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Language and Linguistics

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Language and Linguistics

Unit	Details
I	Sounds of Language (I) Sounds of Language (II) Word Meaning
II	Morphology - Morphemes - Free and Bound Morphemes, Derivational versus Inflectional, Morphological Description: Morphs and Allomorphs
III	Phrases and Sentences: Grammar Grammar, Types of Grammar, Parts of Speech , Traditional Grammar, Traditional Categories, Traditional Analysis, The Prescriptive Approach, The Descriptive Approach , Structural analysis, Immediate Constituent Analysis, Labeled and Bracketed Sentences, A Gaelic sentence
IV	Syntax, Generative Grammar, Properties of Grammar, Deep and surface structure, Structural ambiguity, Different Approaches, Symbols used in syntactic description, Labeled diagrams, Phrase structure rules, Back to recursion, Transformational rules
V	Semantics, Conceptual versus Associative Meaning,

	Semantic features, Semantic roles, Lexical relations, Synonymy, Antonymy, Hyponymy, Prototypes, Homophony, Homonymy and Polysemy, Collocation

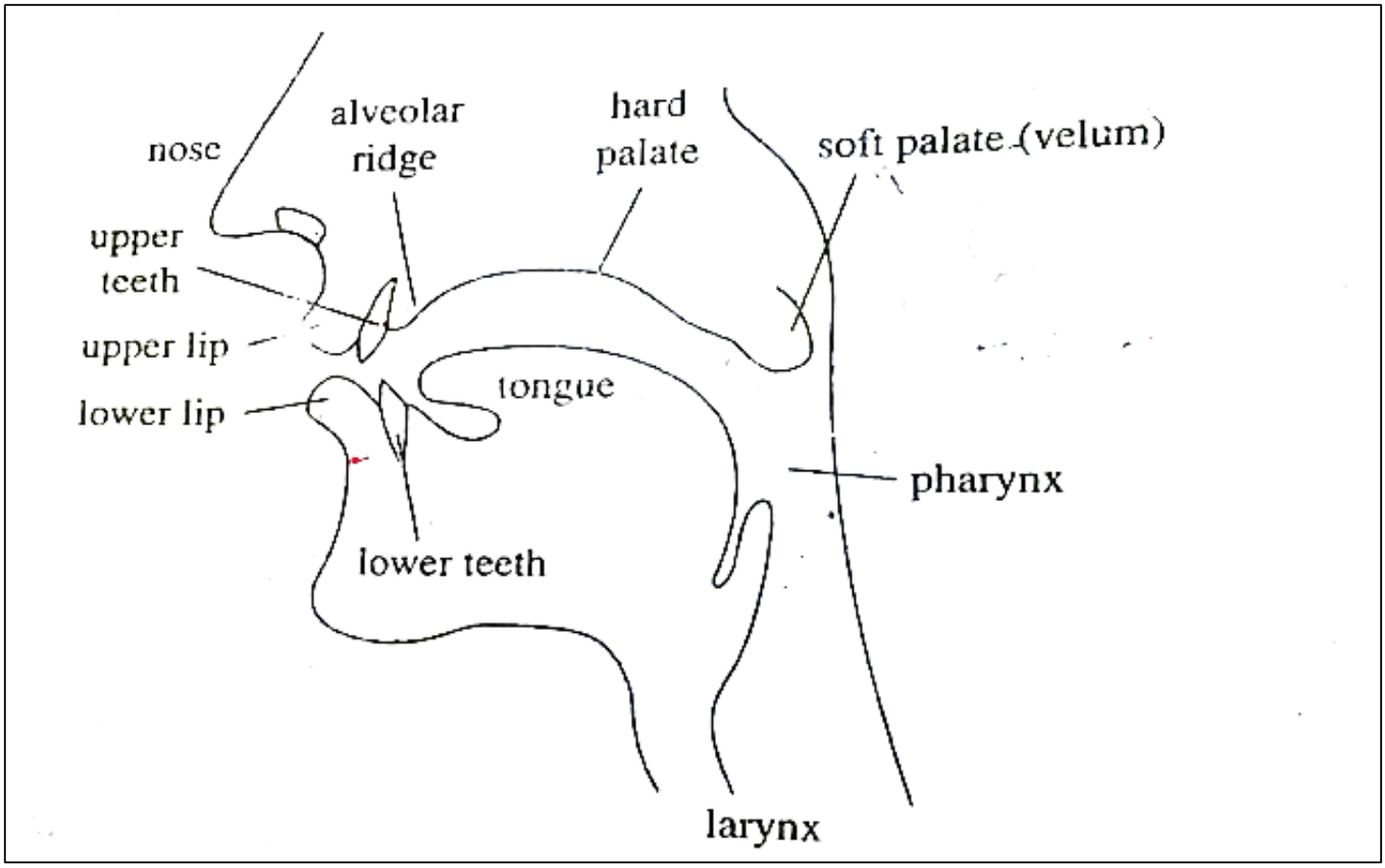
TEXT BOOKS
Wallwork, J.F. Language and Linguistics: An Introduction to the Study of Language. Heinemann Educational Books, London.
Yule, George. The Study of Language. Cambridge University Press

UNIT 1

Sounds of Language

Phonetics

The term "phonetics" originates from the Greek word *phōnētikós*, which translates to "voice" or "sound." It has several branches. The study of acoustic phonetics is concerned with the tangible properties of sounds. Articulatory phonetics investigates the mechanics of sound production and how these sounds travel through the air as vibrations, or "sound waves." Auditory phonetics, in contrast, studies how individuals perceive and interpret these sounds, referred to as "phones." Phonation, the process of producing speech sounds, involves airflow moving from the lungs through the trachea, reaching the larynx and vocal cords, where vibrations are created to produce voice. The sounds of English are produced through the collaboration of several speech organs, including the lips, tongue, teeth, alveolar ridge, palate, velum, uvula, glottis, and vocal cords. Each organ has a distinct role in producing vowels and consonants.



The International Phonetic Association developed a phonetic alphabet in 1888, designed to symbolize the sounds of every language. The sounds in all languages can be classified into two groups: consonants and vowels. **Consonants** are produced by creating some blockage or narrowing in the vocal tract that hinders the flow of air, whereas **vowels** involve minimal restriction, allowing air to pass freely through the mouth and/or nose.

Consonants

Category	Type	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	Voiceless	/p/			/t/			
	Voiced	/b/			/d/			
Nasal		/m/			/n/	/ŋ/		

	Voiced							
Fricative	Voiceless		/f/	/θ/	/s/	/ʃ/		/h/
	Voiced		/v/	/ð/	/z/	/ʒ/		
Affricative	Voiceless				/tʃ/			
	Voiced				/dʒ/			
Glide	Voiceless					/w/		
	Voiced					/j/		
Liquid	Voiced				/r/	/l/		

Consonants are classified based on place of articulation, manner of articulation, and voicing:

<u>Place of Articulation</u>

Bilabial : Produced by bringing the lips together (e.g., /p/, /b/, /m/, /w/).

Alveolar : Produced by raising the tongue to the alveolar ridge (e.g., /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/, /z/).

