SHIVAJI UNIVERSITY, KOLHAPUR
CENTRE FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

The Structure and Function of Modern English
(Special English)

B. A. Part-III

(Semester-V Paper-XI)

(Academic Year 2015-16 onwards)
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>pen /pɛn/, simple /sɪmpl/, tap /tæp/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>bat /bæt/, baby /beɪbi/, tube /tju:b/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>table /teɪbl/, interest /ɪntrəst/, cut /kæt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>day /deɪ/, indeed /ɪndɪ:d/, hand /hænd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>cat /kæt/, skill /skɪльн/, suck /sʌk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>/g/</td>
<td>get /get/, figure /fɪgə(r)/, dog /dɔɡ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td>chalk /tʃɔ:k/, richer /rɪtʃə(r)/, such /sʌtʃ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>/ð/</td>
<td>jam /dʒæm/, suggest /sədʒest/, fog /fɒɡ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>/f/</td>
<td>face /feɪs/, faithful /fɪθfəl/, cough /kɒf/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>/v/</td>
<td>van /væn/, vivid /ˈvɪvɪd/, move /mʌv/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td>thin /θɪn/, nothing /nʌθɪŋ/, cloth /kləθ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>/ð/</td>
<td>this /ðɪs/, mother /ˈmaðə(r)/, smooth /smɔːd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>see /si:/, suspect /sʌspekt/, face /feɪs/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>zoo /zuː/, ozone /əʊˈzoʊn/, rise /raɪz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>shoe /ʃuː/, ambition /əmbɪʃn/, wash /wɒʃ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
<td>vision /vɪʒn/, garage /ˈɡɑːrɑːʒ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>/h/</td>
<td>hat /haːt/, behind /bɪhænd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>/m/</td>
<td>mat /mæt/, mermaid /ˈmɜːrmeɪd/, jam /jæm/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II. Vowels: a) Pure Vowels

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>now /nɔʊ/, annoy /ənɔɪ/, man /mæn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>English /ɛŋli/, ankle /æŋkl/, ring /rɪŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>leg /leg/, foolish /fu:liʃ/, oil /ɔːl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>red /rɛd/, marry /mæri/, here /hɪər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>/j/</td>
<td>yes /jɛs/, beauty /bjuːti/, few /fjuː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>/w/</td>
<td>wet /wɛt/, swim /swɪm/, away /əˈweɪ/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Vowels: a) Pure Vowels

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>/i:/</td>
<td>heel /hiːl/, see /siː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>list /lɪst/, hill /hɪl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>/ɛ/</td>
<td>bed /bɛd/, ten /ten/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>bat /bæt/, fact /fækt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>/ɑː/</td>
<td>dark /dɑː(r)k/, father /fɑːðə(r)/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>/ɔː/</td>
<td>lock /lɒk/, got /ɡɒt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>/ɔː/</td>
<td>ward /wɔː(r)d/, saw /sɔː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>/ə/</td>
<td>look /lʊk/, should /ʃʊd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>/uː/</td>
<td>pool /puːl/, too /tuː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>/ʌ/</td>
<td>luck /lʌk/, cup /kʌp/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>/ə/</td>
<td>attend /əˈtend/, pilot /pəˈlət/, colour /ˈkʌlə(r)/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>/ɜː/</td>
<td>purse /pɜːs/, girl /ɡɜːl/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b) Diphthongs

| 37  | /ει/ | late /leɪt/, say /seɪ/ |
| 38  | /ɑː/ | rice /raɪs/, like /laɪk/ |
| 39  | /ɔɪ/ | toy /toɪ/, noise /noɪz/ |
| 40  | /ɔʊ/ | so /səʊ/, snow /snəʊ/ |
| 41  | /ɑː/ | town /taʊn/, now /nəʊ/ |
| 42  | /ɪə/ | year /jə(r)/, real /riːəl/ |
| 43  | /ɛə/ | hair /heə(r)/, stare /steə(r)/ |
| 44  | /ʊə/ | poor /pʊə(r)/, tourist /tuərɪst/ |

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 /kʰɪl/. On the other hand, the phoneme /k/ in skill is unaspirated. Thus [kʰ] in ‘kill’ and [k] in ‘skill’ are the variants. Phonemes are enclosed in slant lines (/…/) while allophones are enclosed in square brackets. e.g. [pʰ], [kʰ] and [tʰ] are allophones of the phonemes /p/, /k/ and /t/ respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phoneme</th>
<th>Allophone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>[pʰ] [p]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>[tʰ] [t]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>[kʰ] [k]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 the 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 that the breathed air passes through the larynx which contains ‘vocal cords’. The vocal cords are movable. They can come closer to each other or 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 ‘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 ‘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 /o/ the lips are rounded, in the production of sound /e/ they are unrounded while in the production of /a/ 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)

Figure 3                                                                       Figure 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.
When we produce some speech sounds, like /t/, /p/, /s/, /s/ 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/, /d/ 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

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

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

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 /æ/, /e/ 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/, /i/ 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/, /t/, /d/, /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /h/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /w/

