life))

ii) Relative clauses as post modifiers of an NP:

$_{NP}$ (The girl $_{RCI}^M$ [Who is sitting])

$_{NP}$ (The computer $_{RCI}^M$ [which I brought])

$_{NP}$ (The peasants $_{RCling}^M$ [working in the field])

iii) Adverbs as post modifiers of an NP:

$_{NP}$ (The men $_{Av}^M$ (downstairs))

$_{NP}$ (The men $_{Av}^M$ (upstairs))

iv) Adjectives as post modifiers of an NP:

$_{NP}$ (Something $_{Aj}^M$ nasty)

$_{NP}$ (anything $_{Aj}^M$ serious)

$_{NP}$ (anyone $_{Aj}^M$ special)

v) Noun Phrases in opposition as post modifiers of an NP:

(Sachin $_{NP}^M$ (the chairman))

(Suresh $_{NP}^M$ (the cricketer))

4.2.3 The Prepositional Phrase (PP)

Function: Prepositional phrases function as adverbial (A) in a clause and they have various meanings like adverbial of time, place, manner, means and answer the question when, how, where etc.

Prepositional Phrase (PP) as Adverbial (A):

- 1) We arrived $\overset{A}{PP}$ (by train) = adverbial of means
- 2) We live $\overset{A}{PP}$ (in Peth Vadgaon) = adverbial of place
- 3) We go for a walk $\overset{A}{PP}$ (in the morning) = adverbial of time

Prepositional Phrase (PPs) also act as modifiers in NPs, AjPs, AvPs and PPs. In these phrases they are subordinate PPs.

1) PP as post modifiers in an NP

NP (The book $\overset{M}{PP}$ (on the table))

NP (The boys $\overset{M}{PP}$ (in the garden))

2) PP as Post modifier in an Ajp

She appears $\overset{A}{AjP}$ (Very beautiful $\overset{M}{PP}$ (in photos))

Exercise is $\overset{A}{AjP}$ (very good $\overset{M}{PP}$ (for helth))

3) PP as post modifier in AvP

The train arrived $\overset{A}{AvP}$ (early $\overset{M}{PP}$ (in the morning))

They always come $\overset{A}{AvP}$ (late $\overset{M}{PP}$ (to the college)

4) PP as Post modifier in another PP

They started shouting $\overset{A}{PP}$ (in the begining $\overset{M}{PP}$ (of the match))

The Marathas were defeated $\overset{A}{PP}$ (in the battle $\overset{M}{PP}$ (of Panipath))

Structure of PP:

PPs have exactly the same structure as NPs except that they are introduced by a preposition

i.e. PP= pNP

PP= p+NP

Normally prepositions are inseparable from the head and modifier which follow them, for example:

He is standing $\overset{A}{PP}$ (at $\overset{M}{d}$ (the $\overset{H}{N}$ gate)

They are working $\overset{A}{PP}$ (on $\overset{M}{d}$ the $\overset{H}{N}$ farm)

4.2.4. The Genitive Phrase (GP):

The term Genitive means possession. It expresses possession through possessive pronouns like me, mine, your, her, his etc.

Functions of GP: Genitive phrases function as modifiers (M) and Head (H) in NPs

GP as modifier in NPs:

$\overset{M}{NP} (\overset{GP}{(Ram 's)} book)$

$\overset{M}{NP} (\overset{GP}{(Her)} book)$

GP as Head in NPs

It is $\overset{H}{NP} (\overset{GP}{(theirs)})$

$\overset{M}{NP} (\overset{GP}{(Sita's)})$ is the only selection

The Structure of GP: GPs are just like NPs except that they end with the particle 's i.e.

GP= NP's

GP= NP+'s

$\overset{M}{NP} (\overset{GP}{((John Donne's)} \overset{H}{N} poems))$

GP= NP+'s

Some possessive pronouns function as GP but they do not end in 's e.g.

$\overset{M}{NP} (\overset{GP}{(My)} book)$

He took $\overset{M}{NP} (\overset{GP}{(mine)} \overset{H}{N} car)$

4.2.5 The Adjective Phrase (Ajp)

Functions of Adjective Phrase:

i) AjPs function as complement (C) in the clause for example:

This tea is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (very hot)

Grammar is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (very easy)

Seeta is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (very lovely)

ii) AjPs can function as pre modifiers in NPs

They constructed ${}^O_{NP}$ (M_d a ${}^M_{Ajp}$ (very huge) H_N house

He gave her ${}_{NP}$ (M_d a ${}^M_{Ajp}$ (very large) H_N slice)

Structure of Adjective Phrase (AjP):

The structure of AjP is exactly like the structure of an NP:

$AjP = \{M\}H\{M\}$

The head of an adjective Phrase is always an adjective. They May be simple adjectives like big, small, comparative adjectives like bigger, smaller and superlative adjectives like biggest, smallest. For example:

He is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (very ${}^H_{Aj}$ smart)

She appears ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (${}^H_{Aj}$ smarter)

Pre modifiers of AjPs are always adverbs:

He is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (Av Very ${}^H_{Aj}$ tall) = adverb as pre modifier

The water is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (${}^M_{Av}$ rather ${}^M_{Av}$ very ${}^H_{Aj}$ hot) = adverb as pre modifier

Post modifiers of AjPs can be either adverb (indeed, enough) or PPs for example:

He is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (${}^M_{Av}$ very ${}^H_{Aj}$ tall ${}^M_{Av}$ indeed) = adverb as post modifier

The room is ${}^C_{Ajp}$ (${}^M_{Av}$ nice ${}^M_{Av}$ enough) = adverb as post modifier

The question paper is ${}_{AjP} \left({}_{Av}^M \text{very} {}_{Aj}^H \text{easy} {}_{PP}^M (\text{for the girls}) \right)$ = PP as post modifier in AjP

The tea is ${}_{AjP} \left({}_{Av}^M \text{too} {}_{Aj}^H \text{hot} {}_{PP}^M (\text{for me to drink}) \right)$ = PP as post modifier in AjP

4.2.6 The Adverb Phrase (AvP)

Function of Adverb Phrase: AvPs function as Adverbial (A) in the clause. For example:

He works ${}_{AvP}^A$ (very rarely)

The early bus came ${}_{AvP}^A$ (very early)

He escaped from the accident ${}_{AvP}^A$ (luckily)

Structure of Adverb Phrase:

The structure of adverb phrase is like NPs. It has head and pre and post modifiers e.g

$$AvP = \{M\} H \{M\}$$

The head of an adverb phrase is always adverb for example:

He spoke ${}_{AvP}^A$ (${}_{Av}^H$ fast)

They disappeared ${}_{AvP}^A$ (${}_{Av}^H$ quietly)

Pre modifiers of an AvP are always adverbs for example:

The teacher spoke ${}_{AvP}^A$ (${}_{Av}^M$ very ${}_{Av}^H$ slowly)

The train went ${}_{AvP}^A$ (${}_{Av}^M$ too ${}_{Av}^H$ fast)

Post modifiers of an AvP can be adverbs, prepositional phrases, clauses, for example:

The girls walked ${}_{AvP}^A$ (${}_{Av}^H$ fast ${}_{Av}^H$ enough) = adverb as post modifier

They arrived ${}_{AvP}^A$ (very early ${}_{PP}^M$ (for the party)) = PP as post modifier in AvP

The rain filled the dam ${}_{AvP}^A$ (more quickly ${}_{PP}^M$ (than last year)) = PP as post modifier in AvP

They spoke ${}_{AvP}^A$ (very frankly ${}_{FSCl}^M$ [than they did before]) = finite clause as post modifier in AvP

4.2.7 The Verb Phrase (VP)

The function of Verb Phrase: The VPs always function as predicator (P) in the clause

They $\overset{P}{VP}(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ have } \overset{Aux}{V} \text{ been } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ studying})$

Mary $\overset{P}{VP}(\overset{Mv}{V} \text{ had})$ a little lamb

The farmers $\overset{P}{VP}(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ are } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ drawing})$ water

They $\overset{P}{VP}(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ may } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ think})$ about the problem

The branch $\overset{P}{VP}(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ had } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ shaken})$

Structure of verb Phrase: Verb phrase has important role in clauses, without VP there is no Clause. VP has two elements: The main verb (MV) and auxiliaries. The auxiliaries are optional and precede the main verb. The structure of VP is as follow:

{Aux} {Aux} {Aux} {Aux} Mv

The auxiliaries as mentioned earlier are optional and they are operator verbs. There can be maximum four auxiliaries preceding the main verb (Mv). Auxiliaries can be modal verbs (Mod), Perfective (Perf), Progressive (Prog) and Passive voice (Pass). Study the following examples.

i) I $(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ can } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ swim})$ = modal verb

ii) He $(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ has } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ finished})$ his work = perfective

iii) She $\overset{P}{VP}(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ is } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ writing})$ an article = progressive

iv) Mangoes $\overset{P}{VP}(\overset{Aux}{V} \text{ might } \overset{Aux}{V} \text{ have } \overset{Aux}{V} \text{ been } \overset{Mv}{V} \text{ eaten})$ by monkeys = passive voice

Auxiliaries in VP perform four functions. They are:

i) modality (Mod) e.g. might, may (came)

ii) Perfect aspect (Perf) e.g. have, has, had, (gone)

iii) Progression aspect (Prog) e.g. was going, are (coming)

iv) Passive voice (Pass). e.g. was (eaten), been (eaten), being (eaten)

The above functions can be shown in the following example:

A unit on phrases (^{Aux}_v may ^{Aux}_v have ^{Aux}_v been ^{Aux}_v being ^{MV}_v completed) by the teacher .

Forms of verb: There are various forms of the verb. The study of the various forms of verb will help you to understand verbs better.

Class	Symbol	Example
Full verb (Present)	Vo	write, study, think
Full verb present tense third person	Vs	writes, studies, goes
Full verb past Tense	Ved	went, studied, wrote
Progressive	Ving	going, writing
Perfective	Ven	gone, said, written
Passive	Ven	be+written
Modal	m	might, may, can
Primary verb	hv do be	has, have, had does am, is are, was, were

Types of Verb Phrase (VP): There are two types of verb phrase: Finite and non-finite verb phrase

i) Finite Verb Phrase: These are VPs where the tense is marked and there is 'subject-verb' agreement. The forms of finite verb are Vo, Vs, Ved, be+Ving, has/have+Ven, for example:

- i) They (go) to Kolhapur = Vo
- ii) She (gives) me a book = Vs
- iii) He (went) to Sangli = Ved
- iv) The boys (are playing) = be+Ving
- v) The girls have finished the work = have+ Ven

ii) Non-finite verb phrase: These are the VPs where the tense is unmarked and there is no 'Subject -verb' agreement. These VPs have three forms: Vi, Ving and Ven. Study the following examples:

- i) He knows how (to grow) carrots = infinite (Vi)
- ii) (Speaking) truth is a virtue = ING participle (Ving)
- iii) (Disguised) as girls the boys escaped = EN Participle (Ven)

In the above examples the tense is unmarked hence these are examples of non finite verb phrases.

4.2.8. Check your progress - II

- 1) Mention six classes of phrases
- 2) What are the functions of NP?
- 3) List the heads of NP.
- 4) Write down the pre modifiers of NP
- 5) Mention the post modifiers of NP
- 6) What are the functions of PP?
- 7) What is the structure of PP?
- 8) What is the function of AjP?
- 9) What is the structure of AjP?
- 10) What is the structure of GP?
- 11) Mention the function of GP
- 12) What is the function of AvP?
- 13) Give the structure of AvP
- 14) What is the pre modifier of AvP?
- 15) What is the function of VP?
- 16) What is the structure of VP?
- 17) Which are the two forms of VP?
- 18) What is finite verb phrase?
- 19) What is non-finite verb phrase?
- 20) Mention the three forms of non-finite verb phrase.

21) What is a subordinate phrase?

22) What is a main phrase?

4.3 Summary

Language is made up sentences and there is hierarchy in the construction of sentence. Sentence is the highest unit of language. Sentence is made up of a clause. The word is the lowest unit of language. Phrase is an intermediate unit between a word and a clause. The words that can be grouped together may be called phrases. Phrases function as elements of clause. These elements are S P O C A. The phrases are divided into two parts: 1) Main Phrase which is the direct element of a clause, 2) Subordinate Phrase which is not the direct element of a clause but an indirect element and it occurs in another phrase.

Classes of Phrases: There are six classes of Phrase. They are: 1) Noun Phrase (NP) 2) Prepositional Phrase (PP) 3) Genitive Phrase (GP) 4) Adjective Phrase (AjP) 5) Adverb Phrase (AvP), and 6) Verb Phrase VP

1) Noun Phrase (NP):

Function: S, O, C and A

Structure: {M} H {M}

The heads of NP: Noun (N), Pronoun (pn), Adjective (Aj), enumerator (e) and Genitive Phrase (GP)

Pre modifiers of NP: determiner (d), Adjective (Aj), Genitive Phrase (GP), enumerator (e), Adverb (A), Noun (N)

Post Modifiers of NP: Prepositional Phrase (PP), Relative clause (RCI), Adjective (Aj), Noun Phrase (NP,) Adjective Phrase (AjP)

2) Prepositional Phrase (PP):

Functions: Adverbial (A) in the clause and modifiers (M) in the phrase

Structure of PP : P+NP= PP

P+{M} H {M}

3) Genitive Phrase (GP)

Function: Modifier and Head in an NP

Structure: N+'S = book

4) Adjective Phrase (AjP)

Function: Complement in a clause and modifier (M) in a phrase

Structure: {M} H {M}

Head: Adjective (Aj)

Pre modifier: Adverb (Av)

Post modifier: Prepositional Phrase(PP), adverb (Av)

5) Adverb Phrase (AvP):

Function: Adverbial (A) in a clause

Structure: {M} H {M}

Pre modifiers: Always adverbs (A)

Post modifiers: Adverbs (Av), Prepositional Phrases (PP)

6) Verb Phrase VP:

Function: Predictor (P) in a clause

Structure: {Aux} {Aux} {Aux} {Aux} Mv

Aux= operator verb (v)

Mv= Main Verb

4.4 Terms to remember:

- 1) **Hierarchy:** order, sequence in the arrangement i.e. lowest and highest level, bottom and top etc.
- 2) **Classes:** types, kinds e.g. six types of phrases
- 3) **Word:** lowest grammatical unit of language
- 4) **Phrase:** logical grouping of words
- 5) **Clause:** containing VP and completing the meaning/sense
- 6) **Sentence:** beginning with a capital letter and ending with a punctuation marks like full stop (.), question mark (?), exclamatory mark (!) and completing meaning, sense

- 7) **Simple sentence:** a sentence containing a single clause
- 8) **Single clause:** contains only one predictor
- 9) **Round bracket:** bracket used for enclosing phrases ()
- 10) **Square bracket:** bracket used for enclosing clauses []
- 11) **Curly bracket:** bracket used for indicating optional elements { }
- 12) **Form labels:** labels given to identify class/ types of phrase or clause
- 13) **Function labels:** labels used for functions which phrases and clauses perform.
- 14) **Main Phrase:** direct element of a clause
- 15) **Subordinate Phrase:** indirect element of a clause, occurs in a phrase
- 16) **Pre modifier:** words occurring before the head
- 17) **Post modifier:** word/words/phrases occurring after the head.
- 18) **Head:** indispensable word in a phrase.
- 19) **Finite verb:** tense is marked
- 20) **Non- finite verb:** tense is unmarked.

4.5 Answers to check your progress.

I) check your progress - I (4.1.6)

- 1) Word
- 2) Phrase
- 3) Sentence
- 4) Round bracket ()
- 5) Square []
- 6) Round bracket and tree diagram
- 7) S, P, O, C, A
- 8) Direct element of a clause
- 9) Indirect element of a clause, occurs in a phrase
- 10) Six Phrases: Noun Phrases (NP), Prepositional Phrase (PP), Genitive Phrase (GP), Adjective Phrase (AjP), Adverb Phrase (AvP), and Verb Phrase (Vp)

II) Check your progress II (4.2.8)

- 1) NP, PP, GP, AjP, AvP, VP
- 2) S, O, C and A
- 3) Noun (N), enumerator (e), pronoun (pn), Adjective (Aj), Genitive Phrase (GP)
- 4) Determiner (d), enumerator (e), Adjective (Aj), noun (N), Genitive phrase (GP), Adverb (Av)
- 5) Prepositional Phrase (PP), Relative clause (RCl), adverbs (Av), Adjectives (Aj), Noun Phrases in opposition (NP)
- 6) Adverbial (A) in a clause and modifier (M) in a phrase.
- 7) PP = p+ NP
- 8) Complement in a clause and modifier (M) in a noun phrase (NP)
- 9) {M} H {M} adverb + Adjective + PP/Av
M H M
- 10) GP= NP+ 'S or possessive pronouns like mine, yours etc.
- 11) GP always functions as modifier (M) in an NP
- 12) AvP always Functions as Adverbial (A) in a clause
- 13) AVP= {M} H {M} adverb is the head and pre modifiers are another adverbs and post modifier are adverbs.
- 14) Adverb (Av) is the pre modifier of AvP
- 15) Predictor (P) is the function of VP
- 16) {Aux} {Aux} {Aux} Mv
- 17) Finite and non-finite are the two forms of VP
- 18) Tense is marked in finite verb phrase.
- 19) Tense is unmarked in non finite verb phrase
- 20) Vi, Ving and Ven are the three forms of non finite verb phrase.
- 21) Subordinate phrase is an indirect element of a clause, it occurs in a phrase.
- 22) Main phrase is the direct element of a clause.

4.6. Exercise

I. Write short notes on the following.

- 1) Main and subordinate phrases.
- 2) The heads of Noun Phrase (NP)
- 3) The pre modifiers of Noun Phrase (NP)
- 4) The post modifiers of Noun Phrases (NP)
- 5) The Genitive Phrase (GP)
- 6) The Prepositional Phrase (PP)
- 7) The Adjective Phrase (AjP)
- 8) The Adverb Phrase (AvP)
- 9) The Verb Phrase (VP)
- 10) The functions of NP
- 11) The structure of NP

II. Give form and function labels to the underlined phrases in the following sentences and also give form and function labels to their constituents.