Velar : Produced by making contact between the tongue and the velum (soft palate) (e.g., /k/, /g/, /ŋ/).

Labiodental : Formed by the lower lip against the upper teeth (e.g., /f/, /v/).

Dental : Produced by placing the tongue tip against the upper teeth (e.g., /θ/, /ð/).

Palato-alveolar: Created by the tongue tip and blade moving to the alveolar ridge, while the front of the tongue moves toward the palate (e.g., /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/).

Post-alveolar: Formed by positioning the tongue near the back of the alveolar ridge (e.g., /r/).

Palatal : Produced by raising the tongue to the hard palate (e.g., /j/).

Glottal : Produced at the glottis, with vocal cords as the articulators (e.g., /h/).

Manner of Articulation

Stop (Plosives): Consonants like /p/, /b/, /t/, and /d/ are stops, where airflow is completely blocked at some point in the vocal tract.

Nasal : These consonants like /m/ and /n/ are produced with airflow through the nasal passage (e.g., /m/ for bilabial and /n/ for alveolar).

Fricative : These involve a narrow constriction that causes friction in airflow (e.g., /f/ for labiodental, /s/ for alveolar).

Affricate : A stop followed by a fricative (e.g., /ʧ/ and /ʤ/).

Glide : These are semi-vowel sounds that allow for free airflow (e.g., /w/ and /j/).

Liquid : These sounds allow for a continuous flow of air, often called lateral or central (e.g., /r/ and /l/).

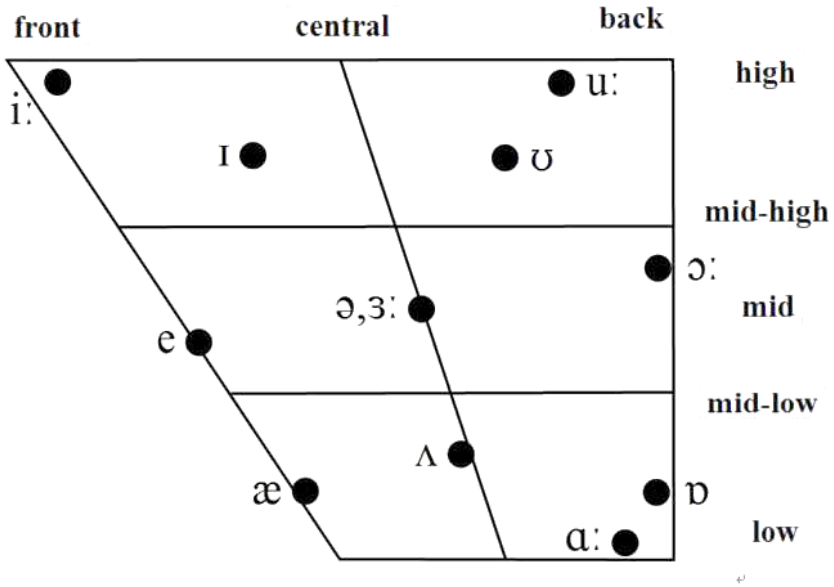
Voiced vs Voiceless Consonants

Consonant sounds in linguistics can be divided into two categories based on **voicing**: **voiceless** and **voiced**. **Voiceless consonants** are produced when the vocal cords are open, allowing air to pass through freely without causing vibration. These include sounds such as **/p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /θ/, /ʃ/, /ʧ/, /h/**.

In contrast, **voiced consonants** are formed when the vocal cords are held together and air passing through causes them to vibrate. This vibration is responsible for the sound being voiced. Examples of voiced sounds include **/b/, /d/, /g/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /w/**.

Vowels

English has a total of 20 vowel sounds, split into 12 pure vowels and 8 diphthongs. Pure vowels, also known as **monophthongs**, are stable, single sounds, while **diphthongs** (or **vowel glides**) are combination of two sounds involving a shift from one vowel sound to another within the same syllable. The term "gliding" refers to this movement from one vowel position to another. Vowels are sounds that are usually voiced and produced without any significant obstruction in the airflow. The air moves freely through the mouth without causing any friction. The vocal cords vibrate in all vowel sounds. In order to classify vowels, one considers two key factors: the horizontal position of the tongue (front, central, back) and the vertical position (close, half-close, half-open, open), which refers to how high or low the tongue is during articulation.



Monophthongs (Pure Vowels)

1. Close Vowels (High Vowels)

- **/i**:/ — close front unrounded
- **/ɪ/** — close near-front unrounded
- **/u**:/ — close back rounded
- **/ʊ/** — close near-back rounded

2. Half-Close Vowels

- **/e/** — half-close front unrounded
- **/ə/** — mid-central, also called the “schwa”, unrounded
- **/oʊ/** — half-close back rounded
- **/ɔ**:/ — half-open back rounded

3. Half-Open Vowels

- **/æ/** — near-open front unrounded
- **/ʌ/** — near-open central unrounded
- **/ɑ**:/ — open back unrounded

4. Open Vowels (Low Vowels)

- **/ɑ/** — open back unrounded
- **/ɒ/** — open back rounded
- **/æ/** — near-open front unrounded

Diphthongs (Gliding Vowels)

- **/eɪ/** — glide from near-front to mid
- **/aɪ/** — glide from near-front to near-high
- **/ɔɪ/** — glide from open-mid to near-front
- **/aʊ/** — glide from near-front to near-back

- **/oʊ/** — glide from mid-back to high
- **/ɪə/** — glide from near-high front to mid-central
- **/ɛə/** — glide from mid-front to mid-central
- **/ʊə/** — glide from near-high back to mid-central

Word Meaning

The way humans learn and assign meaning to words reveals a complex interaction of experience, association, and cultural influence, making it a multifaceted subject within linguistics. Learning word meanings is a gradual process. Understanding word meaning is a cornerstone of linguistics, the scientific study of language. Words are more than mere labels; they encapsulate cultural, social, and cognitive dimensions. To understand the full spectrum of word meaning, it is essential to examine key concepts such as association, denotation, connotation, collocation, and semantic fields.

a. Association: The Network of Ideas

Words do not exist in isolation; they evoke associations, a web of ideas and images linked to a specific word in the minds of speakers. For example, the word *sun* might evoke thoughts of warmth, light, or summer, even though none of these are part of its direct definition. These associations often reflect cultural and personal experiences, making them subjective. In linguistic terms, association highlights the psychological and cultural connections that enrich communication and add depth to understanding language.

b. Denotation: The Literal Core Meaning

Denotation refers to the literal, dictionary definition of a word—the specific, objective meaning it carries, without any emotional or cultural associations.

Eg) **Chair**: The denotation of the word *chair* is a **piece of furniture** with a back, usually used for sitting, typically having four legs.

c. Connotation: The Emotional and Cultural Nuances

Connotation refers to the emotional, cultural, or social overtones associated with a word beyond its denotation. For example, while *home* denotes a place where one lives, its connotations may include warmth, family, or comfort. Connotations can vary widely depending on individual experiences and societal contexts. For example, the word *snake* may carry negative connotations like danger or deceit in some cultures, while in others, it might symbolize wisdom or transformation. Connotation enriches language by allowing speakers to convey subtle feelings and attitudes.