The 12 pure vowel sounds in English are:
/i/, /i/, /ε/, /æ/, /a/, /ə/, /ɔ/, /ɒ/, /ɔ/, /ʊ/, /ɜ/, /ʌ/, /æ/

The 8 diphthongs in English are:
/eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /ʊə/, /əʊ/, /ɒə/, /eə/, /uə/
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voiceless Consonants</th>
<th>voiced consonants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>/b/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>/d/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>/g/</td>
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<tr>
<td>/tʃ/</td>
<td>/dʒ/</td>
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<tr>
<td>/f/</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td>/ð/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>/z/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>/ʒ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/h/</td>
<td>/m/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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. /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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio-dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Post-Alveolar</th>
<th>Palato-Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>Vl</td>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>Vl</td>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>Vl</td>
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<td>Vl</td>
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<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>k</td>
<td>g</td>
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<tr>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>h</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
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<td>Nasal</td>
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<td>Lateral</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fricionless</td>
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<tr>
<td>Semi-vowel</td>
<td>w</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

/p/ - voiceless, bilabial, plosive
/b/ - voiced, bilabial, plosive
/t/ - voiceless, alveolar, plosive
/d/ - voiced, alveolar, plosive
/k/ - voiceless, velar, plosive
/g/ - voiced, velar, plosive
/θ/ - 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/neural)

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:/, /u/, /e/, /æ/ etc. In the production of some vowels the back of the tongue is raised which are called ‘back’ vowels e.g. /ɒ/, /æː/ /ɒ/ / 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. /ɑ/, /ɔ:/ 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.

![Diagram showing tongue positions](image)

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 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) /iː/ :

   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
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 /ɪfɛkt/  
busy /ˈbɪzi/  
build /bild/  

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 /men/  
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 /ræŋk/  
tax /tæks/  
ant /ænt/  

5) /əː/ :-
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 /ɑːsk/,  
dance /dɑːns/,  
laugh /lɑːf/,  
path /pɑːθ/
6) /a/ :-

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 /dɒɡ/  
- sorry /ˈsɔrɪ/  

because /bɪˈkɔːz/  
lock /lɔk/  

7) /ɑː/ :-

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 /ɔːl/  
- corn /kɔrnt/  
- horse /hɔːs/  
- call /kɔːl/  

8) /o/ :-

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 /bɒk/  
- sugar /ˈʃʊɡə(r)/  
- full /fʊl/  
- cushion /ˈkʌʃn/  

9) /uː/ :-

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 /ruːl/  
- moon /ˈmuːn/  
- Group /gruːp/  
- move /muːv/  

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) /ɔ:/ :-

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 /sɔ:v/  girl /gɔ:l/

purple /pɔːpl/  surface /sɔːfəs/

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 /fətə(r)/

problem /prəbləm/  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) /u:/ :- 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) /ɑː/: - back, open, unrounded.
6) /ɔː/: - back, just above open, rounded.
7) /ɔː/: - back, between half-open and half close, rounded.
8) /uː/: - back, just above half close, rounded.
9) /uː/: - back, close, rounded.
10) /ʌː/: - central, just above open, neutral.
11) /ɔː/: - central, between half-close and half open, neutral.
12) /əː/: - 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:

/eu/, /aʊ/, /ʌu/, /əʊ/, /ʌə/, /eə/, /uə/

The following diagrams represent the diphthongs in English:

(a) [Diagram]
(b) [Diagram]
(c) [Diagram]

Now let us describe the diphthongs in English...
1) \( /\text{et}/ :- \)
   The glide begins from the front, just below half close position and moves towards R.P. \( /i/ \). The lips are unrounded e.g.
   
   gate /get/  
   rain /ren/  
   
   paste /peɪst/  
   they /ˈðet/  

2) \( /\text{ai}/ :- \)
   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/  
   silence /ˈsailəns/  
   
   write /raɪt/  
   type /taɪp/  

3) \( /\text{u}/ :- \)
   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 /ˈtʃaɪs/  
   boy /bɔɪ/  
   
   point /ˈpɔɪnt/  
   voice /ˈvoʊs/  

4) \( /\text{o/} :- \)
   During the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins at a central position, just below the half-close position and moves towards \( /o/ \). The lips are neutral in the beginning and rounded at the end e.g.
   
   go /ɡoʊ/  
   open /ˈoʊpən/  
   
   home /hoʊm/  
   social /ˈsəʊʃəl/  

5) \( /\text{au}/ :- \)
   The glide for the diphthong begins from the back, open, unrounded position and proceeds towards \( /o/ \). The lips are unrounded in the beginning and rounded at the end e.g.
   
   cow /kɔʊ/  
   town /tɔʊn/  
   
   house /haʊs/  
   mouth /maʊθ/
6) /ə/:-

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 /pɪəɾɪəd/ 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) /oa/-

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 /pjuə(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) /aʊ/-

The glide begins from front, open and moves towards R.P. /ʊ/. The lips are unrounded.
3) \(/\text{ə}/\) :-

The glide begins from back, half-open position and moves towards \(/\text{u}/\). The lips are rounded in the beginning and unrounded at the end.