- 1) The work could have been finished.
- 2) Ashok's was the only correct answer.
- 3) The plane went rather too quickly.
- 4) The water is extremely cold for me.
- 5) The captain was killed in the war.
- 6) It is rather very expensive.
- 7) They met me in the city.
- 8) He bought a golden ring for his spouse.
- 9) The house which she bought is beautiful.
- 10) This car is mine.
- 11) The train travels very slowly.
- 12) The class was very dirty.
- 13) She appears extremely lovely.
- 14) Lata's voice is sonorous

- 15) I work in the college library.
- 16) Sheela talks very fast.
- 17) Prof. Shinde is the best teacher in the college.
- 18) The girl who is in saree is my sister
- 19) The peon is suffering from cold
- 20) He sounded very nervous.
- 21) The election took place last month.
- 22) Bring me a glass of water.
- 23) My father is an engineer.
- 24) The house is very small.
- 25) They chose him their leader
- 26) She bought a beautiful pen for him

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Unit-5

Clauses

Contents

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5.0 Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to –

1. identify the elements of clause
2. understand different classes of clauses
3. give form and function labels to the elements of clause
4. distinguish between finite and non-finite clauses.

5.1 Introduction

In the previous unit we have studied phrases which are made up of words. Now, we shall try to study clause which is the higher order unit. First, we shall see the principal elements of clause. Then, we shall study basic clause patterns and its various classes.

5.2 Subject Matter – I

5.2.1 Elements of the clause

There are five basic elements of the clause. They are arranged as below on the basis of their significance in the clause structure.

Clause Elements	Label
1. Predicator	P
2. Subject	S
3. Object	O
4. Complement	C
5. Adverbial	A

These elements are illustrated in the following sentence.

[^S(Many teachers) ^P(are colouring) ^O(their cars) ^C(green) ^A(this year)].

All the five principal elements of the clause are used in the above sentence in a typical manner. The ordering of these elements is SPOCA. Let us try to study these elements in detail.

1. Predicator (P)

The predicator is always a verb phrase. In the clause, it normally occurs after the subject. There is an agreement or concord between subject and predicator in terms of number and person. The number concord and person concord are illustrated in the following examples:

[^S(The students) ^P(like notes)]. (plural S, plural P)

[^S(The teacher) ^P(likes lectures)]. (singular S, singular P)

2. Subject (S)

Typically, the subject occurs at the beginning of the clause. It is normally a noun phrase. A substitution test is used for replacing the phrase in the subject position by subject personal pronouns (I, we, he, she, they).

[^S(A girl) ^P(is dancing) ^A(on the stage)]. = Substitution : [^S(She) ^P(is dancing)
^A(on the stage)]

[^S(The parents) ^P(are watching) ^O(the show)] = Substitution : [^S(They) ^P(are
watching) ^O(the show)]

3. Object (O)

The object is closely related to the predicator as regards the meaning of the clause. It denotes the person or thing which is most affected by the action or state denoted by the predicator. The objects are of two types: direct object and indirect object.

[^S(Many children) ^P(like) ^O(biscuits)] = Direct Object

[^S(My father) ^P(bought) ^{O_i}(me) ^{O_d}(a new shirt)]. = me – Indirect Object
a new shirt- Direct Object

4. Complement (C)

The complement looks like the object (both can be NPs) in terms of structure but so far as meaning is concerned it characterizes subject or object. Therefore, there are two types of complement: subject complement and object complement.

[^S(Shakespeare) ^P(is) ^C(a dramatist)] = Subject Complement

[^S(They) ^P(called) ^O(him) ^C(a gentleman)] = Object Complement

5. Adverbials (A)

Adverbials add extra circumstantial information to the clause wherein they occur. They may provide information regarding the time, location or the speaker's attitude. They are so loosely tied to the clause structure that they can be moved to any place. Therefore, adverbials are mobile. Besides, there is no fixed number of them in a clause. The following clause has three adverbials:

[^A (Actually), ^S (he) ^P (attends) ^O (lectures) ^A (very rarely) ^A (these days)].

There are various types of adverbials based on the kind of meaning they convey:

[I keep my cell phone ^A (in the pocket)].	=	Adverbial of Place
[He threw a stone ^A (at him)].	=	Adverbial of Direction
[She goes for a walk ^A (in the evening)].	=	Adverbial of Time
[They were in England ^A (for many years)].	=	Adverbial of Duration
[I go to Mumbai ^A (once a month)].	=	Adverbial of Frequency
[She speaks English ^A (confidently)].	=	Adverbial of Manner
[The loan was sanctioned ^A (by the bank)].	=	Adverbial of Agency
[They went to Pune ^A (for a marriage ceremony)].	=	Adverbial of Goal
[He stood first ^A (because of his hard work)].	=	Adverbial of Reason
[^A (If you eat healthy) you will stay healthy].	=	Adverbial of Condition
[She is ^A (absolutely) fine now].	=	Adverbial of Degree
[^A (In fact), I am not angry with you].	=	Sentence Adverbial

5.2.2 Basic Clause Patterns

There are certain basic clause patterns in English. G. N. Leech et.al. have enlisted them as below:

1. [S P]: [I like].
2. [S P Od]: [I like tea].
3. [SP Oi]: [I like her].
4. [S P Oi Od]: [She gave me a pen].

5. [SPC]: [She is a teacher].
6. [SP Od C]: [I proved her wrong].
7. [SPA]: [I stay in the hostel].
8. [SPOdA]: [He put the bag in the car].

Check Your Progress

- i) What is a clause?
- ii) Which are the principal elements of the clause?
- iii) Which test is used to identify the phrase in the subject position?
- iv) Which are the two types of complement?
- v) Which element is mobile in the clause?

5.3 Subject Matter II

5.3.1 Classes of Clauses

So far as the main clauses are concerned, there are three major forms in English. They are: Declarative clause, Interrogative clause and Imperative clause. Let us study these three major forms.

5.3.1.1 Declarative clauses

It is generally used to make statements. It is the most basic form of the clause e.g.

Ram will dispatch the letters. [] Positive

Seeta will not run fast. [] Negative

5.3.1.2 Interrogative clauses

These are used to ask questions. They are of two types: YES-NO Interrogative and WH- Interrogative

YES-NO Interrogative is used for just a YES/NO answer. The finite verb carries the contrast between 'yes' and 'no'.

In forming YES-NO Interrogative the **finite operator** is placed in the prominent position before S in the clause e.g.

[Has^S (he) completed the homework?] (P=v...V)

[Hasn't^S (he) completed the homework?] (P=v...V)

If there is no operator, then the corresponding interrogative uses **dummy auxiliary do** followed by an infinitive.

[^S (He) _v booked my ticket]. (P =V)

[_v Did^S (he) _v book my ticket? (P =v...V)

WH- Interrogative

It asks about one of the clause elements *S*, *O*, *C* or *A* (and not *P*) using a WH-word:

WH- Determiners: *what*, *which*

WH- Pronouns: *who*, *who*, *whose*, *which*, *what*

WH-Adverbs: *where*, *when*, *why*, *how*

In WH-Interrogative, the finite operator is normally placed before Subject and WH-word is placed before the operator for the focus of attention.

[^O (What) _v did ^S(he) ^P(want)?]

[^A (Where) _v is ^S(he) ^P(going)?]

5.3.1.3 Imperative clauses

Unlike the declarative and interrogative clauses, the imperative has a non-finite predicator and no subject. Imperative clauses are used for request, order, command, instructions metc.

[^S (You) ^P (will go) to college today].

[^P (Go) to college today]. (the subject 'you' is implied and not written)

5.3.2 Active and Passive Clauses

The **active voice** is the basic and unmarked form of the clause.

[^S (She) ^P (ate) ^O (an apple)].

[^S (He) ^P (was doing) ^O (research)].

The **passive voice** is the more marked form of the clause. Here the subject is not

the 'doer' of the action but is affected by it.

[^S (An apple) ^P (was eaten) ^A (by her)].

[^S (Research) ^P (was being done) ^A (by him)].

It should be noted here that the Subject of the corresponding active becomes the Adverbial of Agency in passive and it is marked with the preposition *by*:

Check Your Progress

- i) Which is the most basic form of the clause?
- ii) Which is the more marked form of the clause?
- iii) What is the function of declarative clauses?
- iv) Which are the two types of interrogative clauses?
- v) What is the function of imperative clauses?

Subject Matter - III

5.3.3 Complex Sentences

So far we have studied simple sentences which consist of a single main clause (MCI). The main clause can stand alone as a complete sentence.

_{se} MCI [I will learn English] .

However, most of the times we come across complex sentences, i.e. sentences which have more than one clause in them. The additional clauses can be joined in two ways: coordination and subordination. Through coordination we can link two or more clauses of equal status.

_{se} MCI [You will complete my project] and _{MCI} [I will complete yours] .

The subordinate clause does not have independent meaning. Hence, it is linked to the main clause as its element:

{se} MCI [^A{SCI} [If you complete my project] ^S_{NP} (I) ^P_{VP} (will complete)
^O_{NP} (yours)] .

Otherwise, it is used as a post modifier (M) in a phrase within a clause:

_{se} MCI [(The _N^H friend _{SCI}^M[whose project I complete]) should complete mine] .

5.3.4 Finite and non-finite clauses

In the previous unit, we have studied finite verb phrases. As we know, finite verb phrases have a finite verb which shows tense (past or present) and subject concord (for person and number). It is either the operator (the first auxiliary verb in the VP) or the main verb if there is no operator. On the other hand, the non-finite verbs do not show any tense and subject concord. They are Vi, Ving or Ven. Modal verbs do not have finite forms. The examples of finite and non-finite verbs are shown in the table below:

FINITE VP	Structure	NON-FINITE VP	Structure
studied	Mv Ved	studying	Mv Ving
will study	Aux Mv m Vi	to study	Mv to Vi
is studied	Aux Mv Vs Ven	be studied	Aux Mv Vi Ven
have been studying	Aux Aux Mv Vo Ven Ving	Having been studied	Aux Aux Mv Ving Ven Ven

The clauses that we have studied so far had the finite VP. Hence, they are called the finite clauses. But there are also non-finite clauses in which VP is non-finite. The examples of finite and non-finite clause are as follows:

[It would be nice _{SCI} [if you ^P_{VP} (^{Mv}_{Ved} conveyed) the message]]. [**finite** SCI].

[It would be nice _{SCI} [for you ^P_{VP} (^{Mv}_{Vi} to convey) the message]]. [**non-finite** SCI].

[_{SCI} [That boy ^P_{VP} (^{Mv}_{Vs} has grey hair] is surprising]]. [**finite** SCI].

[_{SCI} [That boy ^P_{VP} (^{Mv}_{Ving} having grey hair] is surprising]]. [**non-finite** SCI].

Check Your Progress

State whether the following statements are true or false.

- i) A complex sentence is made up of a single clause.
- ii) In coordination, clauses are linked as the units of equal status.
- iii) Subordinate clause can stand alone as a complete sentence.
- iv) The non-finite clause has no subject.
- v) Finite clause does not have a finite VP.
- vi) Finite verb phrases contain a finite verb which shows 'tense' and subject concord.

Let Us Sum Up:

Clause is a higher rank unit than a phrase and lower rank unit than a sentence. A sentence is made up of one or more clauses. There are five principal elements of the clause: Subject (S), Predicator (P), Object (O), Complement (C), and Adverbial (A). The basic clause patterns are based on the combination of these elements. There are three classes of clauses: Declarative clauses, Interrogative clauses and Imperative clauses. Also, there are Active and Passive clauses. Active voice is the basic, unmarked form of the clause and passive voice is the more marked form of the clause. There are two ways in which additional clauses can occur in a complex sentence: subordination and coordination. In subordination the clauses which are joined are not of the same rank. On the other hand, the clauses which are joined by way of coordination have the same status.

Terms to Remember:

1. **Concord:** agreement between subject and Predicator
2. **Substitution test:** replacement test
3. **Finite Clause:** A clause which has a finite verb showing 'tense' and subject concord
4. **Non-finite Clause:** A clause in which Predicator is non-finite VP
5. **Declarative Mood:** A mood which is used to make statements.
6. **Interrogative Mood:** A mood which is used to ask questions

7. **Imperative Mood:** A mood which is used to give orders, commands or make requests.
8. **Subordination:** Joining of two or more clauses by subordinating conjunctions like *if, because, so though*.
9. **Coordination:** Joining of two or more clauses by coordinating conjunction like *and, but, or*.
10. **Operator Verb:** first auxiliary verb in the VP

Answers to Check Your Progress

I) Subject Matter- I

- i) A clause is a higher rank unit made up of phrases.
- ii) Predicator, Subject, Object, Complement and Adverbial are the principal elements of the clause.
- iii) Substitution test is used to identify the phrase in the subject position?
- iv) Subject Complement and Object Complement are the two types of complement.
- v) Adverbial is the mobile element in the clause.

II) Subject Matter- II

- i) Declarative clause is the most basic form of the clause.
- ii) Passive voice is the more marked form of the clause?
- iii) The function of declarative clauses is to make statements.
- iv) YES/NO and WH- Interrogatives are the two types of interrogative clauses.
- v) The function of imperative clauses is to give orders or make requests.

III) Subject Matter- III

State whether the following statements are true or false.

- i) False
- ii) True
- iii) False

- iv) True
- v) False
- vi) True

Exercises

I) Identify the clause elements in the following sentences in terms of S, P, O, C, A:

1. The mangoes are costly for common people.
2. She teaches English.
3. He purchased a new car yesterday.
4. They elected him the chairman of the board.
5. I wrote a novel
6. The mother gave her daughter a ring.
7. He is a gentleman.
8. The train arrived late.
9. The child put the toy in the box.
10. They like Hindi songs.

II) Write short notes on the following:

- i) Basic Elements of the Clause
- ii) Finite and Non-finite Clauses
- iii) Declarative and Interrogative Clauses
- iv) Imperative Clauses
- v) Active and Passive Clauses
- vi) Basic Clause Patterns
- vii) Complex Sentences

References for Further Study

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Unit-6

Subordination and Coordination

Contents

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Complex Sentences
- 6.3 Subject Matter I
- 6.4 Types of Subordinate Clauses
- 6.5 Non-finite Subordinate Clauses
- 6.6 Check Your Progress-I
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- 6.8 Check Your Progress-II
- 6.9 Summary
- 6.10 Terms to remember
- 6.11 Answers to check your progress
- 6.12 Exercise
- 6.13 References

6.0 Objectives:

After studying this unit you will be able to:

- i. Understand the structure of complex sentences.
- ii. Explain the form and functions of subordinate clauses.
- iii. Find relationship between subordination and coordination.

6.1 Introduction:

After discussion on the grammatical unit 'clause' let us discuss the highest unit on the grammatical rank scale i.e. sentence.

Sentence

Clause

Phrase

Word

As you know at the bottom of this scale there is a 'word' .Words are brought together into phrases and phrases are brought together into clauses. Though the sentence is above the level of clauses, one cannot say that sentences are always made of clauses. A single clause can make a sentence and sometimes a sentence may be made of two or more than two clauses. In this unit we are going to study complex sentences

6.2 Complex Sentence:

What is a Sentence?

Sentence cannot be defined. The sentence does not have the structure like that of lower units. Sentence is the largest stretch of language. It can be recognized by signals like full stop, question mark or exclamatory mark.

Types of sentences:

Sentences are classified in two different ways.

1. On the basis of meaning:
 - i) Declarative sentence: A statement – I am a student
 - ii) Interrogative sentence: A question – Are you a student?
 - iii) Imperative Sentence: An order or a request – Stand up.
 - iv) Exclamatory sentence: An exclamation – What a student!
2. On the basis of form: In traditional grammar sentences are classified into three types
 - i) Simple sentence: If a sentence is made of a single clause it is called a simple sentence. For example- I am a student.
 - ii) Compound sentence: If a sentence is made up of two or more than two main clauses it is called a compound sentence. For example- I like cricket and I like football but I do not like tennis.

- iii) **Complex sentence:** If a sentence is made up of one main clause and one or more than one subordinate clauses it is called a complex sentence. For example- I do not like tennis because it is very expensive.

But Geoffrey Leech et.al and others have classified the sentences into two types.

- i) Simple sentence
- ii) Complex sentence

They have included compound sentence into complex sentence. According to them in complex sentence clauses may be related to one another by subordination or by coordination. In traditional grammar coordination was related to the compound sentence.

6.3 Subject Matter I

Subordination: To understand the concept of subordination we should understand the concepts of main clause, subordinate clause and coordinate clause.

Main clause: It is also called an independent clause because it does not depend on another clause for its existence.

Coordinate clause: One independent clause is joined with another independent clause.

Subordinate clause: It is always a part of another clause.

Let us get these concepts clarified with examples.

[You ask me a question]. [I will answer]- Two simple sentences

[_{MCI} You ask me a question] and [_{MCI} I will answer].- A sentence with coordination consisting of two main clauses.

A skeleton analysis of [_{MCI} You ask me a question] and [_{MCI} I will answer]is:

Se

Main clause	cj	Main clause
You ask me a question and		I will answer

[[If you ask me a question] I will answer]- A sentence with subordination
MCI SCI
consisting of one main clause and a subordinate clause within it.

A skeleton analysis of [[If you ask me a question] I will answer] is:
MCI SCI

Se

Main clause

Subordinate clause

cj	S	P	IO	DO		S	P
	If	you	ask	me a question		I	will answer

We shall deal with subordinate clauses first.

Structure of Subordinate clause:

In their internal structure subordinate clauses are divisible into the clause elements such as subject, predicate, object, complement and adverbial (S,P,O,C,A).

S	P	C
[[What this country needs]	(is)	(a stable government)]
NCI	VP	AjP

In this sentence subordinate clause is the subject of the main clause. The subordinate clause itself is divisible into S, P and O

S	O	S	P
[(What)	(this country)	(needs)]	
NCI	NP	NP	VP

In addition subordinate clauses normally have some markers to indicate their subordinate status. There are three types of markings:

1. A subordinating conjunction: if, because, though, so, although, that, when.

Example: [[If she wears blue saree,] she will look beautiful].
MCI SCI

2. A WH- word or phrase: what, who, how, which, whoever, whichever, whatever.

(Phrase-Which book, what problem)

Example: [She looks beautiful [whatever she wears]]
MCI SCI

3. A non finite predicator: As mentioned in the last chapter : -Vi, Ving or Ven appear as first verb of their predicator

Example: [She looks beautiful [wearing blue saree]]
MCI SCI

A subordinating conjunction and a WH- word occur at the beginning of the subordinate clause. There can be overlap between them. What distinguishes wh-word from subordinating conjunction is that it is one of the major elements of that clause.