Eg)
- **Snake**: While the denotation of *snake* is simply a reptile, its connotation often includes danger, deception, or evil in many cultures (e.g., the snake in the Garden of Eden symbolizes temptation).
- **Rose**: The denotation of *rose* is a type of flowering plant, but its connotation often involves romance, beauty, or love, depending on cultural symbolism.

d. Collocation: Words in Habitual Company

Collocation examines the habitual pairing of words. Some words naturally or conventionally appear together, forming predictable combinations. For instance, one say *make a decision* instead of *do a decision*. Understanding collocations is vital for language fluency and natural-sounding speech. It also helps in identifying idiomatic expressions, which often rely on fixed word pairings, such as *kick the bucket* or *spill the beans*.

Eg) **Heavy rain** (not *strong rain*): "Heavy" is often used with *rain* to describe a large amount of rainfall, while "strong" is typically used for wind or storm intensity.

e. Semantic Field: Grouping Words by Meaning

Semantic field refers to a group of words that are connected by a shared meaning or concept. For example, words like *rose*, *tulip*, and *daisy* belong to the semantic field of *flowers*. Similarly, *run*, *jump*, and *swim* belong to the field of *movement*.

UNIT II

Morphology

In linguistics, morphology refers to the system that governs the formation of words in a language. It involves the study of how words are constructed from smaller units called morphemes, the smallest units of meaning. The word "morphology" comes from Greek, meaning “study of form,” with “morph” meaning shape and “-ology” meaning study. The term was first used in linguistics by August Schleicher in 1859. The structure of words, such as adding “-ed” to indicate past tense or “-s” for plural, alters their meaning. Morphology also involves how words agree with one another in terms of grammatical features, like number, which is seen in subject-verb agreement in English. Morphology is important because it helps us understand how words are formed, how they change in different situations, and how they contribute to meaning in language. It is useful for analyzing language patterns, and word formation.

Morphemes

A morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in a language that carries meaning. In linguistics, morphemes are foundational because they form the building blocks of words. A morpheme cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts, making it the simplest unit of meaning. There are two main types of morphemes: free morphemes and bound morphemes.

Eg)
- **book** – A single morpheme representing a concept (a noun).
- **cats** – Two morphemes: “cat” (the root) and “-s” (plural marker).
- **unhappiness** – Three morphemes: “un-” (prefix), “happy” (root), and “-ness” (suffix).

Free and Bound Morphemes

In linguistics, morphemes are classified into two types: free morphemes and bound morphemes. A free morpheme is one that can stand alone as a word, conveying a complete meaning. For instance, the word “book” is a free morpheme because it can function independently as a noun in a sentence. Similarly, words like “run”, “cat”, and “happy” are free morphemes. They are basic units that do not require additional morphemes to convey meaning.

On the other hand, bound morphemes cannot stand alone. They need to be attached to a free morpheme to convey meaning. An example of a bound morpheme is “un-” in “undo”, or “-ing” in “running”. These

morphemes modify the meaning of a free morpheme but cannot function independently. Bound morphemes typically appear as prefixes, suffixes, or infixes and are crucial for word formation and grammatical structure.

Derivational VS Inflectional Morphemes

Derivational morphemes create new words by changing their meaning or grammatical category.

Eg) **i. -er** (teacher) – Changes the verb "teach" to a noun referring to a person.

ii. -able (readable) – Changes the verb "read" to an adjective meaning

iii. -ness (happiness) – Changes the adjective "happy" to a noun.

iv. -ly (quickly) – Changes the adjective "quick" to an adverb.

v. –ful (beautiful) – Changes the noun "beauty" to an adjective.

Inflectional morphemes, on the other hand, do not create new words but modify existing ones to convey grammatical information like tense, number, or case.

Eg) **i. -s** (dogs) – Indicates plural form of the noun "dog."

ii. -'s (John's) – Indicates possessive form of the noun "John."

iii. -ed (talked) – Indicates past tense of the verb "talk."

iv. -es (foxes) – Indicates plural form of the noun "fox"

v. -est (fastest) – Indicates the superlative degree of the adjective "fast."

Morphs and Allomorphs

A morph is the smallest unit of meaning or a form that a word can take. It is a physical realization of a morpheme, which is the abstract unit of meaning.

Eg) **"happier"** – The word has two morphs: **"happy"** (adjective) and **"-er"** (comparative morpheme).

Allomorphs are the different forms of a single morpheme that appear in different grammatical or phonological contexts.

The **plural morpheme** has different allomorphs:

- **/s/** in "cats"
- /z/ in "dogs"

- /ɪz/ in ‘boxes”

UNIT III

Phrases and Sentences: Grammar

A phrase is a group of words that work together as a single unit but do not form a complete thought (e.g., *in the evening*). Phrases act as parts of speech (e.g., nouns, verbs, adjectives) within a sentence but cannot stand alone as complete sentences. Phrases are dependent on sentences for meaning, as they cannot stand alone.

A sentence is a group of words that form a complete thought and contain a subject and a predicate (e.g., *She is jumping*). Sentences express a complete idea and usually follow grammatical rules for subject-verb agreement. Sentences are independent grammatical units that make sense by themselves

Grammar & Types of Grammar

Grammar is the system of rules that governs the structure and use of a language. It enables speakers to construct sentences accurately and appropriately for communication. Grammar ensures that communication is clear, logical, and universally understood among speakers of the language.

Types of Grammar

1. Traditional Grammar
2. The Prescriptive Grammar
3. The Descriptive Grammar
4. The Structural Grammar

Parts of Speech

Parts of speech are the basic categories of words in a language based on their function and usage within sentences. They help define how words interact to convey meaning. Each part of speech has unique characteristics and roles in sentence structure.

1. Noun

A noun is a word used to name a person, place, thing, idea, or concept.

Types:

- **Common Noun**: Refers to general items or concepts (e.g., dog, city).
- **Proper Noun**: Specific names of people, places, or things (e.g., Shakespeare, London).
- **Abstract Noun**: Intangible ideas or concepts (e.g., love, freedom).
- **Collective Noun**: Refers to groups (e.g., team, herd).

2. Pronoun

A pronoun replaces a noun to avoid repetition.

Types:

- **Personal Pronouns**: Represent specific people or things (e.g., he, they).
- **Possessive Pronouns**: Show ownership (e.g., his, ours).
- **Relative Pronouns**: Introduce dependent clauses (e.g., who, which).
- **Reflexive Pronouns**: Refer back to the subject (e.g., myself, themselves).

Examples:

- She is reading a book. (personal pronoun)
- This is mine. (possessive pronoun)

3. Verb

A verb expresses an action, state, or occurrence.

Types:

- **Action Verbs**: Indicate actions (e.g., run, dance).
- **Linking Verbs**: Connect the subject to additional information (e.g., is, seem).
- **Auxiliary Verbs**: Help main verbs to express tense or mood (e.g., have, will).