4) \(/\text{əʊ}/\) :-

The glide begins from central position, just below the half-close position and moves toward R.P. \(/\text{o}/\). The lips are neutral in the beginning and rounded at the end.

5) \(/\text{aʊ}/\) :-

The glide begins from back, open position and proceeds towards R.P. \(/\text{o}/\). The lips are unrounded in the beginning and rounded at the end.

6) \(/\text{a}/\) :-

The glide begins from the centralised front, just above half-close position and moves towards R.P. \(/\text{a}/\). The lips are unrounded in the beginning and neutral at the end.

7) \(/\text{eʊ}/\) :-

The glide begins from front, between half-close and half-open position and moves towards \(/\text{a}/\). The lips are unrounded in the beginning and neutral at the end.

8) \(/\text{ʊə}/\) :-

The glide begins from back, just above half-close position and moves towards R.P. \(/\text{a}/\). 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:

\(/\text{p}/, /\text{t}/, /\text{d}/, /\text{ʃ}/, /\text{ʃ}/, /\text{i}/, /\text{ɛ}/, /\text{æ}/, /\text{ə}/\)

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 /lə:f/, about /əbɔut/, 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 /lə:f/, young into /jʌŋ/, finger into /fɪŋɡə(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    | /liːf/ |
| colour   | /kʌlə(r)/ | market | /mɑːkɪt/ | mission | /mɪʃən/ |
| fashion  | /fæʃən/ | academy | /ækədæmɪ/ | pocket | /pɒkɪt/ |
| permission | /pəmˈʃən/ | mouth   | /maʊθ/ | minute | /ˈmɪnɪt/ |
| place'   | /pleɪs/ | close   | /kləʊz/ | mouse   | /maʊs/ |
| computer | /kʌmpjuːtə(r)/ | complete | /kəmpliːt/ | because | /ˈbɛkəz/ |
| church   | /tʃɜːtʃ/ | vision  | /ˈvɪʒən/ | nation  | /ˈneɪʃən/ |
| listen   | /ˈlɪsən/ | signal  | /ˈsɪɡnəl/ | mistake | /ˈmaɪstrək/ |
| person   | /ˈpɜːsən/ | ribbon  | /ˈrɪbən/ | river   | /ˈrɪvə/ |
| habit    | /ˈhæbɪt/ | paper   | /ˈpeɪpə(r)/ | ladder | /ˈleɪdə(r)/ |
| mobile   | /ˈməʊbəl/ | cricket | /ˈkrɪkɪt/ | college | /ˈkələdʒ/ |
| basket   | /ˈbæskɪt/ | wonderful | /wʌndəˈfʌl/ | earth   | /ɜːθ/ |

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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 /teilə(r)/, father /fə:ð(r)/ etc. The words containing more than two syllables are called ‘polysyllabic’ words e.g. relationship /rɪleʃənʃɪp/, examination /ɪgˈzæmɪneɪʃn/ 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 notiфи'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
34

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>noun or adjective</th>
<th>verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>/æbsənt/</td>
<td>/əb'sənt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct</td>
<td>/'kɒndəkt/</td>
<td>/kən'dəkt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>/'ɒbdʒekt/</td>
<td>/əb'dʒekt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>/’prəːfekt/</td>
<td>/prə’fekt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Produce</td>
<td>/'prəʊdʒuːs/</td>
<td>/prə’dʒuːs/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 emplo'yee
'E'ngine engi'neer
'Million milllio'nair

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

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

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’rigi
‘autumn - au’tumnal

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

Categorical  kætə’gorɪkl/
Examination /ɪɡ, əˈkrəntʃən/
International /ˌɪntəˈneɪʃənəl/
Present (N) /ˈprezənt/
Object (V) /əˈbdʒɪkt/
Contact (N) /ˈkɒntækt/
Health /ˈhelθ/
Beautiful /ˈbjuːtɪfl/
Annual /ˈænjʊəl/
Alone /ˈələn/
Prevention /ˈprɪˈvenʃən/
Application /ˌæplɪˈkeɪʃən/
Entry /ˈɛntri/
Estate /ˈɪstet/ 
Private /ˈprɑːvɪt/
Colour /ˈkʌlə(r)/
Breakfast /ˈbrekfəst/
Advice /əˈdʌvəs/
Economy /ˌɪkəˈnɒmɪ/ 
Faithful /ˈfeɪθfl/ 
Couple /ˈkʌpl/ 
Interest /ˈɪntrəst/
Measure /meʒˈɔ/  
Justice (n) /ˈdʒʌstɪs/  
Duty /ˈdjuːtɪ/  
Commerce /ˈkɔrnər/  

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.
   