[[If she wears blue saree,] she will look beautiful]. Here 'if' is a conjunction
MCI SCI

[She looks beautiful [whatever she wears]] Here 'whatever' is an object.
MCI SCI

Types of Subordinate Clauses:

- i) Noun Clause NCI
- ii) Adverbial clause ACI
- iii) Relative clause RCI
- iv) Comparative clause CCI
- v) Prepositional clause PCI

In the earlier chapter while studying complex sentences you came across Finite clause and Nonfinite clause. All the clauses mentioned above can be further divided into finite and nonfinite clause.

Finite Subordinate Clauses:

- 1) **Noun Clause (NCI) :** It is also called a nominal clause. There are three types of NCI:

- i) That clause
- ii) Zero that clause

iii) WH- clause

That clause: The clause which begins with ‘that’ is called ‘that’ nominal clause. It can function as subject, object or complement in the main clause or modifier in a phrase..

[[That ghost exists] is a myth].
MCI NCI S

[I do not think [that ghost exists]].
MCI NCI O

[A myth is [that ghost exists]].
MCI NCI C

[You should know (the fact [that the ghost does not exist])].
MCI NP O M NCI

Zero that clause: It is just like ‘that’ clause. If you use that clause without ‘that’ it is called zero that clause. It means ‘that’ is omitted. You can insert conjunction ‘that’ at the beginning of the noun clause.

[She said, [“The ghost does not exist”]].
MCI NCI O

[He told her [the ghost does not exist]].
MCI NCI Do

WH- clause: It begins with WH element. It can function as subject, object or complement in the main clause.

[[Who stole the diamond] is a mystery].
MCI NCI S

[He asked me [who stole the diamond]].
MCI NCI Do

[Students always ask me [how I teach literature]].
MCI NCI Do

[The problem is [who will bell the cat]].
MCI NCI C

2) Adverbial clauses (ACL) : Adverb clauses are like adverb phrases. Like adverbs you can get adverbial clauses by asking questions – when, where, why, how. Like

adverb phrase Adverbial clause always functions as an adverbial. Like adverb phrase it never functions as subject, object or complement. Adverb phrase can occur as modifier in a phrase but adverbial clause can never occur as a modifier in any phrase.

Types of Adverbial clause:

i. Adverbial clause of place: Normally they begin with where and wherever.

[^A [Wherever you go] you will find corruption].
MCI ACI

[They went [^A where they could find work]].
MCI ACI

ii. Adverbial clause of time: Normally it begins with- when, before, after, while, until, since, whenever

[^A [When he came], I was in the study room].
MCI ACI

[He left the place [^A before I came]].
MCI ACI

[He left the place [^A after I left]].
MCI ACI

[^A [While I was reading] my friend came in].
MCI ACI

[You should wait [^A until I come]].
MCI ACI

[^A [Since he returned from the U.S.A.] he is completely changed].
MCI ACI

[^A [Whenever I get spare time], I visit Orphanages].
MCI ACI

iii. Adverbial clause of manner: Normally it begins with – as if,

[He talked to me, [^A as if I was the stranger]].
MCI ACI

iv. Adverbial clause of reason: Normally it begins with- because, as, since

[I could not go to college, [because I was ill]].
MCI ACI

[[As I was ill], I could not go to college]
MCI ACI

[[Since I was ill,] I could not go to college].
MCI ACI

v. Adverbial clause of condition: Normally it begins with- if, unless

[[If you study hard], you will get first class].
MCI ACI

[[Unless you study hard], you will not get first class].
MCI ACI

vi. Adverbial clause of contrast: Normally it begins with- though, although

[[Though she is poor], she is happy].
MCI ACI

[[Although he is rich], he is not happy].
MCI ACI

Not all the meanings of adverb are considered in this classification. The adverb of frequency and duration are brought under one category of adverbial clause of time. The types given above may overlap due to the use of conjunctions. A conjunction 'as' has a number of different meanings. Similarly since can express time or reason. For example,

[[Since I lost my glasses yesterday], I have not been able to do any work].
MCI ACI

The sentence is ambiguous because the conjunction 'since' expresses both time and reason

3) Relative clauses (RCI): A clause which begins with a relative pronoun is called a relative clause. As you know who, whom, whose, which and that are relative

pronouns. These pronouns relate a clause to the word so they are called relative pronouns. This word is normally a noun or a pronoun. For example:

[^S (The boy [^M who sang a song]) is my brother]. In this sentence a
MCI NP RCI

pronoun ‘who’ is related to the noun ‘boy’. This sentence is made of two sentences: The boy sang a song and The boy is my brother. The relative pronoun is used to avoid the repetition of ‘the boy’.

[Do you know (anyone [^M who can lend me his computer])]. Here
MCI NP RCI

pronoun is related to a pronoun ‘anyone.’

‘Who’ and ‘whom’ are related to human beings and higher animals whereas ‘which’ is related to non living things and lower things such as birds and insects etc. and ‘that’ can be used for both living and non living things.

[(The girl [^M who/that is in blue dress]) looks very beautiful].
MCI NP RCI

[(The stranger [^M whom/that you met yesterday]) turned out a spy].
MCI NP RCI

[This is (the house [^M that/which Jack built])].
MCI NP RCI

That noun clause and that relative clause: Like noun clause relative clause can also begin with ‘that’. The word ‘that’ in a relative clause is different from ‘that’ in a noun clause. It functions as subject or object in a relative clause. In noun clause it is a conjunction. For example:

[(The report [^M that his wife ran away]) is not true] - Noun clause with
MCI NP NCI
conjunction ‘that’

[_{MCI} [_{NP} ^S (The report [_{RCI} ^M that his wife wrote]) is not true]. - Relative clause with object 'that'.

If you get confused with identification of a clause the simplest way to recognize the relative clause is to replace 'that' by 'which'. If you can replace it by another relative pronoun 'who' / 'which' it is a relative clause. If you cannot, it is called a noun clause. If you can insert auxiliary 'is/was' between the head of the noun phrase and the word 'that', it is called a noun clause.

You can say 'The report is his wife ran away' but you cannot say 'the report which his wife ran away'. You can say 'The report which his wife wrote' but you cannot say 'The report is his wife wrote'. The following sentence is ambiguous because it can be interpreted in two different ways. You can replace 'that' by 'which' but you can also use insert auxiliary between the head of the noun phrase and the word 'that'

[_{MCI} He received (_{NP} ^O a message [_{RCI/NCI} ^M that she had left him])].

Here 'that' clause can be called a relative clause if you want to say that she had left a message for him. It can be called a noun clause if you want to say that the message is that she had left him.

Relative clause with relative adverb: Relative clauses begin with relative pronouns such as who, whom, whose which and that. You know when, why, where and how are adverbs. Sometimes some of these adverbs function as relative pronouns, so they are called relative adverbs.

[_{MCI} I remember (_{NP} ^O the house [_{RCI} ^M where I spent my childhood])].

[_{MCI} I forgot (_{NP} ^O the year [_{RCI} ^M when Gandhiji was born])].

The relative adverb can be omitted in zero relative clause.

[_{MCI} I forgot (_{NP} ^O the year [_{RCI} ^M Gandhiji was born])].

Further possibility is the use of prepositional phrase in place of a single pronoun.

[I forgot (the year [in which Gandhiji was born])]

MCI O M
 NP RCI

[I remember (the friends [with whom I spent my childhood])].

MCI O M
 NP RCI

In other possibility in both these examples we can omit the pronouns and prepositions can be shifted at the end of the clause.

[I forgot (the year [Gandhiji was born in])].

MCI O M
 NP RCI

[I remember (the friends [I spent my childhood with])].

MCI O M
 NP RCI

Even this does not exhaust the structural variations on the sentences like these. So let us go to the next type of clause.

4) Comparative clauses (CCI): Like relative clause comparative clause always occurs in a phrase. It is always a post modifier in a clause. It can occur in a noun phrase, an adjective phrase or an adverb phrase as post modifiers.

Comparative clauses are easy to identify because they have a typical markers.

More.....than, less.....than, (big)er.....than,

as.....as, so.....as, so....that

[We eat (more food [than we can grow])] CCL in NP

MCI O M
 NP CCI

[He got (less amount [than he expected])]. CCL in NP

MCI O M
 NP CCI

[She is (more beautiful [than her sister was at this age])]. CCL in AjP

MCI C M
 AjP CCI

[I found (the building (bigger [than I thought]))]. CCL in AjP

MCI O M M
 NP AjP CCI

[_{MCI} You must have been working (^A harder [_{CCI} than your boss expected])]. CCL
in AvP

[_{MCI} He ran (^A as quickly [_{CCI} as she could possibly run])]CCL in AvP

[_{MCI} She is not (^C so stupid [_{CCI} as some people think])]. CCL in AjP

[_{MCI} The tea was (^C so hot [_{CCI} that I could not drink])]. CCL in AjP

If you see the structure you will find that they have typical premodifiers in phrases in which they occur such as more, less, as and so and all of them begin with conjunctions such as than, as and that.

5) Prepositional clauses (PCI): If a noun phrase begins with Preposition it is called a prepositional phrase. P + NP = PP. For example: (in the garden)

If a noun clause begins with a preposition it is called a prepositional clause.

P + NCl = PCI. For example: [The thief was surprised [at what he saw]]

Like prepositional phrase PCI can function as modifier in a noun phrase and Adverbial in a clause.

[_{MCI} We have (^O little evidence [_{PCI} of who committed the murder])]. PCI is
modifier in a noun phrase.

In the following example PCI is functioning as a modifier in an adjective phrase. This is a very rare example.

[_{MCI} Our team is (^C ready [_{PCI} for whatever our opponents may do])]. PCI is
modifier in an adjective phrase.

[_{MCI} The police were wondered [_{PCI} ^A at what they saw in the hotel]]. PCI is an adverbial in a clause.

Prepositional clauses are rare and they occur as Adverbials only in WH- noun clauses.

[_{MCI} She was not interested [_{PCI} ^A in what other people say about her]].

6.5 Non-finite subordinate clauses: In the last chapter you have already learned the concept of ‘finite and non-finite clause’. You know that the clause with a non finite verb is called a non finite clause. Remember non finite verb can occur only in the subordinate clause. It cannot exist without a finite verb. Similarly non-finite clause cannot occur without a finite clause. It is of three types:

- i. Infinitive clause (Cli): If a verb is used with ‘to’ in a clause it is called a non-finite clause. For example:

[_{MCI} I want [_{NCl_i} ^O to know the truth]].

- ii. –ING clause (Cling): If a verb+ ing is used without auxiliary it is called a non finite clause because without auxiliary verb + ing cannot indicate tense. For example:

[_{MCI} [_{ACling} ^A Running down the street], she caught the bus].

- iii. –EN clause (Clen): If past participle of a verb is used without auxiliary it is called a non finite clause because without auxiliary past participle of the verb cannot indicate tense. This happens only in the passive clause. For example:

[_{MCI} (_{NP} ^S The information [_{RClen} ^M given to us]) is not correct].

Characteristics of non-finite clause:

- It occurs only in a subordinate clause.
- A clause with 'to + verb' is always a non-finite clause.
- It depends on another clause for its tense.
- It is normally without a subject.
- If it has a subject it is in abnormal form. Prepositional phrase can be the subject of it. For example:

$$\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left[\left(\text{The best car} \right. \right. \\ \text{MCI NP} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} M \quad S \\ \left. \left. \left[\left(\text{for you} \right) \text{to buy} \right] \right) \right] \text{ is Maruti}]. \\ \text{RCli PP} \end{array}$$

In the following sentence the pronoun 'he' in the form of object is the subject of the non-finite clause.

$$\begin{array}{c} O \quad O \\ \left[\text{We saw} \right. \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \left[\left(\text{him} \right) \text{being beaten by the gang} \right]]. \\ \text{NCling NP} \end{array}$$

Let us see the examples of non-finite clauses.

1) Non-finite Noun clauses (NFNCI):

A. Infinitive Noun clauses (NCl_i):

$$\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left[\left[\text{To collect the stamps} \right] \text{ is his hobby} \right]. \\ \text{MCI NCl}_i \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Do} \quad \text{P} \quad \quad \quad \text{O} \quad \quad \quad \text{A} \\ \left[\text{She asked her husband} \right. \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \left[\left(\text{to sing} \right) \left(\text{a song} \right) \left(\text{in the concert} \right) \right]]. \\ \text{NCl}_i \text{ VP} \quad \quad \quad \text{NP} \quad \quad \quad \text{PP} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} O \quad S \quad \quad \quad \text{P} \\ \left[\text{The teacher wanted} \right. \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \left[\left(\text{him} \right) \left(\text{to go} \right) \right]]. \\ \text{NCl}_i \text{ NP} \quad \quad \quad \text{VP} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Do} \quad \text{P} \\ \left[\text{The principal asked him} \right. \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \left[\left(\text{to go} \right) \right]]. \\ \text{NCl}_i \text{ VP} \end{array}$$

B. – ING Noun clauses (NCling):

[MCI [^S Seeing a ghost in your bed room] is a serious thing].

[MCI [^S Seeing] is [believing]].

[MCI [^S Telling lies] is not good].

[MCI We saw [^O him being beaten by the teacher]]

C. – EN Noun clauses (NClen): Noun clause cannot be used in this form.

2) Non-finite Adverbial Clauses (NFACl):

A. Infinitive Adverbial clause (ACli)

[MCI People work overtime [^A in order to earn extra money]].

[MCI [^A To earn extra money] people work overtime].

[MCI He went abroad [^A to make his fortune]].

You can insert conjunction ‘in order to’ before the infinitive in all these non finite adverbial clauses.

B. – ING Adverbial clause (ACling)

[MCI [^A Leaving the gate opened], he rushed to the road].

[MCI [^A Not knowing Hitler’s intention], Russia signed the agreement] .

C. - EN Adverbial clause (AClen)

[[^A The job finished], they left the room].
MCl AClen

[[^A Operation completed], the hijackers were punished].
MCl AClen

[[^A Exhausted], he resigned the job].
MCl AClen

[[^A With the tree grown tall], we get more shed].
MCl AClen

3) Non-finite Relative clause (NFRCL):

A. Infinitive Relative clause (Rcli):

[An actress is not (a girl [^O to marry with])].
MCl NP Rcli

[(The best way [^S to get first class]) is to work hard].
MCl NP Rcli

B. – ING Relative clause (RCling):

[I visited (the workers [^O working in the factory])].
MCl NP RCling

[(The girl [^S singing in the concert]) is my sister].
MCl NP RCling

C. - EN Relative clause (RClen):

[I read (a book [^O written by Shakespeare])].
MCl NP RClen

[(The information [^S given to us]) is not important].
MCl NP RClen

4) **Non finite comparative clause:** Non finite comparative clauses are rare.

A. **Infinitive Relative clause (CCLI):**

[She is ^A (more likely to act ^M [than to think])]
MCI AvP CCLI

B. **-ING Relative clause (CCling):**

[She is ^C (better at sleeping ^M [than doing a jog])].
MCI AjP CCling

5) **Non finite prepositional clause:** If non finite comparative clauses are rare, non finite prepositional clauses are rarer. Only the – ING clause occurs in this category.

[They escaped ^M [by climbing through the window]].
MCI PCling

6.6 Check your progress I

A. **Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence:**

- i) What are the two types of sentences according to Leech?
- ii) How many clauses make a simple sentence?
- iii) Name some of the subordinating conjunctions.
- iv) Name the relative pronouns used in relative clauses.
- v) Name the relative adverbs.
- vi) Which WH questions are asked to get Adverbial clauses?
- vii) Give the markers of comparative clauses.
- viii) Can you use nonfinite verb in a main clause?
- ix) What are the three types of non-finite clauses?
- x) Does the verb indicate tense in non finite clause?

B. **Identify the finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels:**

- i) The man who killed the tiger is arrested.

- ii) I don't know who killed the snake.
- iii) The question is who will bell the cat.
- iv) If you work hard, you will succeed.
- v) He came late, so he missed the bus.
- vi) I don't remember the day when I proposed her.
- vii) She could not answer the question that her husband asked.
- viii) That you got the first class is unbelievable.
- ix) I lost the book which you lent me yesterday.
- x) She doesn't look as beautiful as she said

C. Identify the non finite subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences as Cli, Cling, Clen and give them function labels such as S, O, A, M

- i) I regret [speaking to you so rudely].
- ii) I saw [Australia beaten by India] last Sunday.
- iii) I am very sorry [to have caused you offence]
- iv) [For Max to pay his bills in time] is really surprising
- v) I have several important things [to say to her].
- vi) [Always haunted by the guilty memories], he committed suicide.
- vii) I want [him to go]
- viii) I asked him [to go]
- ix) The book [written by an Indian writer] is never easy to understand.
- x) [Living in slum], she brought up her children.

D. Identify the non finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels

- i) She does not know where to go.
- ii) Getting their friend justice is a mission for them.
- iii) Operation completed the soldiers left.

- iv) The man sitting under the tree is a farmer.
- v) To study for examination is a horrible thing
- vi) The question where to go was very difficult.
- vii) Sunil knows how to repair a watch..
- viii) The Monsoon is about to begin soon.
- ix) Tired, she walked out of the factory
- x) The best book for you to buy is Savitry.

E. Give the form and function labels to the finite and non finite subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences.

- i) [Unless you know the truth], you should not react.
- ii) They told him [to resign the job].
- iii) [Working in the field without knowledge] is very dangerous.
- iv) I like the songs [sung by Kishor kumar].
- v) [Heavily disguised], he escaped from the prison.
- vi) The students [who pass with special English], get lucrative jobs.
- vii) [Why did he kill his wife] is still a mystery.
- viii) Indian books are more difficult [than we think].
- ix) The building [which was under construction] collapsed yesterday.
- x) [As he was poor], he could not buy a car.

6.7 Subject Matter II

Direct and Indirect subordination: When we study the rank scale of grammatical units we assume that phrases are made of words, clauses are made of phrases and sentences are made of clauses. It means the unit on the lower scale is a part of the unit on the upper scale. But it need not be so. A unit can be an element of another unit of the same rank.

A word can be a part of the word. In compound words one word is a part of another word. For example-tea-pot, black-board, dining –table etc.

A phrase can be the part of another phrase. For example,

(The book (on history (of India))) .
 NP PP PP

Here prepositional phrase is the part of a prepositional phrase and together they are part of a noun phrase.