Examples:

- She **writes** stories. (action verb)
- He **is** a teacher. (linking verb)

4. Adjective

An adjective describes or modifies a noun or pronoun.

Types:

- **Descriptive Adjectives**: Describe qualities (e.g., beautiful, tall).
- **Quantitative Adjectives**: Indicate quantity (e.g., some, several).
- **Comparative/Superlative Adjectives**: Compare two or more items (e.g., smarter, smartest).

Examples:

- The **red** apple is delicious. (descriptive adjective)
- She has **three** cats. (quantitative adjective)

5. Adverb

An adverb modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb, providing information about manner, time, place, or degree.

Types:

- **Manner**: Describes how something happens (e.g., quickly, loudly).
- **Time**: Indicates when (e.g., yesterday, soon).
- **Degree**: Shows the extent (e.g., very, extremely).

Examples:

- He ran **fast**. (manner)
- She will arrive **soon**. (time)

6. Preposition

A preposition shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other elements in a sentence, usually indicating direction, place, time, or manner.

Examples:

- The book is **on** the table.
- She went **to** the store.

7. Conjunction

A conjunction connects words, phrases, or clauses.

Types:

- **Coordinating Conjunctions**: Connect elements of equal importance (e.g., and, but).
- **Subordinating Conjunctions**: Link dependent clauses to independent ones (e.g., because, although).
- **Correlative Conjunctions**: Work in pairs (e.g., either...or, neither...nor).

Examples:

- I like tea **and** coffee. (coordinating)
- She stayed home **because** it was raining. (subordinating)
- **Not only** is she talented, **but also** she is hardworking. (Correlating)

8. Interjection

An interjection is a word or phrase that expresses strong emotion or sudden exclamation.

Examples:

- Wow! That's amazing.
- Oh no! I forgot my keys.

Traditional Grammar

Traditional grammar is the set of prescriptive rules and structures that were developed over centuries, often based on the study of classical languages like Latin and Greek. It is a more formal and structured approach to understanding language. Traditional grammar is primarily concerned with written language. The rules and guidelines are often based on formal, literary, or academic forms of language, without considering the nuances and variations found in spoken language. Traditional grammar often involves memorizing rules about word forms, sentence structures, and punctuation. Traditional grammar often defines and analyzes sentences based on meaning, such as the idea that a sentence expresses a complete thought. It places greater importance on morphology and syntax while often inadequately addressing lexis (vocabulary) and phonology (sound systems). Thus, Traditional grammar prescribed how language *should* be used rather than describing how it is actually used.

Traditional Categories

Traditional grammar classifies words into parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc.) and analyzes sentences based on their syntactic roles.

1. **Parts of Speech**:
   - i **Noun**: A word that names a person, place, thing, or idea (e.g., "cat," "happiness").
   - ii **Pronoun**: A word that takes the place of a noun (e.g., "he," "they").
   - iii **Verb**: A word that expresses an action or state of being (e.g., "run," "is").
   - iv **Adjective**: A word that modifies or describes a noun (e.g., "happy," "green").
   - v **Adverb**: A word that modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb (e.g., "quickly," "very").
   - vi **Preposition**: A word that shows the relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and another word in the sentence (e.g., "on," "under").
   - vii **Conjunction**: A word that connects words, phrases, or clauses (e.g., "and," "but").
   - viii **Interjection**: A word or phrase that expresses emotion or reaction (e.g., "Wow!" "Oh no!").
2. **Sentence Structure**:
   - i **Subject**: The noun or pronoun that performs the action or is described in the sentence.
   - ii **Predicate**: The part of the sentence that expresses the action or state of being.
   - iii **Object**: A noun or pronoun that receives the action of the verb (e.g., "She kicked the ball").
   - iv **Complement**: A word or group of words that completes the meaning of a subject or object (e.g., "She is a teacher").
   - v **Modifiers**: Words or phrases that add detail or describe other parts of the sentence, such as adjectives or adverbs.

3. **Tense and Aspect**:
    i **Tense**: Indicates the time of the action or state of being (e.g., past, present, future).
    ii **Aspect**: Describes the manner in which the action or state is expressed (e.g., progressive, perfect).
4. **Voice**:
    i **Active Voice**: The subject performs the action (e.g., "The cat chased the mouse").
    ii **Passive Voice**: The subject receives the action (e.g., "The mouse was chased by the cat").
5. **Modality**:
    i Indicates necessity, possibility, or permission (e.g., "can," "must," "may").
6. **Articles**:
    i **Definite Article**: "The" (refers to a specific noun).
    ii **Indefinite Articles**: "A" and "An" (refer to any noun, not specific).

Traditional Analysis

Traditional grammar analyzes sentences based on morphology (word structure) and syntax (sentence structure).

i **Identifying Parts of Speech**: The first step is to break down a sentence into its components, identifying each word's function (noun, verb, etc.).

ii **Sentence Diagramming**: A visual method used to represent the grammatical structure of sentences. It shows the hierarchical relationships between subjects, verbs, objects, and other parts of speech.

iii **Parsing**: Analyzing the grammatical structure of a sentence by identifying the syntactic components and their functions.

iv **Agreement**: Ensuring that subjects and verbs, pronouns and their antecedents, etc., agree in number, gender, and person (e.g., "He runs" vs. "They run").

v **Punctuation and Sentence Structure**: Determining how punctuation marks (like commas, periods, semicolons) affect meaning and structure.

The Prescriptive Approach

The prescriptive grammar specifies how a language should be used, focusing on "correct" or "standard" forms of grammar. It is concerned with the rules that dictate how sentences should be constructed and what constitutes proper language usage. Prescriptive grammar typically operates within the context of formal or standardized language. It establishes norms and standards for what is considered grammatically correct or acceptable. It emphasizes the standard, formal varieties of language, often ignoring dialects, slang, or informal speech. Prescriptive grammar prescribes rigid rules about word choice, sentence structure, punctuation, and other elements of language, with an emphasis on correctness and clarity. Prescriptive rules often reflect social hierarchies, class distinctions, and formal communication norms. Language users who deviate from these standards may be viewed as less educated or less competent. Prescriptive grammar plays an important role in educational settings, professional environments, and formal communication, where adherence to linguistic norms is seen as a marker of competence and credibility.

The Descriptive Approach

Descriptive grammar is concerned with how language is actually used by its speakers. Linguists who study descriptive grammar observe and analyze language as it naturally occurs in different contexts and communities, whether in spoken or written form. Descriptive grammar focuses on documenting language as it is used in real life, including regional dialects, social variations, and colloquial forms. This approach looks at both spoken and written forms of language, recognizing the richness of language as spoken in everyday contexts. Descriptive grammar acknowledges that language is constantly evolving, and it accepts changes in grammar and usage over time. Descriptive grammar embraces regional dialects, colloquial speech, and different registers (informal, formal, etc.).