   \( /p/, /f/, /k/, /m/, /\lambda/, /n/, /\epsilon/, /\nu/ \)

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


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
   /dз/- voiced, palate- alveolar, affractive
   /т]/ - voiceless, palate- alveolar, affractive
   /б/ - back, just above open, rounded
   /и/- - front, close, unrounded

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

   /о]/ - the glide for the diphthong begins from the back, open, unrounded position and proceeds towards /о/. 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 – /ɪɡ.ˈzɛrnɪtʃən/
- Object (V) – /ˈɒbdʒɪkt/
- Famous – /ˈfeɪməs/

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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2.3 Subject Matter -II

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2.4 Subject Matter -III

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2.5 Let Us Sum Up

2.6 Terms to remember

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2.10 Answers to Check Your Progress - II
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 {lz}. 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative prefixes:</th>
<th>Place prefixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>ab-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unfaithful, unlawful, uneducated</td>
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<tr>
<td>in-</td>
<td>circum-</td>
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<td></td>
<td>inattentive, insincere,</td>
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<tr>
<td>ir-</td>
<td>trans-</td>
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<td></td>
<td>irresponsible, irregular</td>
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<tr>
<td>il-</td>
<td>inter-</td>
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<td></td>
<td>illogical, illegal</td>
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<tr>
<td>im-</td>
<td>pro-</td>
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<td></td>
<td>impractical, impossible</td>
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<tr>
<td>a-</td>
<td>sub-</td>
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<td>amoral,</td>
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<td>dis</td>
<td>epi-</td>
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<td>disloyal, disapprove</td>
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<tr>
<td>anti</td>
<td>de-</td>
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<td></td>
<td>anticorruption, antiestablishment</td>
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<td>mis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>misfortune, misconduct</td>
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<tr>
<td>mal</td>
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<td></td>
<td>malpractice, malnutrition</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number prefixes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>uni-</td>
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<td>tri-</td>
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<tr>
<td>multi-</td>
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<tr>
<td>hyper-</td>
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<td>ambi-</td>
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<td>bi-</td>
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<td>quad-</td>
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<td>mono-</td>
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<td>poly-</td>
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<td>pan-</td>
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<th>Time prefixes:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-</td>
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<td>Post-</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples of class-maintaining prefixes:-</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prefix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
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<tr>
<td>im-</td>
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<td>re-</td>
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<tr>
<td>under-</td>
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<tr>
<td>super-</td>
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<tr>
<td>in-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examples of class-changing prefixes:-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>A New Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>de-</td>
<td>throne [n]</td>
<td>dethrone [v]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en-</td>
<td>slave [n]</td>
<td>enslave [v]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>em-</td>
<td>power [n]</td>
<td>empower [v]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be-</td>
<td>calm [adj.</td>
<td>becalm [v]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as-</td>
<td>sure [adj.]</td>
<td>assure [v]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Example of meaning</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Example of meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ion</td>
<td>location, creation</td>
<td>-ence</td>
<td>interference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ation</td>
<td>admiration, inspiration</td>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-sion</td>
<td>admission</td>
<td>-ity</td>
<td>ability, creativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>kindness, vastness</td>
<td>-acy</td>
<td>accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ant</td>
<td>attendant</td>
<td>-ent</td>
<td>president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ist</td>
<td>specialist</td>
<td>-ice</td>
<td>cowardice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>runner, winner</td>
<td>-or</td>
<td>creator, conductor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjective forming suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Example of meaning</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Example of meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-y</td>
<td>rainy, spicy, windy</td>
<td>-ible</td>
<td>credible, audible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>skillful, helpful</td>
<td>-ish</td>
<td>childish, foolish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>active, sportive</td>
<td>-ant</td>
<td>hesitant, resistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>natural, logical</td>
<td>-ic</td>
<td>economic, terrific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ical</td>
<td>economical, psychological</td>
<td>-ous</td>
<td>dangerous, industrious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-able</td>
<td>believable, willable</td>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>enchanting, interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-some</td>
<td>troublesome, awesome</td>
<td>-worthy</td>
<td>trustworthy, noteworthy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-esque</td>
<td>picturesque, picaraque</td>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>enchanting, interesting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

47
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

Infixedes: Infixedes are less commonly found in English apart from one mode of analysis of plurals like- men, geese etc. Infixedes are found in Combodian, 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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Derived Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ship</td>
<td>friend</td>
<td>friendship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-let</td>
<td>book</td>
<td>booklet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-hood</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>motherhood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dom</td>
<td>king</td>
<td>kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eer</td>
<td>engine</td>
<td>engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ry</td>
<td>bribe</td>
<td>briberry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Derived Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>beauty [ n. ]</td>
<td>beautiful [ adj. ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>kind [ adj. ]</td>
<td>kindness [ n. ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>strength [ n ]</td>
<td>strengthen [ v. ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ation</td>
<td>explore [ v. ]</td>
<td>exploration [ n. ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 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)]/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morpheme</th>
<th>Allomorph</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plural morpheme {-s/es}</td>
<td>[-s]</td>
<td>Cats /kæts/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[-z]</td>
<td>Bags /bægz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[-lz]</td>
<td>Churches /fʃ3ːʧlz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past morpheme {-ed}</td>
<td>[-t]</td>
<td>Passed /pɑːst/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[-d]</td>
<td>Bagged /bægd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[-ld]</td>
<td>Wanted /wɔntld/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

[ 1] **Decentralize** ( v. )

[ Class Maintaining Prefix] de- centralize ( v. )

[ Stem]
Stem                  Suffix [ Class Changing
Central [ adj. ]      -ize Derivational suffix ]

Stem                         Suffix [ Class Changing
Root                          -al Derivational Suffix ]

Centre ( n.)