A clause can be the part of another clause. A subordinate clause can be Subject, Complement, Object or Adverbial of the main clause. For example:

$\left[\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left[\text{That earth moves round the sun} \right] \text{ is true} \right]$ = Subject
 MCI NCI

$\left[\text{The truth is } \begin{array}{c} C \\ \left[\text{that earth moves round the sun} \right] \right]$ = Complement
 MCI NCI

$\left[\text{Everybody knows } \begin{array}{c} O \\ \left[\text{that earth moves round the sun} \right] \right]$ = Object
 MCI NCI

$\left[\begin{array}{c} A \\ \left[\text{Wherever she went} \right], \text{ she found corruption} \right]$ = Adverbial
 MCI ACI

We also find that a higher unit is a part of a lower unit. A phrase can be a part of a word. For example in a word ‘mother in-law’ a prepositional phrase ‘in-law’ is the part of a word ‘mother (in-law)’. Some other examples are ‘Lilies (of-the -valley)’ and ‘master(at arms)’. A clause can be a part of a phrase. A relative clause is always a part of a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase. A comparative clause is also part of an adjective phrase, a noun phrase or an adverb phrase. For example:

$\left[\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left(\text{A girl } \begin{array}{c} M \\ \left[\text{who is singing in the street} \right] \right) \text{ is a beggar} \right]$. = A relative clause in a
 MCI NP RCI
 noun phrase

$\left[\text{In this country, we eat } \begin{array}{c} O \\ \left(\text{more food } \begin{array}{c} M \\ \left[\text{than we can grow} \right] \right) \right]$ = A comparative
 MCI NP CCI
 clause in a noun phrase.

If a unit is an element of a higher unit or an element of another unit of the same rank it is called a **Direct Subordination**.

If a unit is an element of a lower unit, it is called an **Indirect Subordination**.

We can say that Relative Clause and Comparative Clause are the examples of indirect subordination because they always occur in phrases as modifiers.

This is $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{C} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \text{ the house } \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{M} \\ \text{RCI} \end{array} \text{ that Jack built} \right] \right)$

Here a relative clause occurs as a modifier in a Noun phrase.

She is $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{C} \\ \text{AjP} \end{array} \text{ more beautiful } \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{M} \\ \text{CCI} \end{array} \text{ than any other girl is} \right] \right)$

Here a comparative clause occurs as a modifier in an adjective phrase..

When Noun Clause occurs in other clauses as subject, object or complement they are examples of Direct Subordination.

$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{NCI} \end{array} \text{ Who stole the diamond} \right]$ is a mystery.

Here Noun Clause is a subject.

I don't know $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \text{NCI} \end{array} \text{ Who stole the diamond} \right]$

Here Noun Clause is an object.

The question is $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{C} \\ \text{NCI} \end{array} \text{ who stole the diamond} \right]$.

Here Noun Clause is a complement.

When Noun Clause occurs in a phrase as a modifier it is an example of Indirect Subordination.

$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{MCI NP} \end{array} \left(\text{The report } \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{M} \\ \text{NCI} \end{array} \text{ that his wife ran away} \right] \right) \right]$ is true]

Here Noun clause is a modifier in a noun phrase so it is an example of Indirect subordination.

Prepositional clause normally occurs as an adverbial in the main clause so mostly it is direct subordination.

The butler was astonished $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{A} \\ \text{PCI} \end{array} \right]$ at what he saw]. Here PCL is an adverbial.

$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{MCI} \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \right]$ We have $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \right)$ little evidence $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{M} \\ \text{PCI} \end{array} \right]$ of who committed murder]).

Here PCL is a modifier in a noun phrase.

Adverbial clause is always direct subordination because it never occurs in a phrase. It always functions as an adverbial in a main clause.

$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{MCI} \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \right]$ $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{A} \\ \text{ACI} \end{array} \right]$ While I was teaching] the students were talking].

Co ordination: Like subordination coordination is a way of making a sentence complex. Coordination can bring together words, phrases or clauses in a sentence. Mostly they are combined with the coordinating conjunctions like ‘and’, ‘but’ or ‘or’.

She is bold and beautiful.- two words

I had a cup of coffee and a cake for my breakfast.- two phrases

$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{MCI} \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \right]$ I like football] but $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{MCI} \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \right]$ I do not like tennis].- two clauses.

In coordination two parts of equal rank are brought together.

Coordination of two words can take place in a phrase. For example:

She painted a large and beautiful portrait.

Coordination can take place in subordination. For example:

$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{MCI} \\ \text{MCI} \end{array} \right]$ $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{SCI} \end{array} \right]$ What I say] and $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{SCI} \end{array} \right]$ what I do] are two different things].

Omitting conjunctions:

There can be more than two words, phrases and clauses in single coordination.

I like cricket and football and tennis and volley ball.

The primary colours are red and green and blue.

In such cases except the last one other coordinators are omitted and comma is used for each conjunction. For example:

I like cricket, football, tennis and volley ball.

Linked coordination: sometimes conjunctions are omitted altogether. This is called linked coordination. For example:

You are not a woman, you are a rat.

6.8 Check Your Progress II

A. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence each:

- i) What is direct subordination?
- ii) What is indirect subordination?
- iii) Give one example of a clause in a phrase.
- iv) Which clauses always occur in indirect subordination?
- v) Give an example of direct subordination at phrase level.
- vi) What is linked coordination?
- vii) Give an example of linked coordination.
- viii) Do we make complex sentences with coordination?
- ix) If one word is a part of another word, what type of subordination is it?
- x) Give an example of coordination of clauses in subordination.

6.9 Summary:

In complex sentences clauses are brought together by subordination and coordination. In subordination one or more than one subordinate clauses are brought together in a main clause. Noun clause, Adverbial clause, Relative clause, comparative clause and prepositional clause are the types of the subordinate clauses. They can be finite or non-finite. Subordination can be direct or indirect. When a unit is an element of another unit of the same rank and higher rank it is called a direct subordination. If a unit is an element of another unit of the lower rank it is called an in-direct subordination. Coordination can bring together words, phrases or clauses of equal rank in a sentence. Mostly they are combined with the coordinating conjunctions like and, but or or.

6.10 Terms to Remember:

Infinitive – a verb in its basic form. It is often used with ‘to’ in front of it.

Embedded (to embed) - to become fixed or deep part of something.

6.11 Answers to Check Your Progress:

I

A. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence:

- i) Simple and complex
- ii) one
- iii) because, so, as, if
- iv) who, whom, which, whose, that.
- v) when, where, why.
- vi) When, where, why, how
- vii) So.....as, as.....as, more.....than,
- viii) No
- ix) Vi, Ving, Ven
- x) No

B. Identify the finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels:

- i.
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \left[\left(\text{The man} \left[\text{who killed the tiger} \right] \text{ is arrested} \right) \right] . \\ \text{MCI NP} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{RCI} \end{array}$$
- ii.
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \left[\text{I don't know} \left[\text{who killed the snake} \right] \right] . \\ \text{MCI} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{NCI} \end{array}$$
- iii.
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{C} \\ \left[\text{The question is} \left[\text{who will bell the cat} \right] \right] . \\ \text{MCI} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{NCI} \end{array}$$
- iv.
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{A} \\ \left[\left[\text{If you work hard} \right] , \text{ you will succeed} \right] . \\ \text{MCI ACI} \end{array}$$

- v. [He came late, [so he missed the bus].
MCI ACI A
- vi. [I don't remember (the day [when I proposed her])].
MCI NP RCI O M
- vii. [She could not answer (the question [that her husband asked])].
MCI NP RCI O M
- viii. [[That you got the first class] is unbelievable].
MCI NCI S
- ix. [I lost (the book [which you lent me yesterday])].
MCI NP RCI O M
- x. [She does not look (as beautiful [as she said])].
MCI AjP CCI C M

C. Identify the non finite subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences as Cli, Cling, Clen and give them function labels such as S, O, A, M

- i. [I regret [speaking to you so rudely]].
MCI NCling O
- ii. [I saw (Australia [beaten by India]) last Sunday].
MCI NP RClen O M
- iii. [I am very sorry [to have caused you offence]].
MCI ACli A
- iv. [[For Max to pay his bills in time] is really surprising].
MCI NCl S
- v. [I have several important things [to say to her]].
MCI RCli M
- vi. [[Always haunted by the guilty memories], he committed suicide].
MCI AClen A

- vii. [I want [him to go]].
MCI NClⁱ
- viii. [I asked him [to go]].
MCI NClⁱ Do
- ix. [The book [written by an Indian writer] is never easy to understand].
MCI RClen^M
- x. [[Living in slum], she brought up her children].
MCI ACling^A

D. Identify the non finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels

- i. [She does not know [where to go]].
MCI NClⁱ O
- ii. [[Getting their friend justice] is a mission for them].
MCI NCl^{ing} S
- iii. [[Operation completed], the soldiers left].
MCI AClen^A
- iv. [(The man [sitting under the tree]) is a farmer].
MCI NP RCling^M S
- v. [[To study for examination] is a horrible thing].
MCI NClⁱ S
- vi. [(The question [where to go]) was very difficult].
MCI NP RCli^M S
- vii. [Sunil knows [how to repair a watch]].
MCI NClⁱ O
- viii. [The Monsoon is [about to begin soon]].
MCI ACli^C

- ix. $\left[\begin{array}{c} A \\ \left[\text{Tired} \right], \text{ she walked out of the factory} \right]$
MCI AClen
- x. $\left[\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left(\text{The best book} \left[\begin{array}{c} M \\ \text{for you to buy} \right] \right) \text{ is Savitry} \right]$
MCI NP RCl_i

E. Give the form and function labels to the finite and non finite subordinate clauses bracketed in the following sentences.

- i. $\left[\begin{array}{c} A \\ \left[\text{Unless you know the truth} \right], \text{ you should not react} \right]$
MCI ACI
- ii. $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Do} \\ \text{They told him} \left[\text{to resign the job} \right] \right]$
MCI NCl_i
- iii. $\left[\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left[\text{Working in the field without knowledge} \right] \text{ is very dangerous} \right]$
MCI NCl_{ing}
- iv. $\left[\begin{array}{c} M \\ \text{I like the songs} \left[\text{sung by Kishorkumar} \right] \right]$
MCI RClen
- v. $\left[\begin{array}{c} A \\ \left[\text{Heavily disguised} \right], \text{ he escaped from the prison} \right]$
MCI AClen
- vi. $\left[\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left(\text{The students} \left[\begin{array}{c} M \\ \text{who pass with special English} \right] \right), \text{ get lucrative jobs} \right]$
MCI NP RCl
- vii. $\left[\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left[\text{Why did he kill his wife} \right] \text{ is still a mystery} \right]$
MCI NCl
- viii. $\left[\begin{array}{c} C \\ \text{Indian books are} \left(\text{more difficult} \left[\begin{array}{c} M \\ \text{than we think} \right] \right) \right]$
MCI AjP CCl
- ix. $\left[\begin{array}{c} S \\ \left(\text{The building} \left[\begin{array}{c} M \\ \text{which was under construction} \right] \right) \text{ collapsed yesterday} \right]$
MCI NP RCl
- x. $\left[\begin{array}{c} A \\ \left[\text{As he was poor} \right], \text{ he could not buy a car} \right]$
MCI ACI

II

A) Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/sentence each:

- i) If a unit is an element of a higher unit or an element of another unit of the same rank it is called a Direct Subordination
- ii) If a unit is an element of a lower rank it is called an In-direct Subordination
- iii) [Show me (a man [who knows everything]).
- iv) Relative and comparative clause.
- v) (A book (on Indian History)).
- vi) When conjunctions are omitted altogether, it is called linked coordination
- vii) I like cricket, not tennis.
- viii) Yes
- ix) Direct subordination
- x) [[Whether I know it] or [You know it], the fact does not change].

6.12 Exercise:

A. Fill in the blanks with the best suitable alternatives given below each.

- i)is one of the ways of embedding in a complex sentence.
 - a) Subordination.
 - b) Preposition
 - c) Conjunction
 - d) Interjection
- ii) If you use clauses beginning with when, where as modifiers in noun clauses, they are called.....
 - a) Adverbs
 - b) Pronouns
 - c) Relative pronouns
 - d) Relative adverbs
- iii) Relative pronoun is related to the head of -----.
 - a) An adverb phrase
 - b) A Noun phrase
 - c) An Adjective phrase
 - d) A Genitive phrase
- iv) ----- clause can never function as adverbial of the main clause.
 - a) A Noun
 - b) An Adverbial
 - c) A Prepositional
 - d) None

- v) Only ----- clause can function as subject, object and complement.
 a) An adverbial b) A relative c) A noun d) A comparative
- vi) ----- clause can occur as a post modifier in noun, adjective and adverb clause.
 a) A noun b) A relative c) A comparative d) An adverbial
- vii) ----- clauses are always optional elements of the main clauses.
 a) Noun b) Adverbial c) Relative d) Comparative
- viii) The function of a comparative clause is always-----.
 a) Head of a phrase b) Modifier of a phrase
 c) Subject of the clause d) Complement of the clause
- ix) The verb of the non-finite clause never indicates the -----.
 a) Voice b) Tense c) Aspect d) Mood
- x) In prepositional clause there is always a ----- after the preposition.
 a) THAT noun clause b) WH noun clause
 c) Zero noun clause d) Relative

B. Identify the finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels.

- i) When we asked her she sang an old Hindi song.
- ii) I have forgotten who gave us this present
- iii) Although Paul is poor, I like him very much.
- iv) Why you bought that gun is still a mystery
- v) The chicken he ate yesterday was very expensive.
- vi) Few people know that dragons can fly
- vii) This is the book he wanted to read.
- viii) His joy knew no bounds, when he received the first prize.
- ix) Dr. A. P. J. Abdul Kalam, I know, is a great scientist.

x) These are my neighbours who love classical music.

C. Identify the non-finite subordinate clauses in the following sentences and give them form and function labels.

i) I saw Australia beaten by India yesterday.

ii) To secure first class is my ambition.

iii) He opened the door by breaking the lock.

iv) The Swchata Abhiyan launched by the government is working well.

v) He is better at sleeping than doing a job.

vi) He has left no proof of what he did in the garden.

D. Write short notes of about 50 to 60 words each on the following:

i) Noun clause

ii) Adverbial clause

iii) Relative clause

iv) Comparative clause

v) Prepositional clause

vi) Direct and in-direct subordination

6.13 References:

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Unit-7

Cohesive Devices and Their Uses

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7.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able to know:

1. What is cohesion?
2. What are different types of cohesive devices?
3. How to analyze a passage to identify cohesive devices?

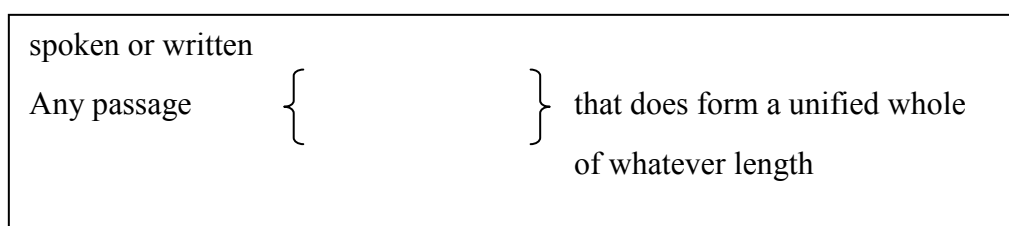
7.1 Introduction:

Look at the following two passages:

- a. Gopal is a clever student. He goes to an English Medium school.
- b. Gopal is a clever student. The information communicated by this passage is wrong.

Both the above passages contain two sentences. However, everybody can identify that the second sentence in the first passage is ‘linked’ to the first sentence, whereas in the second passage the second sentence is not related to the first one in any way. The first of these passages, therefore, is said to be ‘unified’. That is to say, both the sentences in the first passage are connected to each other and they together communicate the complete meaning. On the other hand, in the second passage the meanings of the two sentences are different and cannot be considered to form a whole meaning, because they are not connected sentences. Such well connected sentences communicating the whole meaning are technically called ‘text’ in linguistics. On the same line, we cannot call the second passage as ‘text’, because instead of connecting to one another, the sentences here are simply put together. That is, it is a collection of unrelated sentences.

In our discussion of the above two passages we have seen that the first is a text, whereas the second is not. Why? What makes the first passage a text, but the second merely a collection of unrelated sentences? It clearly means that there are certain devices, certain techniques used in the first passage to unify the sentences together. In Cohesion, thus, we consider such devices and techniques used to bring together different sentences. Halliday and Hasan (1976) think that in order to discuss the process of cohesion, the concept of ‘text’ has to be understood first. They use the word ‘text’ to refer to ‘any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole’. Let us look at the definition more closely. It can be figured in the following manner:



The very first thing that can be said is that text is a passage. The passage can either be spoken or written (We should not take the word ‘passage’ to mean printed paragraph.). Similarly, the length of the passage is not important. Sometimes it may be a sentence or a number of paragraphs taken together. Halliday and Hasan (1967:1) write, “A text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue. It

may be anything from a single proverb to a whole play, from a momentary cry for help to an all-day discussion on a committee.” And then comes the most important feature of passage, that is, being ‘a unified whole’. That is to say, any passage which is ‘unified as a whole’ is a text.

Since all of you have studied parts of speech, phrases, clauses and sentences, one may ask what the relation of a text to a sentence is as a text involves one or more sentences. However, we must remember that units like phrase, clause, sentence, etc are grammatical units. A text, on the other hand, is a semantic unit. It may consist of a sentence or more than one sentence, but their relation cannot be understood from grammatical point of view. Rather the meaning expressed by all sentences in the text is important here. Therefore, a text is regarded as a semantic unit. “It is a unit not of form but of meaning”. That is to say, a text is related to a clause or a sentence not by size but by realization of meaning in them. The meaning of the text is realized through the sentences it consists of.

Another concept important in the understanding of cohesion is ‘texture’. Texture is that element that binds different sentences together. Let us remember the two passages discussed in the beginning of the unit. The first passage is like the following:

Gopal is a clever student. He goes to an English Medium school.

Here it is clear that the ‘he’ in the second sentence refers back to ‘Gopal’ in the first sentence. This referring back (anaphoric) function of ‘he’ gives cohesion to the two sentences, so that we interpret them as a whole. That is why the two sentences constitute a text. Here the word ‘texture’ refers to the *Cohesive Relation* that exist between ‘he’ and ‘Gopal’. This concept is useful in cohesion because in the remaining part of this unit we will focus our attention on items like ‘he’ that refer back to something that has gone before. Here one may ask the question – what is the *meaning* of the cohesive relation between ‘he’ and ‘Gopal’? The meaning is that they refer to the same thing. The two items are identical in reference or they are co-referential. However, one must not say that pronouns are the only items that refer back to something gone before. There are many others which will be discussed shortly.