Early descriptive grammarians sought to observe and describe the ways languages were used by native speakers in different societies. Unlike prescriptive grammar, which often aimed to uphold classical norms, descriptive grammar focused on documenting language without interference or judgment. The development of descriptive grammar became more formalized with the rise of structuralism and generative grammar in the 20th century. Linguists like Noam Chomsky and Ferdinand de Saussure contributed to the idea that language is a system that can be understood through its structure and use, rather than through a list of prescriptive rules. This shift allowed linguists to focus on how language evolves and changes over time, influenced by factors such as social class, region, and generational shifts.

Structural Analysis

The Structural Approach to language teaching is a methodology that emphasizes the mastery of sentence patterns, or structures, as the foundation of language acquisition. This approach prioritizes the systematic learning of grammatical structures in a particular order, using repetition and drills to ensure learners internalize the patterns. The Structural Approach to language teaching is often associated with the Aural-Oral Method, which emerged from the need to focus on spoken language skills.

Language is seen as a system of interrelated structures, which include not just words but also their grammatical arrangements in sentences. These structures govern the way meaning is conveyed. It's believed that mastering these structures is more important than acquiring vocabulary, as structure provides the framework for organizing words in meaningful ways. In this approach, the teacher's role is to present structures and guide students through practice, while the learner's role is to actively engage in producing sentences, both in spoken and written form. One of the most notable techniques used in the structural approach is the drill. Drills are repeated practice exercises designed to help learners master specific sentence structures. There are several types of drills, including:

i Substitution Drills: Learners replace parts of a sentence with new words to form different but structurally similar sentences. For example, starting with a sentence like "I am going to the market," learners might practice replacing "market" with other nouns, such as "school" or "store," to practice the same structure.

ii Transformation Drills: Learners transform one sentence into another by changing the structure while maintaining the original meaning. For example, turning an affirmative sentence into a negative one ("I am eating" becomes "I am not eating").

iii Repetition Drills: The learner repeats a sentence several times to reinforce its structure and pronunciation.

iv Choral Drills: The whole class repeats a sentence together, reinforcing the structure collectively.

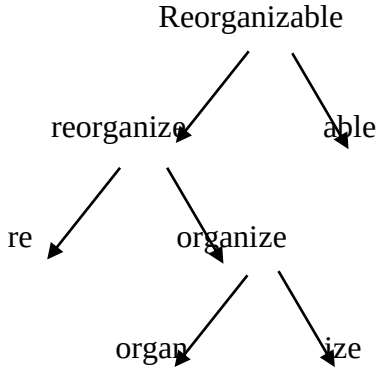
Additionally, the structural approach distinguishes between content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) and function words (articles, prepositions, auxiliary verbs). While content words carry meaning by themselves, function words help to establish grammatical relationships within sentences. While the approach emphasizes the learner's activity, it also relies heavily on the teacher to provide structured input. This can be challenging if the teacher lacks sufficient training or if the class size is too

large. The approach is primarily linguistic, focusing on the mechanical acquisition of structures, and may neglect the cultural aspects of language use that are essential for understanding meaning in context.

The Structural Approach to language teaching has played a significant role in shaping modern language teaching methods. Its focus on systematic practice, oral proficiency, and the mastery of sentence structures provides a strong foundation for language learners. However, it is not without its limitations, particularly in terms of vocabulary development, fluency, and learner engagement. While the structural approach is effective in the early stages of language learning, it is often best supplemented with communicative, task-based, or content-based approaches as learners progress in their language proficiency.

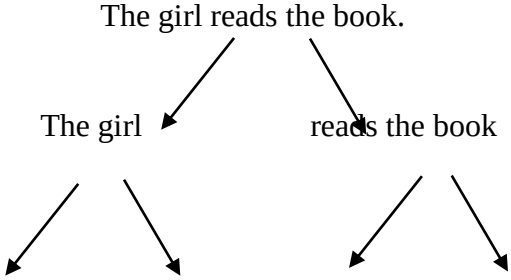
Immediate Constituent Analysis

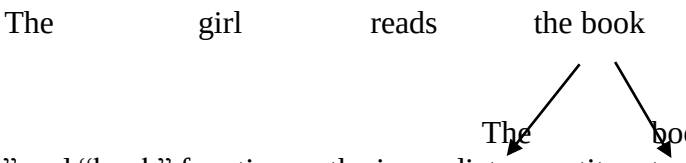
Immediate Constituent (IC) Analysis is a significant linguistic method for analyzing sentence structure, focusing on breaking down sentences into smaller meaningful components to uncover their hierarchical relationships. First introduced by Leonard Bloomfield in 1939, IC analysis has been a cornerstone of syntactic and morphological study, paving the way for modern linguistic theories. IC Analysis involves segmenting sentences into their constituents, progressing through successive layers until the smallest meaningful units, or morphemes, are identified. These units can either be morphemes at the morphological level or words at the syntactic level. For instance, the word "reorganizable" is analyzed hierarchically as follows:



In the above example, the immediate constituents of reorganize are 're' and 'organize'. The immediate constituents of 'organize' are 'organ' and 'ize'. No further analysis is possible beyond this level. Thus, the ultimate constituents of reorganize are "re," "organ," and "ize."

Similarly, IC analysis is applied to sentence structures, segmenting a sentence into major components like the noun phrase (NP) and verb phrase (VP).





In the above example, “the” and “book” function as the immediate constituents of the noun phrase (N.P) “the book.” This NP itself is an immediate constituent of the verb phrase (V.P) “reads the book.” The verb phrase is an immediate constituent of the sentence as a whole. In this structure, the ultimate constituents are related to the sentence “The girl reads the book” through the hierarchy of immediate constituents. This kind of analysis is called I.C. analysis.

Labelled and Bracketed Sentences

Another way to represent sentence structure is by using labeled brackets to indicate how the constituents are organized. The process begins by placing brackets (one on each side) around individual constituents and then adding larger brackets around groups of related constituents, forming a hierarchy.

This method allows us to represent the structure of a sentence at various levels:

A boy saw a bird

The word level **[a]** or **[boy],** the phrase level **[a boy]** or **[saw a bird],** and the sentence level **[A boy saw a bird].**

Labeled Bracketed Analysis

[S [NP [Det A] [N boy]] [VP [V saw] [NP [Det a] [N bird]]]]

S - Sentence
NP - Noun Phrase
Det - Determiner
N - Noun
VP - Verb Phrase
V - Verb

Gaelic Sentence

A Gaelic sentence refers to a sentence in the Gaelic language, a member of the Goidelic branch of the Celtic language family, primarily spoken in Scotland (Scottish Gaelic) and Ireland (Irish Gaelic). Linguistically, Gaelic sentences often follow a Verb-Subject-Object (VSO) word order, which is distinct from the Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) order common in English.

Example (Scottish Gaelic):

Sentence: **“Tha an cat ag ithe biadh.”**
Translation: **“The cat is eating food.”**

Structure:

i **Tha** : Verb (“is”)

ii **An cat** : Subject (“the cat”)

- i **An**: Article
- ii **Cat**: Noun

iii **Ag ithe** : Verbal noun phrase (“eating”)

iv **Biadh** : Object (“food”)

UNIT IV

Syntax

Syntax, a fundamental component of linguistics, is the study of the structure and rules governing the formation of sentences in natural languages. Syntax examines how words are organized into larger units such as phrases, clauses, and sentences. The Oxford Learner’s Dictionary defines syntax as “the way that words and phrases are put together to form sentences in a language.” While morphology focuses on the internal structure of words, syntax deals with their arrangement and relationships within a sentence.
To use syntax effectively, one must adhere to specific rules:

Rule 1: Every sentence needs a subject and a verb.
With the exception of imperative sentences, all other sentence types require at least one subject and one verb. Imperative sentences can omit the subject.