[2]    Unfriendly ( adv. )
[ Class Maintaining       Stem
Prefix                          Stem
Derivational Prefix]         un-
                friendly (adv. )

Stem Suffix [ Class Changing
Root -ly Derivational Suffix ]

Friend ( n.)

Stem -s[ Inflectional Suffix]
Compound word

Wallpaper

Root

Wall (n)                               Paper (n)

[ Class Maintaining       Stem
Prefix                          Stem
Derivational Prefix]         multi-
cultural (adj.)

Stem Suffix [ Class Changing
Root -al Derivational Suffix ]

Culture ( n.)

[5]    Painfully ( adv. )
Stem Suffix [ Class Changing
Painful (adj.) -ly Derivational Suffix ]
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 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,

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

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No</th>
<th>Original words</th>
<th>Blend</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Potato and Tomato</td>
<td>Pomato</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Breakfast and Lunch</td>
<td>Brunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Smoke and Fog</td>
<td>Smog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Motor and Hotel</td>
<td>Motel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Transfer and Register</td>
<td>Transistor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Motor and Pedal</td>
<td>Moped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Escalade and Elevator</td>
<td>Escalator</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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’.

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

2.4.2 **Check Your Progress II**

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

1. I want to see the semifinal.
2. Her house is near the water-tank.
3. Edu-tainment is a new word.
4. The clock on the wall sounds tick-tick.
5. Prof. Ramnath teaches well.
6. 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:


2.8 Reference Books

2. Hocket Charles: The Course In Modern Linguistics
5. Dr. Varshney Paul : An Introductory Textbook of Linguistics and Phonetics
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

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.

Contents
3.0 Objectives
3.1 Introduction
3.2 Subject Matter I
  3.2.1 Open Word Classes
  3.2.2 Nouns
  3.2.3 Verbs
  3.2.4 Adjectives
  3.2.5 Adverbs
3.3 Subject Matter II
  3.3.1 Closed Word Classes
  3.3.2 Determiners
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3.4 Check Your Progress
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3.6 Exercises
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.
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

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

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’.

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.

\[ \text{NP}(\text{The \text{little} \text{cat}}) \]
\[ \text{NP}(\text{My \text{favourite} \text{Player}}) \]
\[ \text{NP}(\text{Tigers}) \text{ are wild.} \]

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 (idealistic), - 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 $^{V}_{VP}$ (\(^{Mv}_{V}\) bark)

2. The dogs $^{P}_{VP}$ are \(^{Mv}_{V}\) barking)

3. The dogs $^{P}_{VP}$ must \(^{V}_{V}\) have \(^{Mv}_{V}\) been barking)
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 up to 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Verb</th>
<th>Vo Present tense base form</th>
<th>Vs /III person sing P.T. form</th>
<th>Ved Past tense form</th>
<th>Ving Present Participle form</th>
<th>Ven Past participle form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>works</td>
<td>worked</td>
<td>working</td>
<td>worked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>play</td>
<td>plays</td>
<td>played</td>
<td>playing</td>
<td>played</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cook</td>
<td>cooks</td>
<td>cooked</td>
<td>cooking</td>
<td>cooked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>call</td>
<td>calls</td>
<td>called</td>
<td>calling</td>
<td>called</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dance</td>
<td>dances</td>
<td>danced</td>
<td>dancing</td>
<td>danced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular</td>
<td>go</td>
<td>goes</td>
<td>went</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>write</td>
<td>writes</td>
<td>wrote</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>written</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>drink</td>
<td>drinks</td>
<td>drank</td>
<td>drinking</td>
<td>drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>give</td>
<td>gives</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>giving</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>show</td>
<td>shows</td>
<td>showed</td>
<td>showing</td>
<td>shown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>put</td>
<td>puts</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>putting</td>
<td>put</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 **V₀ and Vₛ** are used for Present Tense, **Vₑd** for Past Tense, **Vᵳng** 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 \( \overbrace{M_{AjP}}^{\text{very}} \overbrace{H_{Aj}}^{\text{polite}} \)

   b) as modifiers in a noun phrase (NP)

   e.g. \( \overbrace{M_{NP}}^{\text{an}} \overbrace{H_{Aj}}^{\text{honest teacher}} \)

   c) as a complement in a sentence.

   e.g. That person is \( \overbrace{C_{AjP}}^{\text{honest}} \overbrace{H_{Aj}}^{\text{}} \)

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjectives</th>
<th>Simple</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
<th>Degree Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gradable</td>
<td>old</td>
<td>older</td>
<td>oldest</td>
<td>very old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>good</td>
<td>more beautiful</td>
<td>most beautiful</td>
<td>rather beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Gradable</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wooden</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.)