Halliday and Hasan also use one more term – tie. This term and what it refers to are important in the analysis of the cohesion of a passage. Let us understand the

concept of ‘tie’ first. In the above example, ‘he’ refers back to ‘Gopal’. This is the relation of reference. The two words – ‘he’ and ‘Gopal’ – thus form a tie of reference. There are some other kinds of tie which we will discuss in detail in the following part of the unit. They are – reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Out of these five kinds of ties, three are related to the grammatical system of language- reference, substitution and ellipsis; one is related to lexis (words)- lexical cohesion and the remaining- conjunction – is on the verge of the two. Therefore it is lexicogrammatical, as is shown in the following figure:

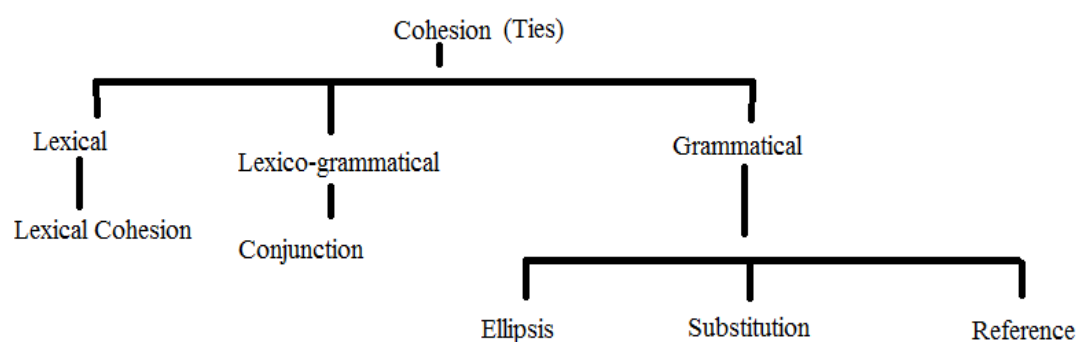


Figure 1: Types of Cohesive Devices

7.2 Presentation of Subject Matter

7.2.1 Reference

We said that text is a semantic unit of language and that cohesion is related to the meaning. In order to elaborate this we have to say that there are some items in a text whose meaning cannot be understood independently. That is for their meaning they are dependent on other items in the text, for example, the meaning of ‘he’ is dependent on the meaning of the word ‘Gopal’. In this case the word ‘he’ refers to other word, i.e. Reference. Since such items cannot be interpreted semantically on their own, they make reference to something else for their interpretation. Halliday and Hasan consider three items used in English for such reference: Personals, Demonstratives and Comparatives. They are explained with the help of following three examples:

- a. Three blind mice, three blind mice

See how they run! See how they run!

- b. Doctor Foster went to Gloucester in a shower of rain.

He stepped in a puddle right up to his middle and never went there again

- c. There were two wrens upon a tree

Another came, and there were three

In the above (a) 'they' refers to 'three blind mice'; in (b) 'there' refers to 'Gloucester'; in (c) 'another' refers to 'wrens'. These items are directives in nature. They indicate that in order to understand their meaning we need to retrieve information from elsewhere. Thus the most important aspect of Reference is that the specific nature of the information is signaled for retrieval. With the help of various devices of Reference the same information enters into the discourse a second time. In 'See how they run!', the word 'they' means not merely 'three blind mice' but 'the same three blind mice that we have just been talking about'. Thus in Reference, the same specific entity is referred to another time.

Such specific information can also be obtained by reference to the context of situation. Let us look at the following example:

- d. For he's a jolly good fellow

And so say all of us.

In this example the identity of 'he' is not explicit. But for those who are present in the context of situation the identity of 'he' is clear and they have no doubt about it. In the earlier three examples the meaning of 'they', 'there' and 'another' is dependent on some items in the text itself. And we referred to the importance of retrieving the specific information from elsewhere. But in example (d) the text does not provide any specific information about 'he'. Still those people who are present when (d) is used are able to understand the meaning of 'he'. Thus in (d) in order to collect specific information about 'he' we have to consult the context of situation where (d) is used. There are thus two types of context – Context of Text (or Textual Context) and Context of Situation. In Reference both these contexts are used. And on the basis of the use of these contexts Halliday and Hasan classify Reference in the following manner:

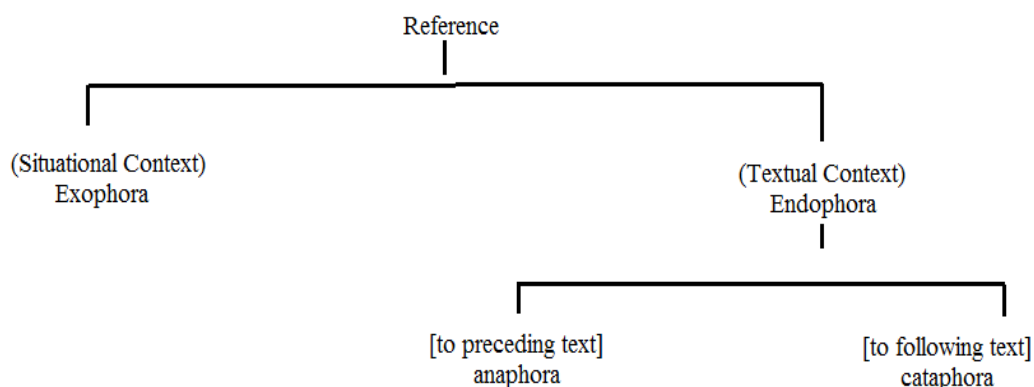


Figure 2: Types of Reference (from Halliday and Hasan (1967:33))

As the above diagram shows Reference can be either Exophoric or Endophoric. Exophoric Reference is outside the text reference, where the specific information required for understanding the meaning of an item is collected from the context of situation. On the other hand when such information is retrieved from the text itself, it is called Endophoric Reference. In Endophoric Reference there are two subtypes (1) Anaphoric Reference and (2) Cataphoric Reference. When the required information is retrieved from the preceding text (what has gone before the reference item) it is Anaphoric Reference. Many of the examples we discussed earlier are of this type. But when the required information comes after the reference item, it is Cataphoric Reference. This can be seen in the following example:

This is All India Radio.

In this example the word ‘this’ refers to ‘All India Radio’. Here the reference item ‘this’ comes before the required information. Another example of Cataphoric Reference will be:

He who hesitates is lost

If you remember, while discussing Reference in (a), (b) and (c) we referred to its three types – personal, demonstrative and comparative. Let us now look at these categories in some detail:

Personal

Such kind of reference is used for a person. But in language use a person is not important. What are important are the speech roles. Speech role is being performed

by a person. The basic speech roles are two – speaker and addressee. The speaker is the person who uses the text and addressee is the one who is being addressed by the speaker. Here we have to make distinction between addressee and listener or hearer. A listener or hearer may be able to listen to what is said by the speaker. But this does not guarantee that listener or hearer is addressed by the speaker. Thus addressee is the person to whom a speaker speaks. This distinction goes fairly well with the traditional categories of First Person, Second Person and Third Person. The speaker is First Person, the addressee is Second Person and those who are being referred to are Third Person.

Accordingly in personal reference all personal pronouns (like I, we, you, he, she, it, they, one, etc.) are used as reference items. And they may refer either to speaker, addressee or other persons.

Demonstratives

Demonstratives like - the, near, far, this, that, these, those, here, there, now, then – can be used to locate a referent and to show the scale of proximity.

Comparative

Sometimes instead of referring directly, a comparative term is used. In such cases also the referent is retrieved. For this purpose words like – same, equal, identical, identically, such, similar, likewise, other, different, else, otherwise – are used. Similarly, the form of comparative ‘more’ can also be used. Such comparatives are used in as reference items in the following examples:

It's *the same* cat as the one we saw yesterday.

It's *a similar* cat to the one we saw yesterday.

It's *a different* cat from the one we saw yesterday.

In above examples, the italicized words indicate comparison.

7.2.2 Substitution

In the earlier part of this unit we have discussed Reference as one of the types of cohesive devices. In this part we shall discuss Substitution. It is better to start with the comparison of the two. Whereas Reference is the relation of meaning, Substitution (and Ellipsis also) is the relation of wording. We have seen that the Reference items (like he, another, etc) refer to the part of the text have the same

meaning. Thus in Reference meaning is important and it is on this level of language that Reference works in the text. However, Substitution is the relation of wording in the text. Thus it works on the grammatical level of the text. Moreover, Reference can be inside the text (Endophoric) or outside the text (Exophoric). So also it can be related to the preceding text (anaphora) or the following text (cataphora). However, Substitution cannot be related to outside the text situation or to what follows. It is always anaphoric and it consists of replacing one word for the other. Let us consider the following example:

- a. My *axe* is too blunt. I must get a sharper *one*.
- b. You think Joan already *knows*? – I think everybody *does*.

In the second sentence of (a) the word ‘one’ is used so also the word ‘does’ is used in the second sentence of (b). Thus in (a) ‘one’ is used as a replacement of ‘axe’ and ‘does’ is used as replacement of ‘knows’ in (b). By this time it is clear that Substitution is the replacement of one word by the other and also that the replaced word takes the position of the word that precedes. Halliday and Hasan write: “Substitution is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases; whereas reference is a relation between meanings” (p.89).

Another reason for calling Substitution a grammatical relation is that the replaced (substituted) item has the same structural function as that for what it substitutes. In the above example, *one* and *axe* are both Head in the noun phrases and *does* and *knows* are both Main verbs (Mv) in the verb phrases. But sometimes this relation between the substituted and the substitute items is less clear, as in the following example:

- c. Has Barbara left? – I think so.

Here *so* stands for (*that*) *Barbara has left*. Still the structural function of both the items is the same in relation to *I think*.

Halliday and Hasan specify three types of Substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal. Since Substitution is a grammatical relation, different types of Substitutions are defined grammatically rather than semantically. The criterion here is the grammatical function of substitute item. Accordingly the above three types are given. The following is the very short list of the items that occur as substitutes:

Nominal – one, ones; same

Verbal – do

Clausal – so, not

Sometimes other items like *do so*, *do the same*, may be used. Let us now look at some examples of Substitution:

I shoot the hippopotamus

With bullets made of platinum

Because if I use leaden *ones*

His hide is sure to flatten 'em

Here *ones* means *bullets made of lead*.

In nominal Substitution if the head of the NP is singular *one* is used and when it is plural *ones* is used. We must remember that the nominal substitution stands only for the head of the NP and not the modifier. That is why the Nominal Substitute *one/ones* is always accompanied by some modifying elements which define the particular context.

Examples of Verbal Substitution are:

- a. ... the words did not *come* the same as they used to *do*. (come)
- b. 'I don't know the meaning of half of those long words and, what's more, I don't believe you *do* either. (know)
- c. Does Jean sing? – No, but Mary *does*. (sings)

Examples of Clausal Substitution

- a. Is there going to be an earthquake? – It says *so*.
- b. Has everybody gone home? – I hope *not*.
- c. Is this mango ripe? – It seems *so*.
- d. If he said *so*, he'll come.

In all the above examples, the italicized words are substitute items.

7.2.3 Ellipsis

We have seen that Substitution and Ellipsis are similar to one another. Ellipsis can be treated as Substitution by zero. In Ellipsis something is left unsaid. Though it

is 'left unsaid' still it is understood nevertheless. Thus Ellipsis is something is understood. Halliday and Hasan say "An Elliptical item is one which, as it were, leaves specific structural slots to be filled from elsewhere". It means that Ellipsis leaves some structural slot unfilled and we can understand that slot with reference to other items in the text. Therefore, it is treated as 'substitution by zero'. Look at the following example:

Ram brought some mangoes and Sita some apples.

Here the structure of the second clause is subject and object. The predicator is missing. Thus missing predicator is presupposed (understood) to be supplied from the earlier clause. Thus the second clause is interpreted as *Sita brought some apples*. Now consider another example:

Would you like to hear another song? I know twelve more.

Here the second sentence contains a nominal group *twelve more*, consisting of only numeratives. The Head of this nominal group (NP) is missing and it has been presupposed from the earlier sentence as *twelve more songs*. The following is a slightly more complex example:

'And how many hours a day did you do lessons?' said Alice, in a hurry to change the subject.

'Ten hours the first day', said the Mock Turtle: 'nine the next, and so on'.

Here the nominal group *nine* is presupposing the meaning of *nine hours*, and *the next* means *the next day*. The two clauses *nine the next* and *ten hours the first day* also presuppose *we did lessons ten hours the first day*, etc.

Thus we may say that where there is Ellipsis, there is presupposition in the structure – that something to be supplied or understood. Therefore a general guiding principle to identify Ellipsis is – Ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid. There is a sense of incompleteness associated with it.

Like Substitution, Ellipsis is a relation within the text and in majority of cases the presupposed item is present in the preceding text. That is to say, Ellipsis is normally an anaphoric relation.

Let us now look at the following three examples. In the first one, Reference as a cohesive device is used, in the second it is Substitution and in third Ellipsis:

- a. This is a fine hall you have here. I'm proud to be lecturing in *it*.
- b. This is fine hall you have here. I've never lectured in a finer *one*.
- c. This is fine hall you have here. I've never lectured in a finer.

Halliday and Hasan discuss three types of Ellipsis:

- (1) Nominal Ellipsis
- (2) Verbal Ellipsis
- (3) Clausal Ellipsis

Nominal Ellipsis

You have already studied Noun Phrase and its structure. The structure of an NP is $\{M\}^n H \{M\}^n$. In NP a noun is a head word and there are pre-modifiers and post-modifiers. Look at the following NP:

Those two fast electric trains with pantograph

Here *train* is a noun and Head of the nominal group, *those* is a determiner, *two* is numerative, *fast* is an adverb and *electric* is an adjective. All of them are pre-modifiers. *With pantograph* is a prepositional phrase and is post-modifier in the NP. With this information about NP, let us study some examples of Ellipsis.

Which lasts longer, the curved rods or the straight rods? - The straight are less likely to break.

In the answer the subject is *the straight*. As we know a subject needs to be an NP. But *straight* is an adjective. It means something (noun) is missing here and the slot of this noun has to be filled from the earlier sentence. Thus it becomes *the straight rods*.

How did you enjoy the exhibition? – A lot (of exhibition) was very good, though not all.

Here the items in the bracket are omitted. Therefore they are Elliptical items.

Which hat will you wear? – This is the best.

In the NP *the best* – *hat* is missing.

Here are my two white silk saris. I'll lend you one if you like.

Here the NP is *one*. The complete form is *one sari*.

The first three buds all fell off. We'll have to watch the next.

The NP *the next* is incomplete. The noun *bud* is omitted.

Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal Ellipsis means omission from the verbal group (VP). For example:

Have you been swimming? - Yes, I have.

What have been doing? - Swimming.

The complete form of the answers in both the examples will be *Yes, I have (been swimming)* and *(I have been) swimming*.

Verbal Ellipsis can either be Operator Ellipsis or Lexical Ellipsis. Look at the answers given to the following question:

Is John going to come?

- a. He might. He was to, but he may not.
- b. He should, if he wants his name to be considered.

Here *might* means *might come*, *was to* means *was to come*, *may not* means *may not come* and *should* means *should come*.

Is he coming?

- a. He may be; I don't know.

Here *may be* means *may be coming*.

I haven't finished it yet.

- a. I hope you're going to have by tomorrow

Here *to have* means *to have it finished*.

Did Jane know?

- a. Yes, she did.

Here *did* means *know*.

Has he sold his collection yet?

- a. He has some of the paintings; I'm not sure about the rest.

Here *has* is incomplete, and it presupposes *sold* from the earlier sentence.

I'd better see him. I don't really want to.

Here *want to* is incomplete and the complete form is *want to see him*.

The picture wasn't finished. If it has been, I would have bought it.

Here *has been* means *has been (finished)*.

Clausal Ellipsis

In this complete clause is omitted. But the line dividing verbal and clausal ellipsis is not firm. Still in Yes/No questions it is Clausal Ellipsis that predominates, as in the following examples:

Does Sita sing?

Yes

Here *Yes* means *Yes, she does sing*.

Has he (got) a prejudice?

No.

Here *No* means *No, he hasn't got a prejudice*.

Sometimes in Wh- questions also Clausal Ellipsis is found, as in:

Who taught you to spell?

Grandfather did.

Here the complete form will be *Grandfather taught me to spell*.

What were they doing?

Holding hands.

The complete form is *They were holding hands*.

Following are some more examples of Ellipsis:

It's going to rain – (i) It might (ii) It isn't (iii) Is it?

Leave me alone – (i) I won't (ii) All right, I will (iii) Why?

Has John arrived? – Yes, he has (Verbal)

When did John arrive? – Yesterday

How did they break in? – I'll show you how.

Why didn't you tell John? – I did.

The car's running very well. – Yes, I had it serviced recently.

What did I hit? – A root.

Who killed Cock Robin? – The sparrow

How is the patient? – Comfortable.

7.2.4 Conjunctions

You have already studied conjunctions in parts of speech. It is one of the structure words or a word belonging to closed class words. Conjunctions, as you know, are used to connect two words, two phrases, two clauses, etc. However, in such instances, conjunction does not provide a link in the text as a whole, because in such instances conjunctions are used within a sentence, called intrasentence level. Halliday and Hasan, on the other hand, are interested in conjunctions which connect different sentences, called inter-sentence level. Therefore, they use the word conjunctives to refer to such items that connect different sentences. It does not mean that all conjunctions used within a sentence to connect various items are ignored by them. Rather they think that a conjunction used to connect two clauses can also provide cohesive effect to the text. While considering conjunctions in Cohesion, we have to use the word conjunction in liberal manner to mean any word or group of words that is used to connect two sentences. This explains why Halliday and Hasan prefer the word 'conjunctive adjuncts' to refer to such words which connect sentences. They give following categories of conjunctives:

(1) adverbs, including:

Simple adverbs (coordinating conjunctives), e.g. but, so, then, next

Compound adverbs in -ly, e.g. accordingly, subsequently, actually,

Compound adverbs in there- and where-, e.g. therefore, thereupon, whereat, whereas

(2) Other Compound adverbs, e.g. furthermore, nevertheless, anyway, instead, besides

Prepositional phrases e.g. on the contrary, as a result, in addition

- (3) Prepositional expressions with *that* or other reference items, the latter being (i) optional, e g as a result of that, instead of that, in addition to that, or (ii) obligatory, e g: in spite of that, because of that

Now look at the following expressions:

The captain had steered a course close in to the shore.