Example:

- Rain fell. (Subject + Verb)
- Turn off the lights. (Verb + Object)

Rule 2: The subject precedes the verb, except in questions.
In declarative sentences, the subject appears before the verb, whereas in interrogative sentences, the verb typically precedes the subject.

Example:

- The train departed at dawn. (Subject + Verb + Adjunct)
- Did the train leave at dawn? (Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Main Verb + Adjunct)

Rule 3: Modifiers should be positioned appropriately.
Adjectives and adverbs must appear near the words they describe.

Example:

- She is extremely talented. (Adverb modifying the adjective)
- I carried a red backpack. (Adjective modifying the noun)

Rule 4: Objects follow the verb, and indirect objects come before direct objects.
In sentences with both direct and indirect objects, the indirect object precedes the direct object.

Example:

- Liam handed her a letter. (Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object)
- Emma brought us some cookies. (Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object)

Rule 5: Clauses require a subject and verb; phrases do not.
While clauses must contain both a subject and a verb, phrases lack this requirement.

Example:

- During the summer, we traveled to Italy.
  The clause we traveled to Italy contains a subject and verb, while the phrase during the summer does not.

Generative Grammar

Generative grammar is a significant theoretical framework in linguistics that seeks to explain the underlying structure and principles of human language. The concept of generative grammar emerged from Chomsky's dissatisfaction with the behaviorist approach to language, which focused on observable speech patterns and largely ignored mental processes. In his seminal work, *Syntactic Structures* (1957), Chomsky introduced the idea that language is governed by a set of generative rules. These rules allow speakers to produce grammatically correct sentences and understand sentences they have never encountered before. Generative grammar assumes that all languages share some fundamental properties, called Universal Grammar (UG), which is innate to humans.

Properties of Grammar

i. It is a revolutionary shift from traditional descriptive grammars, focusing on how a finite set of rules can

generate an infinite number of well-formed sentences. Chomsky proposed that:

- A finite set of recursive rules could generate an infinite set of sentences.
- Language is a reflection of linguistic competence (knowledge of language), not just performance (actual usage).

ii. Generative grammar relies on formal rules to explain how sentences are constructed.
iii. Generative grammar distinguishes between competence (knowledge of rules) and performance (actual use of language, which may be affected by errors or memory limitations).
iv. The rules of grammar rely on the hierarchical organization of sentences, not just the linear sequence of words.

Example:

Declarative: *The boy is eating.*

Question: *Is the boy eating?*

The rule for forming questions depends on identifying the auxiliary verb in the structure, not merely the order of words.

v. Generative grammar assumes an innate set of grammatical principles shared by all languages, forming the foundation for language acquisition and variation.

Deep and Surface Structure

The terms deep structure and surface structure are central concepts in Noam Chomsky's theory of transformational grammar (TG), introduced in the mid-20th century. These structures represent different levels of syntactic representation, each playing a distinct role in the process of generating sentences. In *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), Chomsky formally introduced the distinction between deep structure (D-structure) and surface structure (S-structure). Deep structure was seen as the mental representation where abstract syntactic rules operate to organize components like subjects, verbs, and objects. Surface structure, by contrast, was the final form that a sentence took after these transformations. It is the specific arrangement of words that we use to communicate the underlying ideas. Surface structure is what we actually say or write, which can vary even if the underlying meaning remains the same.

Deep Structure:

Sentence: The dog bit the ball.

The deep structure represents the core meaning of the sentence: the subject ‘the dog’ is performing the action of biting, and ‘the ball’ is the object being bitten. This structure conveys the basic syntactic relationships: subject, verb, and object.

Surface Structure:

Sentence: The ball was bitten by the dog.

In the passive voice, the object ‘the ball’ moves to the subject position, and ‘the dog’ is shifted to a prepositional phrase (after ‘by’). The verb ‘bit’ changes to the passive form ‘was bitten’.

Structural Ambiguity

Structural ambiguity (also known as syntactic ambiguity) arises when a sentence can be interpreted in more than one way due to its syntactic structure. This type of ambiguity occurs when the sentence is grammatically correct, but its structure allows for multiple interpretations of how the parts of the sentence are related. In generative grammar, sentences can often have more than one possible deep structure or syntactic tree, leading to different interpretations of meaning.

Example: I saw the man with the telescope.

- I used the telescope to see the man.
- The man I saw had a telescope.

This structural ambiguity arises from the multiple possible syntactic structures of the sentence.

Different Approaches

In linguistics, there are various approaches or theoretical frameworks used to study and analyze language. These approaches differ in terms of the methods and principles they use to understand how languages work, how they are structured, and how they evolve. Below are some of the most prominent approaches in linguistics:

1. Structuralism

Structuralism, pioneered by Ferdinand de Saussure, focuses on understanding language as a system of interrelated elements. According to structuralists, language consists of signs, which are combinations of the "signifier" (the form of a word or phrase) and the "signified" (the concept or meaning behind it). To structuralists, language is a system of signs that can only be understood in relation to other signs. Language is a social institution, and meaning is determined by the difference between signs (i.e., words and their meanings are defined by their contrast with other words).

Saussure's Signifier and Signified: For the word "tree," the *signifier* is the sound or written representation "tree," while the *signified* is the mental concept of a tree.

2. Generative Grammar

Developed by Noam Chomsky, generative grammar is an approach that seeks to describe the implicit knowledge speakers have about the structure of their language. Chomsky argued that humans have an innate "universal grammar" that forms the basis for all human languages. It focus on the syntax of language (sentence structure) and the rules governing sentence formation. The theory posits that all languages share a universal set of grammatical principles, though they may vary in their surface structures. Deep structure and surface structure distinguish between underlying sentence meaning and the actual form of a sentence.

3. Transformational-Generative Grammar

Transformative-Generative Grammar is a specific aspect of generative grammar developed by Chomsky, which focuses on transformations—rules that can be applied to change one sentence into another while maintaining the same meaning. Rules that take an underlying sentence structure (deep structure) and apply transformations to generate different surface structures (e.g., passive, interrogative, or negative forms). It focusses on syntax and morphology as they relate to sentence construction.

The cat chased the mouse. → The mouse was chased by the cat.

(Active Voice) **(Passive Voice)**

4. Generative Phonology

Generative phonology is a branch of generative grammar that focuses specifically on the phonological (sound) system of language. It explores how sounds are organized and produced in the mind and how phonological rules apply. It focusses on the underlying form of sounds (phonemes) and how they are transformed in speech through rules. Phonological rules govern how sounds are pronounced in different contexts (e.g., assimilation, vowel reduction).