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.*

\[
S(That \, boy)^p \, (ate) \, O(\, the \, sweets)^A(quickly) \, A(\, yesterday)\]


ii) **Degree Adverbs:**

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

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
M & M & H \\
\text{Av} & \text{Aj} & \text{N}
\end{array}
\]

(fairly new computer)

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.*

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{AvP} & \text{Av} & \text{AvP} \\
\text{A} & \text{S} & \text{P} \\
\text{AvP} & \text{Av}
\end{array}
\]

(the whole thing)\(\text{P}(\text{was})\)\(\text{AvP}\)\(\text{Av}\) (frankly)\(\text{C}(\text{awful})\)

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.*

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{A}
\end{array}
\]

They spoke \(\text{A}(\text{frankly}) = \text{Adverbial} \)

ii) It functions as ‘Head’ of the adverb phrase (AvP) *e.g.* She looked \(\text{AvP}(\text{H} \text{up}) = \text{H of an AvP} \)

iii) It functions as modifier (M) in an adjective phrase (AjP) or an adverb phrase *e.g.*

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{AvP} & \text{Av} & \text{AvP} \\
\text{A} & \text{M} & \text{A}
\end{array}
\]

The girl is \(\text{C}(\text{very clever}) \) = M in an AjP

He Spoke \(\text{A}(\text{very frankly}) = \text{M in an AvP} \)

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

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

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 $a \text{this}$ and $\text{pn this}$. 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

\[ \text{H Dog V is N animal} \] 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

\[ (\text{d The H dog}) (\text{V is N an H animal}) \]

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. \[ S^d \text{(This flower)} \quad P^p \text{(is)} \quad C^c \text{(beautiful)} \] = This is a determiner.

2. \[ S^p \text{(This)} \quad P^p \text{(is)} \quad C^c \text{(a beautiful flower)} \] = 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.

\[ P^p \text{(of the girl)} = \text{possession} \]
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. \[
    \begin{array}{c}
    S \\
    \text{(She)}^P \\
    \text{looked}^A \\
    \text{(up the sky)}^P \\
    \end{array}
\]  
   up = preposition

2. \[
    \begin{array}{c}
    S \\
    \text{(She)}^P \\
    \text{looked}^A \\
    \text{(up)}^V \\
    \end{array}
\]  
   up = adverb

3. \[
    \begin{array}{c}
    S \\
    \text{(He)}^P \\
    \text{walked}^A \\
    \text{(in)}^V \\
    \end{array}
\]  
   in = adverb

4. \[
    \begin{array}{c}
    S \\
    \text{(He)}^P \\
    \text{is}^V \\
    \text{(in the classroom)}^P \\
    \end{array}
\]  
   in = preposition.

**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.

\[
    \begin{array}{c}
    \text{Ram} \\
    \text{and} \\
    \text{Seeta} \\
    \end{array}
\]  = words

\[
    \begin{array}{c}
    \text{(a girl)} \\
    \text{and} \\
    \text{(a boy)} \\
    \end{array}
\]  = phrases

\[
    \begin{array}{c}
    \text{[ He is honest ]} \\
    \text{but} \\
    \text{[ he is poor ]} \\
    \end{array}
\]  = clauses
The conjunctions are subdivided into two classes, subordinating conjunctions and coordinating conjunctions.

**Subordinating Conjunctions:**

after, although, as, because, before, but, if, 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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRIMARY VERBS</th>
<th>Vo</th>
<th>Vs</th>
<th>Ved</th>
<th>Ving</th>
<th>Ven</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be, have, do</td>
<td>is, are</td>
<td>was, were</td>
<td>being</td>
<td>been</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>has</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>having</td>
<td>had</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>does</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>doing</td>
<td>done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 \( \text{is} \) a good girl.  
   is = Main verb

2. She \( \text{is writing} \) a letter  
   is = Auxiliary

3. I \( \text{have} \) a car  
   have = Main verb

4. I \( \text{have bought} \) a car  
   have = Auxiliary

5. She \( \text{did} \) her homework  
   did = Main verb

   She \( \text{did not know} \) 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


3.7 Exercises

1) 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


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

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   4.1.3 Grammatical Notations
   4.1.4 Form and Function labels
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   4.1.6 Check Your Progress - I
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   4.2.1 Classes of Phrase
   4.2.2 The Noun Phrase
   4.2.3 The Prepositional Phrase
   4.2.4 The Genitive Phrase
   4.2.5 The Adjective Phrase
   4.2.6 The Adverb Phrase
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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:

Higher
A sentence consists of one or more clauses
A Clause consists of one or more phrases
A Phrase consists of one or more words

Lower
A Word

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:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{S} \\
\text{NP} \\
\text{VP} \\
\text{C}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{NP} \\
\text{VP} \\
\text{AjP}
\end{array}
\]

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.