- a. As a result
- b. As a result of this they avoided the worst of the storm
- c. As a result of this move
- d. As a result of his caution

In the above example (a), (b), (c) and (d) all are conjunctive adjuncts which connect the second sentence to the first one, providing cohesion to the text. As is evident in the above example such conjunctives normally come at the beginning of the next sentence. But sometimes, as per the rules of punctuation of English, it can come at the later position followed by a comma.

The following are some more examples of Conjunction as a cohesive device, which are italicized:

‘I wonder if all the things move along with us?’ thought poor puzzled Alice. *And* the Queen seemed to guess her thoughts, for she cried ‘Faster! Don’t try to talk!’

In this example, *and* is used as a conjunction to connect two sentences.

The eldest son worked on the farm, the second son worked in the blacksmith’s shop, *but* the youngest son left home to seek his fortune.

Halliday and Hasan propose four types of conjunction, as given below:

For the whole day he climbed up the steep mountainside, almost without stopping.

- a. *And* in all this time he met no one. (additive)
- b. *Yet* he was hardly aware of being tired. (adversive)
- c. *So* by night time the valley was far below him. (causal)
- d. *Then*, as dusk fell, he sat down to rest. (temporal)

In (a), (b), (c) and (d) above the conjunctions *and*, *yet*, *so* and *then* are used respectively. These conjunctions connect their respective sentences to the earlier sentence. However, the relation of each of them is different. The relation between the first sentence and (a) is different from that of the first sentence and (b). The relation is based on the meaning communicated by (a), (b), (c) and (d) in relation to the meaning of the first sentence. After (a), (b), (c) and (d) the specific meaning relation between the first sentence and (a), (b), (c) and (d) above is given in bracket. Thus (a) is additive in the sense that with the conjunction *and* some new information is added to the meaning of the first sentence. Thus ‘adversive’ means expressing contrary information, ‘causal’ means stating the cause, and ‘temporal’ means time relation—where the action in the first sentence happened before the action of the second sentence.

7.2.5 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical Cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. You know that cohesion is concerned with the relation between various sentences in a text – How different sentences are connected to one another. And lexical items (words) play a major role in such cohesion. Halliday and Hasan consider Lexical Cohesion in three groups – Reiteration, Lexical Relation and Collocations. Let us consider each one of them in some detail.

Reiteration

It means the repetition of the same word or a near synonym of the word, or a super-ordinate term or a general term. This is explained with the help of following example:

There is a boy climbing that tree.

- a. The *boy's* going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- b. The *lad's* going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- c. The *child's* going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- d. The *idiot's* going to fall if he doesn't take care.

In this example, in (a) the same word ‘a boy’ to ‘the boy’ is repeated, in (b) the near synonym ‘the lad’ is used, in (c) a superordinate term (a word whose scope of meaning is bigger and includes the meaning of the original word) – ‘the child’ is

used and in (d) the general term ‘the idiot’ is employed. The use of such items – the same word, near synonym, superordinate term and general word provide cohesion to the text. Let us look at one more example of this type:

There is a boy climbing the old elm.

- a. That elm isn’t very safe.
- b. That tree isn’t very safe.
- c. That old thing isn’t very safe.

In (a) the same word is repeated, in (b) the superordinate term (since elm is a type of tree) ‘tree’ (which includes the meaning of ‘elm’) is used and in (c) the general word ‘that old thing’ is employed. Since there is no near synonym for ‘elm’, it is not given here.

Lexical Relation as Cohesive Patterns

The relation among various lexical items also provide cohesive pattern to the text. Let us consider the following example:

Why does this little boy have to wriggle all the time?

- a. Other boys don’t wriggle.
- b. Boys always wriggle.
- c. Good boys don’t wriggle.
- d. Boys should be kept out of here.

In above (a) *boy* provides a tie with *boy* in the first sentence, though the two referents are not the same. It is a kind of comparative reference suggested by *other*. In (b) the same word *boy* is used. But the two are not related in any manner. Since *boy* in (b) includes all boys, it is inclusive relation. This is called weak relation of co-reference. But in (c) there is neither the implication of inclusion nor any form of reference. Still the presence of the same word in two sentences provides cohesive effect. The case of (d) is extreme in that there is no reference here to wriggle. But still the presence of the same word is treated to be cohesive. In all the above cases the use of the word *boy* is unrelated to the *boy* in the first sentence. Still the very presence of the same word provides cohesion. Now look at the following example:

There is a boy climbing that three.

- a. The boy is going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- b. Those boys are always getting into mischief.
- c. And there is another boy standing underneath.
- d. Most boys love climbing tree.

In the above (a) to (d) the word *boy* appears and it has some relation with the *boy* in the first sentence. In (a) it is Identical, in (b) it is Inclusive (includes the meaning of the *boy* in the first sentence), in (c) it is Exclusive (it excludes the *boy* in the first sentence) and the *boy* in (d) is Unrelated.

According to Halliday and Hasan these lexical relations provide cohesive effect to the text.

Collocation

This is the most complicated part of Lexical Cohesion. Collocation means the relation acquired by a word when it is recurrently used with some other words. Thus it is the relation achieved due to the company of the words. You know that the two words *pretty* and *handsome* mean the same. But *pretty* is used to refer to a girl or a woman, whereas *handsome* is reserved for boys and men. This is collocation. In order to achieve cohesive effect in the text, writers tend to use such collocations. And in Cohesion such words have to be identified and elaborated.

In addition to this, there are some other relations among words like opposite meaning words, for example boy-girl, stand up – sit down. These are complementary opposites and the use of such words also provides cohesion to the text. Some plain opposites like- like-hate, wet-dry, crowded-deserted, etc also give cohesion to the text. This explains why the following two sentences are cohesive:

Why does this little boy wriggle all the time? Girls don't wriggle.

Even though there is no explicit connection between the two sentences, the presence of complementary opposite *boy* and *girl* provides cohesion.

7.2.6 Analysis of Passage for identifying Cohesive Devices

What ever we have discussed in the earlier part of the unit is the theoretical information about Cohesion, its nature and types. You will not have a descriptive question about this topic. But on the basis of the above information you will be asked

to analyze a passage in order to identify various cohesive devices in it. For this purpose, let us now look at the way we can analyze a passage. But before that we must know some general principles for analysis of cohesive devices: Tie – it includes not only the cohesive element/ item but that which is presupposed by it. It is the relation between the two elements. This relation may be anaphoric or cataphoric.

- A sentence may contain only one or more than one ties.
- The presupposed item may not be available in immediate preceding sentence (Immediate) but in the earlier sentence (Remote).
- The presupposing element can be cohesive element, presupposing some other element.

- Basic question in cohesive analysis:

Is this sentence related by cohesion or not; and if it, in how many different ways? Which items in the sentence enter into cohesive relations, and what is the type and distance (Immediate/Remote) of the cohesion in each instance?

- Since analysis of cohesion proceeds sentence by sentence, for each sentence we have to indicate:
 1. How many cohesive ties it contains?
 2. For each tie, we have to specify what type of cohesion is involved, like Reference, Substitution, Ellipsis, Conjunction and Lexical Cohesion.
 3. For each tie whether the relation is Immediate or Remote.

Keeping in mind these general principles and also the theoretical discussion of cohesion, let us now look at the way a passage is analyzed for cohesive devices:

Passage 1

Is it true that the teachers are not as good as the teachers of yesterday? Surely this is an irresponsible statement. The teachers of today working in infinitely more difficult conditions than in the past are just trying to do as much justice as they can to a class that is altogether too big, to a class in which there are perhaps an increasing number of persons without adequate interest, to a syllabus whose sole purpose seems to become comprehensive, to a discipline which has little need for what our ancient inheritors taught us to say, “after you treat your mother and father as God, treat the

teacher as God”. It is the teacher who suffers from a sense of grief that he alone in the whole country seems to receive the least attention at the hands of those who decide salaries and emoluments or even social respect. (From ‘Doing us Proud’ by T. N. Seshan)

As the analysis of Cohesion proceeds from sentence to sentence, the first step will be giving numbers to each sentence:

Is it true that the teachers are not as good as the teachers of yesterday? **(1)** Surely this is an irresponsible statement **(2)**. The teachers of today working in infinitely more difficult conditions than in the past are just trying to do as much justice as they can to a class that is altogether too big, to a class in which there are perhaps an increasing number of persons without adequate interest, to a syllabus whose sole purpose seems to become comprehensive, to a discipline which has little need for what our ancient inheritors taught us to say, “after you treat your mother and father as God, treat the teacher as God” **(3)**. It is the teacher who suffers from a sense of grief that he alone in the whole country seems to receive the least attention at the hands of those who decide salaries and emoluments or even social respect **(4)**.

As is evident, there are four sentences in the above passage. Now let us try to identify cohesive ties in each one of them.

Sentence 1:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Demonstrative) ‘the’ in ‘the teachers’- in the earlier text, not in the passage
- b. ‘the’ in ‘the teachers of yesterday’: Cataphoric Reference (Demonstrative), the teachers are specified by the post-modifier ‘of yesterday’; Immediate

Sentence 2:

- a. ‘this’: Anaphoric Reference (Demonstrative), Immediate
- b. ‘statement’: Lexical Cohesion (Super-ordinate term), Immediate

Sentence 3:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Demonstrative) ‘the’ in ‘the teachers of today’, Immediate
- b. ‘past’: Lexical Cohesion (Near Synonym to ‘yesterday’), Remote

- c. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) ‘they’, Immediate
- d. Lexical Cohesion (Reiteration) – repetition of the word ‘teacher’
- e. Lexical Cohesion (Collocations): ‘big class’, ‘comprehensive syllabus’, ‘discipline’; Immediate
- f. Outside the Text (Exoporic) Reference (Personal) ‘our’, ‘you’

Sentence 4:

- a. Lexical Cohesion (Reiteration) repetition – ‘the teacher’
- b. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) ‘he’, Immediate
- c. Cataphoric Reference (Personal) ‘those’, Immediate

As you will find, in the analysis of each sentence, the particular tie is identified, its type is specified and whether it is ‘immediate’ or ‘remote’ is also mentioned.

Passage 2

In a time very long ago, there lived a half barbaric king **(1)**. He had occasionally visited his distant Latin neighbors, and some of their more civilized ideas had influenced him to some degree **(2)**. Nothing opposed his largest and showiest ideas, and no one opposed his authority **(3)**. He liked to discuss things with himself **(4)**. When he agreed with himself about a thing, it was done **(5)**. Usually the systems of his household and government moved smoothly **(6)**. Then he was mild and pleasant **(7)**. Sometimes there were difficulties in his systems **(8)**. Then he was even more pleasant and mild, for it gave him great pleasure to straighten a wrong turn to crush down uneven places **(9)**. (From ‘The Lady, or The Tiger’ by Frank Stockton)

As is shown above, there are nine sentences in the passage. Let us analyze each of them:

Sentence 1: No tie

Sentence 2:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) ‘he’, ‘his’, ‘him’, Immediate
- b. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) ‘they’, Immediate
- c. Conjunction (Conjunctive Adjunct) ‘occasionally’, Immediate
- d. Conjunction ‘and’, Immediate

Sentence 3:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'his', Immediate
- b. Lexical Cohesion (Reiteration) Repetition of Word 'ideas', Immediate

Sentence 4:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'he', 'himself', Immediate
- b. Lexical Cohesion (Reiteration) general term 'things', Immediate

Sentence 5:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'he', 'himself', Immediate
- b. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'it', Immediate
- c. Conjunction 'when', Immediate

Sentence 6:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'his', Immediate
- b. Conjunction (Conjunctive Adjunct) 'usually', Immediate
- c. Lexical Cohesion (Reiteration) 'authority', 'system', 'government'

Sentence 7:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'he', Immediate
- b. Conjunction 'then', Immediate

Sentence 8:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'his', Immediate
- b. Lexical Cohesion (Reiteration) 'system', Immediate
- c. Conjunction (Conjunctive Adjunct) 'sometimes', Immediate

Sentence 9:

- a. Anaphoric Reference (Personal) 'he', Immediate
- b. Cataphoric Reference (Personal) 'it', Immediate
- b. Conjunction 'then', Immediate
- d. Lexical Cohesion (Reiteration) repetition of 'mild' and 'pleasant', Immediate

7.3 Exercise

Identify the cohesive devices giving their types in the following passages:

Passage 1:

The youth advanced into the arena. According to custom, he turned to bow to the kind. But he was not thinking of that royal person. He gazed only at the king's daughter, who sat next to her father. Another lady might not have had the courage to be there. But this lady was only half-civilized. The strong passions of her nature would not allow her to be absent. This occasion held a terrible interest for her. From the moment of the announcement of her lover's coming trial in the arena, she had thought of nothing else night and day. (From 'The Lady, or The Tiger' by Frank Stockton)

Passage 2:

The families from Fort Street were allowed four of the smaller tents. They were tiny army tents. The canvas sloped sideways from two poles in the centre, and the space inside could barely accommodate a single family. Bibi Amar Vati was given a full tent for her family. The Sardars too, because of the special condition of IsherKaur, got a tent to themselves. LalaKanshi Ram allowed Padmini and Chandni, the charwoman and her daughter, to move in with his family. The remaining families moved together into the fourth tent. (From *Azadi*, ChamanNahal)

Passage 3:

He opened his glasses once again. They were his accessories to argument in heightened moments of awareness. Slowly he placed them on his nose and looked benevolently at Niranjan Singh.

'Listen, son, I admire your faith. Only don't forget for a moment the religions of man are the inventions of man himself.'

'What do you mean?'

'They are the creation of men with inspiration so that we may lead inspired lives.'

'Not of men. Of avatars – of reincarnations of God.'

'The same thing. They are only men more inspired than the rest of us.'

Niranjan Singh remained silent. (From *Azadi*, ChamanNahal)

Passage 4:

Arun went to the bazaar several times to listen to the radio. LalaKanshi Ram went with him. For the first time LalaKanshi Ram became aware of a blessing azadi had brought them. The crowds in the bazaar were thick. Some shops were closed, but many were still open. Groups of people stood all over in the bazaar, and each face was blank. They were all refugees from West Punjab and there was not a man in that crowd who had not suffered in the riots. (From *Azadi*, ChamanNahal)

Passage 5:

Chiks climbs in through the store window first and then holds the shutter as the woman climbs in after her. The store looks as if it was deserted long before the riots started; the empty rows of wooden shelves are covered in yellow dust, as are the metal containers stacked in a corner. The store is small, smaller than Chika's walk-in closet back home. The woman climbs in the window shutters squeak as Chika lets go of them. Chiks's hands are trembling, her calves burning after the unsteady run from the market in her high-heeled sandals. (From 'A Private Experience' by C. N. Adichi)

Passage 6:

Okonkwo was well known throughout the nine villages and even beyond. His fame rested on solid personal achievements. As a young man of eighteen he had brought honour to his village by throwing Amalinze, the Cat. Amalinze was the great wrestler who for seven years was unbeaten, from Umuofia to Mbaino. He was called the Cat because his back would never touch the earth. It was this man that Okonkwo threw in a fight which the old man agreed was one of the fiercest since the founder of their town engaged a spirit of the wild for seven days and seven nights. (From *Things Fall Apart* by Chinua Achebe)

Passage 7:

The night was very quiet. It was always quiet except on moonlight nights. Darkness held a vague terror for these people, even the bravest among them. Children were warned not to whistle at night for fear of evil spirits. Dangerous animals become even more sinister and uncanny in the dark. A snake was never called by its name at night, because it would hear. It was called a string. And so on

this particular night as the crier's voice was gradually swallowed up in the distance, silence returned to the world, a vibrant silence made more intense by the universal trill of a million forest insects. (From *Things Fall Apart* by Chinua Achebe)

Passage 8:

The contest began with boys of fifteen or sixteen. There were only three such boys in each team. They were not the real wrestlers; they merely set the scene. Within a short time the first two bouts were over. But the third created a big sensation even among the elders who did not usually show their excitement so openly. It was a quick as the other two, perhaps even quicker. But very few people had ever seen that kind of wrestling before. As soon as the two boys closed in, one of them did something which no one could describe because it had been as quick as a flash. And the other boy was flat on his back. The crowd roared and clapped and for a while drowned the frenzied drums. Okonkwo sprang to his feet and quickly sat down again. (From *Things Fall Apart* by Chinua Achebe)

7.4 Books for further reading:

1. Halliday, MAK and Hasan, Requiya.(1976).*Cohesion in English*. London: Longman



Unit-8

Discourse Analysis

- Speech and Writing (Spoken and Written Discourse)
- Functions and characteristics of speech and writing
- Tenor of discourse
- Types of domain/register and its features

8.0 Objectives

8.1 Introduction

8.2 Subject matter I: Speech and Writing

8.3 Functions and characteristics of speech and writing

8.4 Check your progress I

8.5 Subject matter II: Tenor of discourse

8.6 Types of domain/register and its features

8.7 Check your progress II

8.8 Terms to remember

8.9 Summary

8.10 Exercises

8.11 Key to check your progress

8.0 Objectives

After studying this unit the students will be able to:

- identify types of discourse
- understand functions and characteristics of speech and writing
- know the types of tenor
- understand various domains of discourse
- analyze spoken and written discourse

8.1 Introduction:

In the earlier units, 1 to 6 we have studied the theoretical part pertaining to phonology, syntax. In the previous unit i.e. unit no 7 we have studied cohesive devices, their uses, types and identification in the given passage. In this unit we have to employ the theoretical part for practical purpose. From this point of view we have to study discourse analysis. First of all we will discuss what is discourse and their types. Then we will discuss the functions and characteristics of spoken and written discourse. After that we will study what is tenor and its types. Finally, we will study types of domain.

8.2 Subject Matter I:

What is Discourse?

The higher unit than a sentence is a discourse. A discourse is a piece of language and it is bigger than sentence. The discourse may consist of a few sentences or there may be a number of them, it may be only one paragraph or many paragraphs. The term is used to refer to spoken as well as written language. It may be literary or non-literary. It can be any sample of language. It covers the areas such as: 1. how the language is used in real life situations, 2. how it changes according to the purpose it is used for, 3. how it reflects the relationship between the addresser and the addressee.