Examples:

The English plural morpheme is pronounced as /s/, /z/, or /ɪz/, depending on the final sound of the noun.

Symbols used in Syntactic description

In linguistics**,** syntactic description refers to the analysis and explanation of the structure of sentences in a language, focusing on how words and phrases are arranged to convey meaning. Syntax is the branch of linguistics concerned with the rules and principles that govern the structure of sentences. A syntactic description provides a formal account of these rules, detailing how sentences are constructed from smaller units such as words, phrases, and clauses.

1. Arrow (→) and Double Arrow (⇔)

- → (single arrow) is used in phrase structure rules to indicate that a constituent can be expanded into other elements. It shows how one unit can be transformed into another.

  Example: **NP → Det + N** (A noun phrase can consist of a determiner followed by a noun.)

- **⇔** (double arrow) is used to indicate equivalence between two syntactic structures, often showing that two structures can be derived from the same underlying meaning or deep structure.

  Example: **NP ⇔ (Det) N** (A noun phrase can be formed with or without a determiner before the noun.)

2. Square Brackets [ ]

- Square brackets are often used to show constituent structures or groupings of words within a sentence, indicating that they function together as a unit.

  Example: **[The cat] [ate the fish]** ("The cat" is a noun phrase, and "ate the fish" is a verb phrase.)

3. Parentheses ( )

- Parentheses are used to show optional elements in a phrase structure. They indicate that the item within the parentheses is not required for the construction of the sentence.

  Example: **NP → (Det) N** (The determiner is optional, as in "cat" vs. "the cat.")

4. Braces { }

- Braces are used in some syntactic notations to indicate alternative options. They show that one or more of the items within the braces can be selected.

  Example: **S → NP {VP | V NP}** (A sentence can be a noun phrase followed by either a verb phrase or a verb followed by a noun phrase.)

5. Vertical Bar (|)

- The vertical bar (|) is used to separate alternatives or choices within a rule.

  Example: **NP → Det | Pronoun** (A noun phrase can either be a determiner or a pronoun.)

6. Asterisk (*)

- An asterisk is often used to mark ungrammatical sentences or structures. It indicates that the sentence or structure does not conform to the syntactic rules of the language.

  Example: **"She the book reads."** (* indicates the structure is ungrammatical.)

7. Plus Sign (+)

- The plus sign is sometimes used to indicate that multiple elements are combined into one structure, often used for composite constituents.

  Example: **NP → Det + N** (A noun phrase consists of a determiner and a noun.)

8. Dot (.)

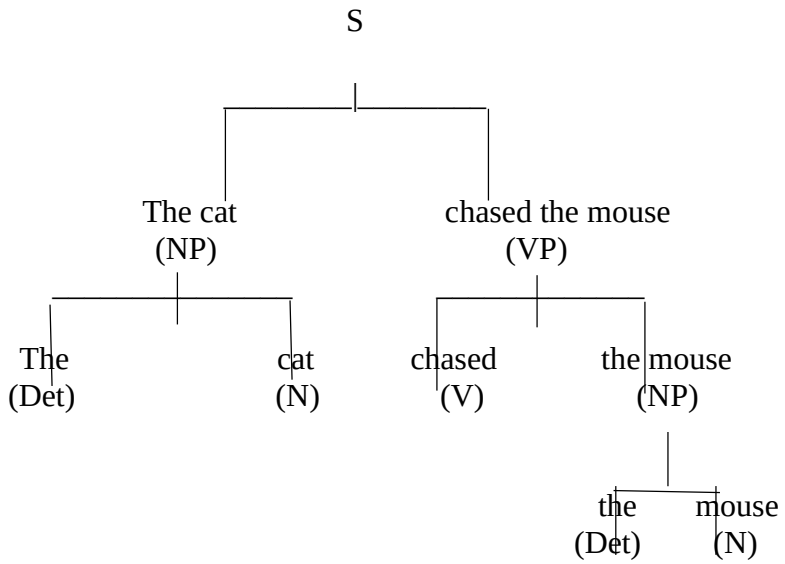
- A dot is often used to mark boundaries in syntactic trees, especially at the level of constituents.

  Example: **VP → V + NP** (A verb phrase consists of a verb followed by a noun phrase.)

Labeled diagrams

In linguistics**,** labeled diagrams are used to visually represent the syntactic structure of sentences. These diagrams, typically known as syntax trees or tree diagrams, show how words and phrases are organized hierarchically within a sentence. Each level of the tree corresponds to a constituent (a group of words that function together as a unit), and each constituent is labeled with a syntactic category, such as NP (Noun Phrase), VP (Verb Phrase), V (Verb), Det (Determiner), and so on.

Example: **The cat chased the mouse.**



Labeled diagrams, particularly syntax trees, are an essential tool in syntactic analysis. They provide a clear, visual representation of how sentences are constructed from smaller units and help linguists understand the grammatical relationships between different parts of a sentence. By labeling the different constituents, linguists can analyze the hierarchical structure of language and the syntactic rules that govern sentence formation.

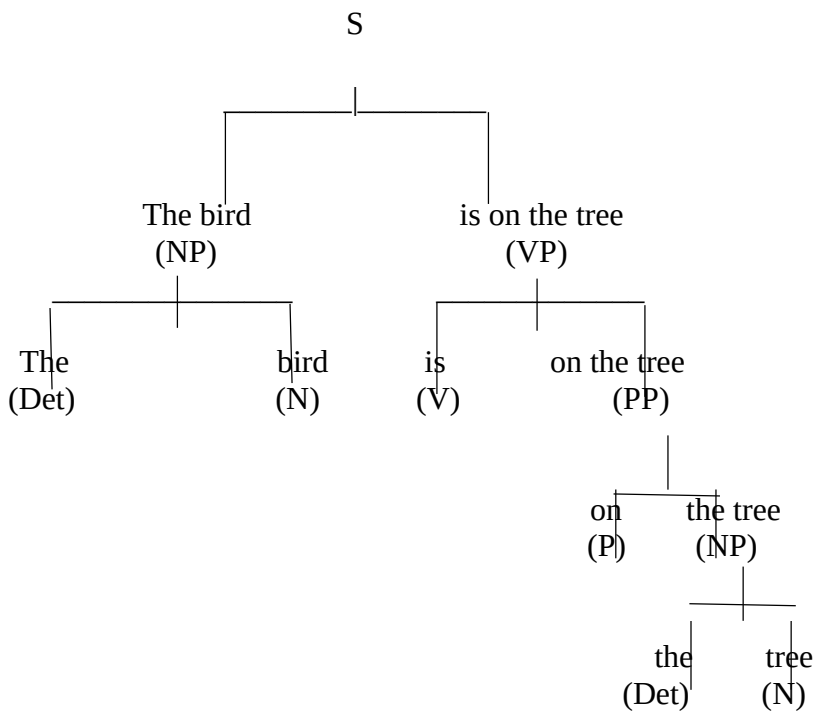
Phrase Structure rules

Generative grammar uses phrase structure rules to describe the syntactic relationships in a language. These rules break down sentences into their constituent parts. For example:

1. Sentence (S) → Noun Phrase (NP) + Verb Phrase (VP)
2. Noun Phrase (NP) → Determiner (Det) + Noun (N)

3. Verb Phrase (VP) → Verb (V) + Noun Phrase (NP)
4. Preposition Phrase (PP) → Presposition (P) + Noun Phrase (NP).

Example: **The bird is on the tree**



Back to Recursion

Recursion in syntax happens when a structure is embedded within another structure of the same kind. For example, a noun phrase (NP) can contain another noun phrase, or a verb phrase (VP) can include another verb phrase.