1) Form labels for phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes of Phrase</th>
<th>Symbol/ Label</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun Phrase</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>the book, the tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional phrase</td>
<td>PP</td>
<td>in the garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive phrase</td>
<td>GP</td>
<td>John's book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective Phrase</td>
<td>AjP</td>
<td>good class, fine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb Phrase</td>
<td>AvP</td>
<td>very early, late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb Phrase</td>
<td>VP</td>
<td>has gone, is writing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II) Function Label for Phrases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Symbols</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>(Grammar) is very easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predictor</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>I P (write) a book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>He posted O (a letter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect object</td>
<td>Oi</td>
<td>I gave Oi (him) a pen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct object</td>
<td>Od</td>
<td>She sent an Od (e-mail) to him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complement</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>They are C (very sincere)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject complement</td>
<td>Cs</td>
<td>Seeta appears Cs (simple)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object complement</td>
<td>Co</td>
<td>They choose him Co (the Leader)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>She come A (very fast)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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), Predicator (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:

\[
[(\text{The boy}) \ (\text{is studying}) \ (\text{in the library})]
\]

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:

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

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:

\[
\text{NP} (\text{The bride} _{PP} ^{M} (\text{of royal family}))
\]

\[
\text{NP} (^{M} _{GP} (\text{The royal (family’s) bride}))
\]

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:

\[ N_p^{\text{M awful}} N_p^{\text{H climate}} = \text{awful is a pre modifier} \]
\[ N_p^{\text{H something}} N_p^{\text{M nasty}} = \text{nasty is a post modifier} \]

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

\[ P_{\text{PP of}} N_{\text{N English}} N_{\text{N Grammar}} = \text{prepositional Phrase} \]

The book

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

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:

\[ \{ \text{Aux} \} \{ \text{Aux} \} \{ \text{Aux} \} \text{Mv.} \]

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) \[ \text{NP} = \text{S} \]
2) \[ \text{NP} = \text{O} \]
3) \[ \text{NP} = \text{C} \]
4) \[ \text{NP} = \text{A} \]

**Structure:** The structure of NP is as follow:

\[ \{ \text{M} \} \text{H} \{ \text{M} \} \]

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:

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

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

ii) A Pronoun as head in NP

\[
\text{NP (}_{pm}^H \text{They) study grammar}
\]

\[
\text{NP (}_{pm}^H \text{You) must concentrate}
\]

iii) An Adjective as head in NP:

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

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

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

iv) An Enumerator as head in NP

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

\[
\text{NP (}_{e}^H \text{Hundreds) drowed}
\]

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

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

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

i) Determiner as pre modifiers of an NP:

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

\[
\text{NP (}_{d}^M \text{A university)}
\]
ii) Enumerators as pre modifiers of an NP:

NP (M five apples)

NP (The M first girl)

iii) Adjective as pre modifiers of an NP

NP (M red mangoes)

NP (M Smart boys)

iv) Nouns as pre modifiers of an NP:

NP (M Silver ring)

NP (M Science College)

NP (M College Building)

v) Genitive phrases as pre modifiers of an NP:

NP (M (Rama's) Book)

NP (M (Someone else's) money)

NP (M (Girls) College)

vi) Adverbs as pre modifiers of an NP

NP (M Quite a noise)

NP (M very happy teacher)

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

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{The boys } \frac{M}{PP} (\text{in the class}) \right) \]

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{The best day } \frac{M}{PP} (\text{of my life}) \right) \]

ii) Relative clauses as post modifiers of an NP:

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{The girl } \frac{M}{RCl} \left[ \text{Who is sitting} \right] \right) \]

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{The computer } \frac{M}{RCl} \left[ \text{which I brought} \right] \right) \]

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{The peasants } \frac{M}{RCling} \left[ \text{working in the field} \right] \right) \]

iii) Adverbs as post modifiers of an NP:

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{The men } \frac{M}{Av} (\text{downstairs}) \right) \]

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{The men } \frac{M}{Av} (\text{upstairs}) \right) \]

iv) Adjectives as post modifiers of an NP:

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{Something } \frac{M}{Aj} \text{ nasty} \right) \]

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{anything } \frac{M}{Aj} \text{ serious} \right) \]

\[ \text{NP} \left( \text{anyone } \frac{M}{Aj} \text{ special} \right) \]

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

\[ \left( \text{Sachin } \frac{M}{NP} \left( \text{the chairman} \right) \right) \]

\[ \left( \text{Suresh } \frac{M}{NP} \left( \text{the cricketer} \right) \right) \]

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 \((^\text{A}_p\text{pp})\) (by train) = adverbial of means
2) We live \((^\text{A}_p\text{pp})\) (in Peth Vadgaon) = adverbial of place
3) We go for a walk \((^\text{A}_p\text{pp})\) (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**

   \(\text{NP} (\text{The book }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(on the table)})\)

   \(\text{NP} \left(\text{The boys }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(in the garden)}\right)\)

2) **PP as Post modifier in an AjP**

   She appears \(^{\text{AjP}}(\text{Very beautiful }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(in photos)})\)

   Exersise is \(^{\text{AjP}}(\text{very good }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(for helth)})\)

3) **PP as post modifier in AvP**

   The train arrived \(^{\text{AvP}}(\text{early }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(in the morning)})\)

   They always come \(^{\text{AvP}}(\text{late }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(to the college)})\)

4) **PP as Post modifier in another PP**

   They started shouting \(^{\text{Pp}}(\text{in the begining }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(of the match)})\)

   The Marathas were defeated \(^{\text{Pp}}(\text{in the battle }^\text{M}_p\text{pp} \text{(of Paniapath)})\)

**Structure of PP:**

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

i.e. \(\text{PP= pNP}\)
Normally prepositions are inseparable from the head and modifier which follow them, for example:

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

They are working \( \overset{A}{\text{pp}} \) \( \overset{M}{\text{on}} \) \( \overset{d}{\text{the}} \) \( \overset{H}{\text{N}} \) 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:

\[ \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{M}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{(Ram's book)}} \]

\[ \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{M}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{(Her book)}} \]

GP as Head in NPs

It is \( \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{H}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{(theirs)}} \)

\[ \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{M}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{(Sita's)}} \text{is the only selection} \]

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

\[ \overset{g}{\text{GP}} = \overset{m}{\text{NP's}} \]

\[ \overset{g}{\text{GP}} = \overset{m}{\text{NP+'s}} \]

\[ \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{M}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{((John Donne's) poems)}} \]

\[ \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{M}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{((mine) car)}} \]

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

\[ \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{M}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{((My) book)}} \]

He took \[ \overset{g}{\text{NP}} \overset{M}{\text{GP}} \overset{m}{\text{((mine) car)}} \]
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 \( C_{Ajp}(\text{very hot}) \)
- Grammar is \( C_{Ajp}(\text{very easy}) \)
- Seeta is \( C_{Ajp}(\text{very lovely}) \)

ii) AjPs can function as pre modifiers in NPs

- They constructed \( O_{NP}(M_A d\ A_{Ajp}(\text{very huge})\ H_{N}\ \text{house}) \)
- He gave her \( N_{NP}(M_A d\ A_{Ajp}(\text{very large})\ H_{N}\ \text{slice}) \)

Structure of Adjective Phrase (Ajp):

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

\[ \text{Ajp} = \{M\} H \{M\} \]

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 \( C_{Ajp}(\text{very } H_{A}\text{smart}) \)
- She appears \( C_{Ajp}(\text{very } H_{A}\text{smarter}) \)

Pre modifiers of AjPs are always adverbs:

- He is \( C_{Ajp}(Av_{A}\text{very } H_{A}\text{tall}) \) = adverb as pre modifier
- The water is \( C_{Ajp}(M_{Av}_{A}\text{rather } M_{A}\text{very } H_{A}\text{hot}) \) = adverb as pre modifier

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

- He is \( A_{Ajp}(M_{Av}_{A}\text{very } H_{A}\text{tall } M_{A}\text{indeed}) \) = adverb as post modifier
- The room is \( A_{Ajp}(M_{Av}_{A}\text{nice } M_{A}\text{enough}) \) = adverb as post modifier
4.2.6 The Adverb Phrase (AvP)

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

- He works $^{AvP}(very \ \text{rarely})$
- The early bus came $^{AvP}(very \ \text{early})$
- He escaped from the accident $^{AvP}(luckily)$

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 $^{AvP}(H \ fast)$
- They disappeared $^{AvP}(H \ quietly)$

Pre modifiers of an AvP are always adverbs for example:
- The teacher spoke $^{AvP}(M \ very \ H \ slowly)$
- The train went $^{AvP}(M \ too \ H \ fast)$

Post modifiers of an AvP can be adverbs, prepositional phrases, clauses, for example:
- The girls walked $^{AvP}(H \ fast \ H \ enough)= \text{adverb as post modifier}$
- They arrived $^{AvP}(very \ early\ M \ PP(\text{for the party}))= \text{PP as post modifier in AvP}$
- The rain filled the dam $^{AvP}(more \ quickly\ M \ PP(\text{than last year}))= \text{PP as post modifier in AvP}$
- They spoke $^{AvP}(very \ frankly\ M \ FSCl(\text{than they did before}))= \text{finite clause as post modifier in AvP}$
4.2.7 The Verb Phrase (VP)

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

They \( P_{VP} \left( \begin{array}{c} ^{\text{Aux}} \text{have} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Aux}} \text{been} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{studying} \end{array} \right) \)

Mary \( P_{VP} \left( ^{\text{Mv}} \text{had} \right) \) a little lamb

The farmers \( P_{VP} \left( ^{\text{Aux}} \text{are} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{drawing} \right) \) water

They \( P_{VP} \left( ^{\text{Aux}} \text{may} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{think} \right) \) about the problem

The branch \( P_{VP} \left( ^{\text{Aux}} \text{had} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{shaken} \right) \)

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\} \text{Mv}

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

i) \( I \left( ^{\text{Aux}} \text{can} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{swim} \right) = \text{model verb} \)

ii) \( \text{He} \left( ^{\text{Aux}} \text{has} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{finished} \right) \text{his work} = \text{perfective} \)

iii) \( \text{She} \left( ^{\text{Aux}} \text{is} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{writing} \right) \text{an article} = \text{progressive} \)

iv) \( \text{Mangoes} \left( ^{\text{Aux}} \text{might} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Aux}} \text{have} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Aux}} \text{been} \hspace{1em} ^{\text{Mv}} \text{eaten} \right) \text{by monkeys} = \text{passive voice} \)

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 (\( ^{aux} \) may \( ^{aux} \) have \( ^{aux} \) been \( ^{aux} \) being \( ^{mv} \) 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.

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

**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 of sentences and there is hierarchy in the construction of a 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 (RCl), 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
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.**

1) **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

4.7 Reference for further study