A word 'discourse' is derived from the French word *discours*, Latin *discursus* meaning 'running to and fro' which denotes written and spoken communications, and in the Medieval Latin meaning 'argument'. The word 'discourse' is taken from the Latin verb *discurrere*, which can be split as 'dis-' meaning 'away and 'currere' meaning 'to run'. The verb is influenced by the French verb *discourir*. This meaning is stated considering discourse as the process of reasoning.

According to Leech, discourse is a unit of language which is bigger than a single sentence. Discourse is further defined by various dictionaries and encyclopedias as—

1. a verbal interchange of ideas
2. a formal and orderly and usually extended expression of thought on a subject
3. a connected series of utterances
4. a linguistic unit (as a conversation or a story) larger than a sentence

5. a formal way of thinking that can be expressed through language
6. a mode of organizing knowledge, ideas, or experience that is rooted in language and its concrete contexts

From the above definitions, we can say that a discourse can be a spoken or written language.

Language varies according to its use. REGISTER can be used to refer to variation according to use, which is sometime known as 'style'. There are categories which affect the variation in language. According to Leech, these categories are TENOR, MODE and DOMAIN.

Mode of discourse: spoken and written

As far as the medium of communication is concerned the discourse may be either in written mode or in spoken form. We use both these modes in our day to day life for different purposes. Many people believe that written language is standard while spoken language is sub-standard. However, if we glance at the origin and development of any language, it becomes clear that spoken language developed over thousands of years while written language is recent phenomena in human history. The relative permanence, visible form, better reliability and compactness of expression give superiority to written language in our actual use. We must remember that speech is primary and it is used more than written form. It is an everyday activity for all of us while writing is meant for certain occasions and purposes. Comparatively, it is used by a few people. Speech is quick and direct communication supported by the physical presence of the addresser, writing is an indirect, elaborate and planned communication. In fact we need them both as they are complementary in function.

It is said that the written language is secondary to its spoken form, which developed first. As is true that spoken language comes first before the writing. As per the historical and sociological study, spoken language comes first to written one. In the world, there exist so many languages which are being spoken but they have no written scripts as such. At an individual level also, a child learns first to speak before it learns to write.

But in the evolution of culture, the written language has got prime importance. The societies which have writing scripts, the written language is very important from

a social and educational point of view. We cannot imagine a society which functions without using written discourse. On the other hand, literacy is associated with civilization and education. So, the written language acquires greater prestige than the spoken language which has more official recognition. Written language is often considered as more 'correct' than spoken language. From a legal point of view also, the written language is important than the spoken one. So from a linguistic point of view, we can only say that speech and writing are different but we cannot say that one is superior to the other.

The category of mode is significant because it is related to the distinction between speech and writing. It has to do with the effect of the medium in which the language is transmitted. The distinction can be made between the auditory and visual medium of language, that is, speech and writing. Spoken language used in face-to-face situations makes use of many non-verbal movements such as gestures and facial expressions. In telephonic conversation, where the visual channel is not available, the verbal indicators like 'Yes' is substituted for head-nodding. In writing, only a visual channel is available, so the effect of intonation cannot be conveyed, except sometimes through graphic means like exclamation and question marks. Thus the category of mode is concerned with the difference between written and spoken language.

8.3 Functions and characteristics of Writing and Speech:

Functions of Writing and Speech

Due to social importance of written language, writing has become more useful in day to life because it has some extra functions compared to speech. The following are some of the functions given by Leech:

1. Writing is relatively permanent which allows for record-keeping
2. Writing allows communication over a great distance by letters, newspapers, etc., and to a large numbers simultaneously by publications of all kinds. As writing is visible, it can be carefully planned and revised by the writer.
3. As far as reader is concerned, written language can be processed at leisure, with a part of it reread and others omitted at will. This promotes the development of literature and intellectual development in general by overcoming the limitations of human memory.

But the speech has its own functions, which is unique compared to writing:

1. Speech achieves quick, direct communication with immediate response from the addressee.
2. It is important in integrating an individual into a social group. The persons who cannot speak, even though they may be able to write, often experience severe social isolation.
3. Speech is used vastly compared to writing. It is everyday activity for almost everyone, whereas writing is not.

After the thorough discussion about the functions of writing and speech, we may conclude that speech and writing are complementary in function. We cannot say that one is more important than the other as we need to use both.

The Form of Speech and Writing:

Speech and writing differ in form as a result of the difference of medium. Certain features of speech which are absent in writing are rhythm, intonation and non-linguistic noises such as sighs and laughter. Speech is also accompanied by non-verbal communication such as gestures and facial expression. These features cannot be conveyed by conventional writing systems. Writing also has several features which speech lacks, including punctuation, paragraphing and the capitalization of letters. Written language can be spoken probably more easily than spoken language can be written, but features of speech such as intonation have to be introduced by the speaker. Intonation can be conveyed partially by punctuation. The intonation of the sentence *I'll take a taxi to the station* will differ according to whether the means of transport (taxi) or the destination (station) is the most important idea. This will be clear if you try reading the sentence aloud in different ways. The different meanings implied by the differences of intonation would be difficult to convey in writing without changing the structure of the sentence.

Characteristics of Speech and Writing

There are certain linguistic characteristics of 'typical' speech and 'typical' writing though there is some overlap between the two. For the sake of convenience, we will discuss the 'typical' characteristics of speech, and compare them with 'typical' writing.

The characteristics of 'typical' speech given by Leech are:

1. Inexplicitness
2. Lack of clear sentence boundaries
3. Simple structure
4. Repetitiveness
5. Normal non-fluency
6. Monitoring and interaction features
7. Informality of style

Now we will discuss these characteristics in detail.

1. Inexplicitness:

Generally speech is used in face-to-face situation, both auditory and visual media. So speech is less explicit compared to writing. It is because we can express extra information by body language using facial expression and gestures. We can even refer to the immediate physical environment, for example, by pointing to objects or people. As, in speech, the speaker and the audience share their knowledge, their conversation becomes explicitness unnecessary. In conversation, there is an opportunity for feedback from the hearer so the message can be clarified or repeated. In speech we frequently make use of pronouns like *I, you, it, this* and *that*, so speech becomes inexplicit. Look at the following conversation giving attention to the italicized pronouns:

- A. How did *it* go?
B. Not too bad. *I*'m just glad *it*'s over.
A. Was *it* the last *one*?
B. Yeah, for the time being.

The feature of ellipsis is found in the responses like *Yeah, for the time being*, which can fully uttered as *Yeas, it was the last on for the time being*. We can even imagine what it might be about, e.g. a written examination or a tooth extraction.

2. Lack of clear sentence boundaries:

In speech, as it is in writing, there are no sentence boundaries which are marked using punctuation marks. In order to convey the meaning, the speaker uses

intonation, pause, stress, etc. On the other hand in writing one can use capitalization, dash, space to indicate sentence boundaries. Some punctuation marks like question mark, exclamatory mark, themselves express the meaning of the sentence in written discourse. So it can be said that speech has its own grammar as writing. In speech it becomes very difficult to know about sentence boundaries because of ellipsis of sounds in rapid speech. In speech, we cannot firmly recognize where a particular sentence ends and when the next sentence begins. On the other hand, in writing, these sentence boundaries are clearly indicated by punctuation marks.

3. Simple structure:

Generally, speech is more simple in grammatical structure than writing. In speech we use simpler and shorter sentences, while in writing we have longer and complex sentences. The complexity of structure depends on the length of a sentence i.e. number of words in a sentence. The average length of a written sentence, according to Leech, is about eighteen words. On the other hand, the average length of an independent unit of grammar in speech is no more than five or six words. This depends upon how we segment speech into independent units. This does not mean that spoken structure is always simple. Certain kinds of complexity, such as the subordination of noun clauses after *I think, did you know*, and so on, are very natural to speech:

[I think [you'll find [it counts towards your income]]].

The square brackets here show the subordination of one clause in another, but the sentence is not difficult to interpret, because the complexity is loaded at the end of the utterance. This is a general tendency in English, particularly in spoken English. The structure of spoken grammar is not necessarily simple in terms of subordinate and coordinate clauses, but its complexity is typically not of the kind that causes difficulty in the linear processing of the message.

4. Repetitiveness:

As speech is not permanent, naturally, it becomes repetitive compared to writing. In spoken address, important information/message has to be repeated as a speaker cannot refer back to what has gone before again and again. This is noticed in TV advertisements and unplanned dialogue:

- A. and that is about *what happens when someone leaves a job of their own accord – so what happens when someone leaves a job of their own accord what happens* to their unemployment benefit
 - B. {{suspended}}
 - C. {{suspended pending}} enquiries
 - D. yeah
- A. but not |*it's suspended it's suspended* but *it's* not disallowed

Note: {{ }} signals overlapping speech.

In this extract from a professional tutorial, the repeated elements are in italics.

Spoken discourse tends to be less densely packed with formation per word than written texts. The strong contrast between speech and writing is seen in the usage of nouns and pronouns. Nouns, the words which tend to be rich in specific information frequently occur in written discourse. On the other hand, pronouns, poor in information, are especially high in speech. Another indication of the lower information load of speech is the tendency for speech to rely heavily on highly frequent and formulaic multi-word expressions, such as *I don't know why . . . , so I said well . . . and you don't have to . . .*

5. Normal non-fluency:

Lack of fluency is normally found in spontaneous speech. It results from the unprepared nature of speech and includes phenomena such as hesitations, unintended repetitions (e.g. *I've I've ...*), false starts, fillers (e.g. *um, er*), Grammatical blends and unfinished sentences. A blend occurs where a sentence begins in one way and ending in another, for example in *He's a closet yuppie is what he is*. This utterance begins as a normal declarative clause **SPC**, but then finishes like a clause with inversion and fronting of the complement: **CPS**. It is as if two different complete clauses, *He's a closet yuppie* and *A closet yuppie is what he is*, have somehow been merged together. This is slightly different from a 'false start', where a sentence is broken off midway as a result of a change of mind, *You really ought – well do it you own way*. These non-fluencies are edited out of written language.

6. Monitoring and interaction features:

These features represent the social dimension of speech. They generally occur in dialogue, with a physically present addressee, rather than in monologue. MONITORING features indicate the speaker's awareness of the addressee's presence and reactions, and include adverbs and adverbials such as *well, I mean, like, sort of, you know*. INTERACTION features invite the active participation of the addresser, as in questions, imperatives, second-person pronouns, and interjection (*no, okay, oops*, etc.). Two constructions with particular interaction potential are tag questions and first-person imperatives with *let's*:

It's delicious; *isn't it*

Okay, *let's* clean it up.

Writing generally lacks these features, although with the recent upsurge of electronic modes of communication like e-mail, chat group, virtual worlds, texting, dialogue features are taking a firm foothold in the written language of 'net speak'.

7. Informality

Speech is mostly used in informal situations. The speaker and listener are related to each other in an informal manner. So the rigidity of writing is absent in their speech. Grammatical rules are not followed very faithfully. In writing rules of grammar and other conventions are observed carefully.

The situations in which speech is used are generally less formal than those in which writing is used. Therefore, the linguistic characteristics of informality, such as the use of contractions in VPs – *it's, don't*, etc., generally appear in speech, while those reflecting formality appear in writing. The features of informality include all the features of spoken grammar that make it casual, intimate, and the opposite of formal. There are non-standard language and dialect grammar, 'chummy' use of vocatives like *mate, dude*, and *lovey*, and taboo language (swearing).

While thinking about speech and writing, we must remember that some of these feature can overlap each other and perhaps they can appear in either of them. The degree of its presence decides its mode. A dialogue between two unknown persons may be very formal and can have clear sentence boundaries. The spoken language can be explicit. Charles Lamb's essays, though in written form, have a greater degree of non- fluency and interaction features.

8.4 Check your progress I

A. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/ sentence

1. Which is the higher unit than a sentence?
2. To which forms of language does the term discourse refer to?
3. Where the word 'discourse' is derived from?
4. Which are the two modes of discourse?
5. Which is the primary mode of language?
6. Which is the secondary mode of language?
7. Which form of language is relatively permanent?
8. Which form of language is used widely?
9. Which form of language is less explicit?
10. Which form of language has lack of clear sentence boundaries?
11. How is the structure of speech?
12. Why is there repetition in speech?
13. Which form of language has non-fluency?
14. What do monitoring features indicate?
15. What form of language is used in informal situations?

B. Identify the mode (speech or writing) of the given discourse giving two characteristics.

Passage 1

May I come in sir?

Yes, come in. Take that seat.

Thank you, sir. Good afternoon Sir.

Good afternoon. What is your name?

Desai, Anil Desai, Sir.

What is your native place, Mr. Desai?

I am from Anand in Gujarat, Sir.

Oh! Anand. What is Anand famous for?

It is mainly known for the biggest milk project in Asia- Amul.

I can see that you did your B.Com in 2012. What did you do after that?

I have completed MBA course.

Are you familiar with computer operations?

Yes Sir, in fact I have completed a one year computer course.

All right, Mr. Desai. We shall let you know within a week.

Thank you, Sir.

Passage 2

My holidays were almost over now. I decided to go back to Delhi. On the day of my departure my mother took me into my grandmother's room to take my leave of her. She was sitting up in bed and she seemed better than she had been in a long time. She talked quite cheerfully about my college and the forthcoming examinations. I touched her feet and as always, she pulled my head to her breast, to bless me. I heard the quiet familiar murmur of her blessings. I jerked my head out of her hands. She met my gaze and smiled. I could not believe that this withered powerless woman was the same person that I had so much loved and feared.

Passage 3

Mrs. Brewster, you saw her this morning? What time?

Er.... hm.... at five minutes past ten.

Then she went away?

Yes, Sir,

Alone?

Yes, sir.

Did you see which direction she took?

She went round that point....there.....to the.....

And the time was.....?

Erm....er..... a quarter past..... no, it could be half past ten.

Please don't go away. I'll need you again. Yes, sir.

Passage 4

Science and technology play a great role in the development of a country. In India, though late, technology started showing its results in the villages. Villagers are also giving positive response to the various schemes of the central government as well as state government. They came to know that the use of technology can solve their problems

Technology can be employed to solve many problems of rural population. For instance, life of women in villages is made miserable by the smoke of the chulhas. Technology has offered very decent and cheaper solar stoves. They can save women from the smoke and at the same time save our forests. Another such contribution of our technology is the tube well. It has solved the problem of water supply in the rural areas. It is true that tube wells are expensive, but the government has provided generous schemes for subsidizing public as well as private tube wells. The problem of drainage in the rural areas is solved by introducing biogas plants. It has not only solved the problem of drainage, it has at the same time provided cheap electricity to the farmers.

8.5 Subject matter II: Tenor of discourse

In the preceding part of this unit we saw closely the effect of mode of language. We noticed particularly how speech and writing differ from one another. In this part we shall see how other kinds of language differ from one another. We saw how people vary their language according to whether they are speaking or writing. Now we shall see how people vary their language according to factors such as who they are speaking to, in what situation, and what kind of activity the language is being used for.

This involves us in investigating the effect of the categories of language use that we call Tenor and Domain.

Tenor

The tenor of discourse means the relationship between the addresser and the addressee. This relationship may be very formal or very informal. Official, legal and technical language is very formal. It doesn't indicate any intimacy between the addresser and the addressee. However, a conversation between a husband and a wife will be very informal. If we regard these two types as two end-points on the scale of relationship, there can be various degrees of formality or informality between two persons. This relationship is naturally reflected in the language they use. The tenor of a conversation between a solicitor and a client would be very formal.

The relationship between the addresser and the addressee can be expressed with reference to the three aspects: 1. Formal and informal, 2. Polite and familiar, 3. Impersonal and personal.

Formal and informal

Formal language makes use of more complex sentences. The clause structures are more complex, both horizontal and vertical. In a horizontally complex sentence, we have elements such as many modifiers in a phrase and many elements of the clause in a sentence. In a vertically complex sentence, there are clauses embedded in phrases and other clauses. The greater complexity of structure reflects a greater degree of formality. Informal language makes use of simpler and shorter sentences. Formal language demands classical vocabulary while informal language makes use of native and familiar vocabulary. In formal language we come across words like relinquish, exterminate, pandemonium, decipher, decentralize etc. in informal style we make use of words like give up, noise, discontinue etc. In informal style monosyllabic words are used while in formal style disyllabic and polysyllabic words are used.

Polite and familiar

The greater degree of politeness means a greater degree of formality. Manners, conventions, relationship are observed in politeness. The respectful words like sir, madam, Honourable, respected etc. are used. The indirect requests like 'will you hand over those papers?', 'would you lend me your pen?' are used in greater number. Intimate terms of address like Mary, dear, etc. are used

Impersonal and personal

Impersonal relationship calls for passive constructions. Passive constructions and third person noun phrases keep the addressee at some distance from the addresser. This style is used for reporting news items, describing process or procedures. Personal style appeals directly to the readers or listeners and establishes a friendly relationship. It adds something to the dramatic presentation of events. It makes the narrative or description more lively and appealing. The first person description of an accident is more like than a detailed news report on it.

These three interrelated scales of use can be depicted in the following table.

<p>Formal</p> <p>Complex sentences</p> <p>Polysyllable, classical vocabulary</p> <p><i>Investigate, extinguish, decipher</i></p>	<p>Informal</p> <p>Simple sentences</p> <p>Monosyllabic, native vocabulary, especially phrasal verbs, e.g.</p> <p><i>Look into, put out, make out</i></p>
<p>Polite</p> <p>Respectful terms of address, e.g.</p> <p><i>Sir</i></p> <p>Indirect requests, e.g. <i>would you please hand over the pen?</i></p>	<p>Familiar</p> <p>Intimate terms of address, if any, e.g.</p> <p><i>Mary, love</i></p> <p>Direct imperatives, e.g. <i>help me....</i></p>
<p>Impersonal</p> <p>Passive voice, e.g. <i>the attackers were killed</i></p> <p>Third person noun phrases, e.g. <i>the students, customers</i></p>	<p>Personal</p> <p>Active voice, e.g. <i>police shot the attackers</i></p> <p>First and second person pronouns, e.g. <i>I, you, we</i></p>

8.6 Types of domain/register and its features

The domain of discourse is also called as the field of discourse. These fields of discourse are journalism, advertising, religion, law, literature, conversation, science and so on. The language used in one domain varies from the language used for other

domains. It varies according to the function it performs. It is used to give information, to express feelings, to persuade somebody to do something, to write literature, or to talk about language itself. In each domain, the language used performs some dominant functions. Technical terms for these functions are referential, conative, expressive, poetic, phatic, and metalinguistic functions.