Types of Recursion:

1. **Noun Phrase (NP) Recursion**: A noun phrase can contain another noun phrase.
    - Example: The dog of the man who lives next door.

   This structure shows a noun phrase (“the dog”) that includes another noun phrase (“the man who lives next Door”).

2. **Relative Clauses**: A sentence can embed a relative clause, which in turn can contain more relative clauses.
    - Example: The man who saw the woman who bought the cake is my friend.

3. **Verb Phrase (VP) Recursion**: A verb phrase can include another verb phrase, especially in sentences with multiple verbs.
    - Example: She said that he left early.

Transformational Rules

Transformational rules in linguistics refer to a set of operations or rules that modify or transform a given deep structure (underlying syntactic representation) into a surface structure (the actual sentence structure as spoken or written). These rules allow for the generation of different sentence forms, preserving meaning while altering the structure of the sentence. They are a crucial part of Transformational Grammar (TG), a theory of syntax introduced by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s.

Examples of Transformational Rules:

1. **Active to Passive Transformation**:
   The transformation that converts a sentence from **active voice** to **passive voice**.

   Example:

    - **Active**: The dog bit the man.
    - **Passive**: The man was bitten by the dog.

Rule: An active sentence like "S → NP + V + NP" (subject + verb + object) can be transformed into a passive structure like "S → NP + V + PP" (subject + verb + prepositional phrase), where the object becomes the subject.

2. **Affirmative to Negative Transformation**:
   This transformation changes a sentence from an **affirmative** to a **negative**.
   Example:

    - **Affirmative**: She is eating the cake.
    - **Negative**: She is not eating the cake.

Rule: Negation can be inserted into the structure by adding a negative element (e.g., not) after the auxiliary verb.

3. **Interrogative Transformation**:

   This transformation changes an **assertive sentence** into an **interrogative sentence** (a question).

   Example:

   - **Declarative**: You are going to the store.
   - **Interrogative**: Are you going to the store?

Rule: This involves **subject-auxiliary inversion**, where the auxiliary verb (in this case, "are") moves to the front of the sentence.

4. **Wh-Question Formation**:

   This transformation creates questions by moving a **wh-word** (who, what, where, etc.) to the front of the sentence.

   Example:

   - **Statement**: She is reading a book.
   - **Wh-Question**: What is she reading?

Rule: Move the **wh-word** (e.g., "What") to the front of the sentence and adjust the auxiliary verb order accordingly.

UNIT V

Semantics

Semantics in linguistics refers to the study of meaning in language. It explores how words, phrases, sentences, and texts convey meaning, and how meaning is constructed, interpreted, and understood by speakers of a language. Semantics is concerned with both linguistic meaning (the meaning embedded in language itself) and contextual meaning (how meaning is influenced by the context in which language is used).

Conceptual versus Associative Meaning

1. Conceptual Meaning:

Conceptual meaning, also called denotative meaning, refers to the literal or primary meaning of a word, phrase, or sentence. It is the core, dictionary definition that reflects how speakers of a language understand the

referent of a word. Conceptual meaning is objective, focusing on the direct, conventional interpretation of a term or expression. For example, the word “dog” refers to a domesticated carnivorous mammal.

2. Associative Meaning:

Associative meaning, also known as connotative meaning, refers to the personal, emotional, and cultural associations that a word carries with it beyond its literal or conceptual meaning. These associations can be influenced by personal experiences, societal norms, cultural contexts, and even emotional states. Unlike conceptual meaning, associative meaning is subjective, and it can vary between speakers or cultures. To the concern of one individual, the word ‘apple’ may bring to mind health, as in the saying “An apple a day keeps the doctor away.” For someone else, it may symbolize temptation or sin due to cultural associations with the biblical story of Adam and Eve and the forbidden fruit.

Semantic Features

Semantic features are the basic characteristics that contribute to the meaning of a word. These features break down the meaning into smaller parts, like properties or qualities that define a word.

Example:

i The word “man” might have features like:
   - human
   - male
   - adult

ii The word “cat” might have features like:
   - animal
   - four-legged
   - domesticated

These features help define the core meaning of a word.

Semantic Roles

Semantic roles describe the functions of different participants in a sentence, showing how they relate to the action or event described by the verb.

Agent: The doer of the action.

Example: John kicked the ball. – John is the Agent.

Instrument: The means or tool used to perform the action.

Example: He cut the paper with scissors – Scissors is the Instrument.

Lexical relations

Lexical relations in linguistics refer to the relationships between words based on their meanings and how they are interconnected within a language.

1. Synonymy - Synonymy refers to the relationship between words that have the same or very similar meanings.

Examples:

Happy and Joyful - Both words refer to a state of being pleased or content, but "joyful" might convey a stronger or more overt sense of happiness.

2. Antonymy - Antonymy is the relationship between words that have opposite meanings.

Examples:

Tall and Short - Both words represent extremes on a height scale, but the terms can apply to different degrees.

3. Hyponymy - Hyponymy refers to a relationship where the meaning of one word (the hyponym) is included within the meaning of another word (the hypernym).

Examples:

Dog is a hyponym of animal (because a dog is a specific type of animal).

4. Prototypes – Prototypes in lexical relations are the most typical or central members of a category. These prototypes are often the clearest, most common examples of a word's meaning or concept.

Examples:

Bird (Prototype: Sparrow)

A sparrow is a more prototypical example of a bird because it shares many common characteristics of birds (small, has feathers, flies, etc.).

5. Homophony - Homophony occurs when two or more words have the same pronunciation but different meanings, even though they may have different spellings.

Examples:

Bare and Bear

Bare means uncovered or exposed.

Bear refers to the animal or can mean to carry something.

6. Homonymy - Homonymy is a phenomenon where a single word has multiple meanings, but the meanings are unrelated or only distantly connected. Homonyms may have the same spelling (homographs) or the same pronunciation (homophones), or both.

Examples:

Bank (financial institution) and Bank (the side of a river):

7. Polysemy - Polysemy occurs when a single word has multiple related meanings. The different senses of a polysemous word share a common core meaning but apply to different contexts.

Examples: Head

i. The top or leading part of something (e.g., She is the head of the company.)

ii. The part of the body above the neck (e.g., I have a headache.)

8. Collocation - Collocation refers to the habitual pairing of words that often occur together in a language. These combinations of words often sound natural to native speakers but may not be directly predictable from the meanings of the individual words.

Examples:

- Make a decision

The verb “make” collocates naturally with decision, rather than other verbs like “do” or “take.”