Although there are no clear-cut boundaries, we can have the following categories of domains. Each domain uses a specific set of language which is known as the register of language.

1. Journalism

The language used for journalism is formal, typically classical, and somewhat structurally complex. A reporter tries to give maximum information in minimum words. He tries to give every detail so that the clear picture is presented. However his report may not be as accurate and technical as the police report. In reports, the details of information are tagged together in shorter and compact phrases.

2. Advertising

Advertisements use a kind of telegraphic language. Less importance is given to the verbal-forms and grammar words; sometimes they are totally omitted. They use minor sentences, particularly, nominal groups. They try to achieve brevity and pointedness. Various tricks like catch phrases, rhythmic pattern, poetic lay-out, spelling peculiarities, word play, persuading appeals, repetitions of certain word and phrases – are used to bring home the importance of the goods advertised.

3. Religion

Language in religious books is sonorous and rhythmic. Archaic words like *thy*, *thou*, *thee*, *wert*, *maketh*, *giveth* are used in religious scriptures. Incident or story narrated in these books leads to ethical teachings or moral lessons. There are references to mythology, philosophy and scriptures. There may be complex sentences but each clause is normally short and compact. There are repetitions of shorter clauses in the same patterns. In turn this helps the readers to comprehend it easily.

4. Law

Legal language is very technical and wordy. It pays attention to clear definitions. It achieves clarity by giving more clauses. There are many subordinate

clauses vertically tagged to the main clause. It uses archaic expressions, denotative and Latinate vocabulary. Certain grammatical words like herewith, hereunder, undersigned, above mentioned, aforesaid, noted below etc. are used. In legal language, examples of evidence, certain rules and laws are quoted or referred to. It makes use of impersonal terms.

5. Science

Scientific language uses a specific technical vocabulary appropriate for the subject. In regard to syntax, passive constructions and simple sentences are preferred to complex sentences. Ambiguities and different interpretations are avoided. The language sticks to its literal meaning and use. The style is impersonal and formal.

6. Conversation

A piece of conversation contains the features of spoken language. There are shorter responses and incomplete sentences. There is repetition of words, phrases, clauses, or concepts. Interactive and monitoring feature are present in it.

7. Literature

Literary language differs from non-literary language. It uses special vocabulary, syntax, imagery, figures of speech, style, and cohesive devices. It is symbolic and expressive. It can be interpreted on more than one level. The figures of speech and imagery lend to it special communicative power and value. Literary language can be studied under various aspects:

- a) **Lexis:** it means the vocabulary used in the literary discourse. The words can be formal or informal, simple or complex, monosyllabic or polysyllabic, abstract or concrete, archaic or familiar. It may contain verbs of motion, static verbs, colour adjectives, adjective referring to form or size.
- b) **Grammar:** It includes the types of sentences employed. The sentences may be simple or complex, subordinate or coordinate. The pattern of sentences may throw light on the theme and characters in the discourse.
- d) **Figures of speech:** it is special features employed by the author for communicative power. They heighten beauty of writing and add charm to it. We find similes, metaphors, alliteration, rhyme, onomatopoeia, personification etc.

- e) **Unity:** there must be unity in any writing. It must appear a unified whole. The theme or the matter is developed in a proper way. It is developed by giving details, comparisons, contrast, repetition, classification or process. There is beginning, middle and conclusion.
- f) **Cohesion:** it means linking devices. The sentences and paragraphs are related to each other. A sentence or the paragraph is related to the preceding or the following one. This cohesion is achieved through structural devices. There are two kinds of linking devices, i) overt and ii) covert. Overt devices are *and, or, but, so, hence, although, however, in addition to, furthermore, moreover*, etc. Sometimes serial numbers like 1,2,3,4.... are used. Covert devices are found in the structure of the literary discourse. It consists of the author's point of view, repetition of important words or ideas.

8.7 Check your progress II

A. Answer the following questions in one word/phrase/ sentence

1. What does tenor mean?
2. Mention the types of tenor.
3. What type of conversation is between a teacher and student?
4. What type of conversation will be between a husband and a wife?
5. What type sentences are used in formal language?
6. What type sentences are used in informal language?
7. What does the greater complexity of structure reflect?
8. What does the greater degree of politeness mean?
9. What type of relationship calls for passive constructions?
10. What type of syllabic word is used in formal language?
11. What type of syllabic word is used in informal language?
12. What is the domain of discourse also called as?
13. Mention the main fields of domain.
14. What type of language is used in journalism?

15. What type of language is used in advertisements
16. In which domain archaic words like *thy, thou, thee*, are used?
17. How is legal language?
18. In which language ambiguities and different interpretations are avoided?
19. Which features does a piece of conversation contain?
20. In which language figures of speech are employed?

B. Identify the domain/ register and the tenor of the following discourse giving two features.

Passage 1

The court ordered the public prosecutor to open with his case. The court also ordered the adversary advocate to file his written statement. The public prosecutor read out the charge to the accused and explained the section under which he and his co-accused committed the crime. Once the charge was explained Hon'ble Court asked whether the accused admits the charge and tenders his confession. If confession is not tendered the court asked the Public Prosecutor to proceed and have the witness examined.

Passage 2

A crane is machine which lifts heavy loads and displaces them horizontally. Unlike a hoist which is only a lifting device, a crane can lift loads and move to a different position in the horizontal plane. We can divide cranes into two main classes. They are Jib cranes and Overhead travelling cranes. Jib cranes have a Jib or arm, from which the load is suspended. The Jib allows the load to be raised or lowered and then deposited at any point within its radius. Movement of the Jib in the vertical plane is known as derricking. The rotation of the Jib in the horizontal plane is called slewing

Passage 3

Allway furniture systems

Your key to a readymade

office. Executive Tables,

chairs, Filing cabinets
Almirah. And a host of other
Office accessories.

Allway. The metalcraft legend
that put its expertise to work.
And create office furniture
that is guaranteed to outlast
life-time.

Allway. Designed for today's
Corporate Needs. And destined
to match tomorrow's.

Passage 4

Boy dies after being beaten by classmates

Times News Network

Nashik: Eleven school boys have been booked by the Sangmaner city police for alleged thrashing a classmate, 13-year-old boy, an incident which eventually led to his death on July1.

The boys have been booked under section 302 of Indian Penal Code, on a complaint registered by the mother of the boy on Tuesday.

“The group of 11-classmates of my son always picked a fight with him and thrashed him. Kiran had complained four times before and had also told the teachers of the school, but no action was taken until I lost my child”, said Rohini, Kiran’s mother.

According to the police, the group of Std VII boys from Nutan Vidyalaya in Rajapur, six km from Sangmaner, got into a fight with Kiran on June 26. On the second occasion, the boys allegedly banged Kiran’s head on classroom bench and then on one of the trees on the campus.

The police said the child did not exhibit any visible injury after the fight. He attended classes and went home, where he, Kiran breathed his last on June 30 and a case of accidental death was registered with the Sarkarwada police.

8.8 Terms to remember

- discourse : the higher unit than a sentence .
- mode: type, written or spoken
- Inexplicitness: not clear
- tenor: the relationship between the addresser and the addressee
- domain: fields of discourse
- complex sentences: containing more than one clause
- simple sentences: containing one clause
- cohesion: linking devices
- lexis: the vocabulary used in the literary discourse
- addressee: listener
- addresser: speaker

8.9 Summary

We have seen that discourse is higher than a sentence. There are two modes of discourse. They are spoken and written. Spoken language developed over thousands of years while written language is recent phenomena in human history. The relative permanence, visible form, better reliability and compactness of expression give superiority to written language in our actual use. However, speech is primary and it is used more than written form. It is an everyday activity for all of us while writing is meant for certain occasions and purposes. Comparatively, it is used by a few people. Speech is quick and direct communication supported by the physical presence of the addresser, writing is an indirect, elaborate and planned communication. In fact we need them both as they are complementary in function. Speech is inexplicitness, while writing is explicit. Writing employs complex structure, while speech simple one. There is of lack of clear sentence boundaries in speech. On the other hand, there are clear sentence boundaries in writing. There is repetition in speech but there is no

repetition in writing. There is normal fluency in writing; there is lack of fluency in speech. Monitoring and interaction features are present in speech while these are absent in writing. Speech employs informal style, writing employs formal style.

Then we discussed tenor. It means the relationship between the addresser and the addressee. This relationship may be very formal or very informal. Official, legal and technical language is very formal. It doesn't indicate any intimacy between the addresser and the addressee. The relationship between the addresser and the addressee can be expressed with reference to the three aspects: 1. Formal and informal, 2. Polite and familiar, 3. Impersonal and personal.

Finally we discussed the domain. The domain of discourse is also called as the field of discourse. These fields of discourse are journalism, advertising, religion, law, literature, conversation, science and so on. The language used in one domain varies from the language used for other domains. It varies according to the function it performs. It is used to give information, to express feelings, to persuade somebody to do something, to write literature, or to talk about language itself. In each domain, the language used performs some dominant functions. Each domain uses a specific a specific set of language which is known as the register of language.

8.10 Exercises

A. Identify the mode (speech or writing) of the given discourse giving two characteristics.

Passage 1

Smitha : Hello! Is the bus to Pune Bus Station coming now?

Swati : Yes. Two buses have to come now. I too want to go to the Pune Bus Station.

Smitha : Oh! I see. Are you working in that area.

Swati : Yes, I am working in a firm in that area. So, everyday, I go to Pune Bus Station and from there I have to walk a short distance. Are you also working in that area? Do you go there every day?

Smitha : No, I am not working there, and I do not go there every day. Today, I have to go to the railway station to receive my brother.

Swati : I see. What is your brother?

Smitha : He is working as an engineer.

Swati : I see. My son is also working as an engineer.

Smita: Where sir ?

Swati: His working in the New India Computer Company.

Smita: New India Computer Company? My brother is also working in the same company.

Swati: What is his name?

Smita: Soham.

Swati: Really? I will ask my brother to meet him.

Smita: When?

Swati: Today.

Smita: Okay.

Swati: The bus is coming. See you.

Smita: Thankyou. See you.

Passage 2

It took several centuries for mankind to become sensitive to dirt. We have known civilization in which flies were considered domestic pets. As we move towards a civilized existence we develop a clean and antiseptic consciousness and try to avoid all swamp and stagnation, flies and fleas and all kinds of bad things that are said to spread disease and death.

When will a similar outlook develop towards another evil-noise? I see no difference between dirt and noise. Dirt affects the body while noise affects the mind. It is tolerated only because it is unseen. I wish scientist would discover some straining medium which would set off the sound waves as they surge onward and crash on the ear drums of a poor mortal. Then people will realize the true nature of noise and make a concerted effort to eradicate the evil.

B. Identify the domain/ register and the tenor of the following discourse giving two features.

Passage no.1

A place where two or more bones of human skeleton come together and are attached to one another by some means or other, is known as a joint. There are three main types of joint based on the movements: Fibrous, cartilaginous and synovial. Fibrous joints have fibrous tissue between bones and these joints are immovable. examples are skull, teeth etc.

Cartilaginous joints are slightly moveable joints. This is the type in which a layer of cartilage joins the bones. Due to this cartilage slight movement is possible. The example of such joints are intervertebral disc and pubic symphysis. The third type of joints is synovial joints, which are freely moveable. They are six in number. plane joints can be found in wrist and ankle. Socket joints in hip and shoulders. Hinge joints in knee and elbow. Condylod joints can be found in the wrist. A pivot joint moves around a single axis, for example, first and second vertebrae. Saddle joints are in the thumb.

Passage no.2

AT QUIKR, WE BELIEVE IT'S EASY TO CHANGE. BECAUSE WHEN YOU CHANGE SOMETHING, IT CHANGES YOU AUTOMATICALLY.

CHANGE YOUR FUTURE, AND IT CHANGES THE WAY YOU SPEND TIME WITH YOUR FAMILY.

CHANGE YOUR VEHICLE, AND IT CHANGES THE WAY YOU FEEL ABOUT TRAFFIC.

CHANGE YOUR HOME, AND IT CHANGES THE WAY YOU LOOK AT YOUR CITY, COUNTRY, LIFE.

AT QUIKR, WE HELP YOU BUY SELL AND FIND THINGS THAT INSPIRE CHANGE.

WE BELIEVE IT WILL CHANGE THE WAY YOU LOOK AT CHANGE.

Quikr

IS NOW

Quikr

Aasaan hai badalna

Passage no.3

All the seats in the court were occupied by the people. The public prosecutor was waiting for the indication from the court. The Court ordered the Public Prosecutor to open with the case. The court also ordered the adversary advocate to file his return statement. The public prosecutor read out the charge to the accused and explained the section under which he and his co-accused committed the crime. The accused looked gloomy and serious. Once the charge was explained, Hon'ble Court asked whether the accused admits the charge and tenders his confession. If confession is not tendered the Court asked the Public Prosecutor to proceed and have the witness examined. The Public Prosecutor read out the name of the first witness who immediately appeared and stood in the witness box.

Passage no.4

Learn to live within means, babus to be told in anti-graft programme

Times News Network

Mumbai: To check corruption, which threatens to affect the state's Make-in Maharashtra plans, government employees will be counseled to manage expenses within their salaries and not succumb to temptation.

The programme, which will cover all categories of state government employees, right from the Mantralaya officer to the taluka clerk and peon, will start in Nagpur this month and eventually spread across the state. The initiative is by the Maharashtra State Gazetted Officers' Federation, an apex body of 70 government employee unions, which despite the nomenclature, includes non-gazetted staff as well.

The exercise, involving nearly 20 lakh employees, is backed by the Devendra Fadavis-led government and top ranks of the state administration, who are rattled by the growing number of ACB traps on government officials and pervasive corruption among the middle and lower bureaucracy.

8.11 Key to check your progress

Check your progress I

- A.
1. discourse
 2. spoken and written
 3. from the French word *discours*
 4. spoken and written
 5. spoken
 6. written
 7. written
 8. spoken
 9. spoken
 10. spoken
 11. simple structure:
 12. as a speaker cannot refer back to what has gone before again and again
 13. spoken
 14. monitoring features indicate the speaker's awareness of the addressee's presence and reactions,
 15. spoken and simple

B. Passage 1

1. It is spoken discourse. It is an interview for some post.

Characteristics:

1. Use of simple sentence, e.g. May I come in sir?, I have completed MBA course.
2. Use of monosyllabic words, e.g. may, come, good, see, course.
3. Face to face situation, e.g. May I come in sir?

Yes, come in. take that seat.

4. The use of words like 'sir', 'all right', 'thank you' indicates that it is a spoken discourse.

Passage 2

It is a written discourse. It is a narration of the departure of the author and his leave taking of the grandmother.

Characteristics:

1. Clear cut sentence boundaries. All the sentences begin with capital letters and end with full stops.
2. Fluency: there is fluency in the narration, there is no staggering.
3. Explicitness: the narration is explicit in itself, the message is clear.

Passage 3

It is a spoken discourse. It is perhaps a conversation between the master and the servant.

Characteristics:

1. Lack of sentence boundaries. There are incomplete sentences, e.g. 'there....', 'to the.....'
2. Normal non-fluency: the use of 'er', 'hm' indicates non fluency.
3. Use of body language which is typical of speech, e.g. 'that point....there.....to the.....'

Passage 4

It is written discourse. It is about the use of technology in the rural areas.

Characteristics:

1. Clear sentence boundaries. All the sentences begin with capital letters and end with full stops. For example, 'Science and technology play a great role in the development of a country'. 'Technology has offered very decent and cheaper solar stoves'.
2. Fluency: the description of the role of science and technology in villages is stated in the normal fluent manner.

3. The use of complex sentences: there are complex sentences used in the discourse, e.g. 'They came to know that the use of technology can solve their problems'. 'Technology can be employed to solve many problems of rural population'.

Check your progress II

- A.**
1. the relationship between addresser and addressee
 2. formal and informal
 3. formal
 4. informal
 5. complex sentences
 6. simple
 7. formality.
 8. a greater degree of formality
 9. impersonal
 10. polysyllabic
 11. monosyllabic
 12. the field of discourse
 13. the main fields of domain are journalism, advertising, religion, law, literature, conversation, science and so on
 14. formal, typically classical, and somewhat structurally complex
 15. a kind of telegraphic language
 16. in religious scriptures.
 17. very technical and wordy
 18. science
 19. the features of spoken language
 20. literary

B. Passage 1

Register/domain: law

Tenor: Formal

Characteristics:

1. The use of vocabulary related to law. e.g. court, public prosecutor, advocate, Hon'ble Court, witness.
2. The use of complete sentences, e.g. 'The court ordered the public prosecutor to open with his case'.
3. The use of complex sentences, e.g. 'The public prosecutor read out the charge to the accused and explained the section under which he and his co-accused committed the crime'.

Passage 2

Domain/register: science/technology

It is formal

Characteristics:

1. Use of technical vocabulary e.g. crane, horizontally, Jib cranes, Overhead travelling cranes, derricking, vertical plane.
2. Definitions given, e.g. a crane is machine which lifts heavy loads and displaces them horizontally.
3. Analytical method employed e.g. we can divide cranes into two main classes. They are Jib cranes and Overhead travelling cranes. Jib cranes have a Jib or arm, from which the load is suspended.
4. Fluency: the function and types of crane are fluently explained.

Passage 3

The domain/ register: Advertisement

It is informal: the language is very simple, the layout is poetic.

Characteristic features:

1. Poetic lay out: the layout is poetic which is characteristic of advertisement
2. Use of catch phrases like metalcraft legend, executive tables, filing cabinets etc.
3. Use of direct address: the use of second person pronoun like 'your' is feature of advertisement which appeals the readers directly.
4. Use of nominal word group like 'furniture system' 'office furniture.'

5. Repetition: The important words are repeated e.g. 'Allway' 'Furniture'
6. Use of catch-phrases like 'readymade office', filing cabinets almirah'

Passage 4

Register/domain: Journalistic, News report

Tenor: Formal

Characteristics:

1. Caption: the news has caption, it is 'Boy dies after being beaten by classmates'
2. Dateline: the news report has source of the news and the place of news from where it is reported.
3. Structurally complex: the sentences used in the report are complex; clauses are embedded.
4. Use of Passive voice e.g. the boys have been booked under section 302 of Indian Penal Code,

Reference Books

Leech et.al: English Grammar for Today: A New Introduction, Macmillan, 2010.

Lyons John: Language and Linguistics: An Introduction, Cambridge University Press, 1981.

Verma S.K. and Krishnaswamy N. : Modern Linguistics, Oxford University Press, 1989.

