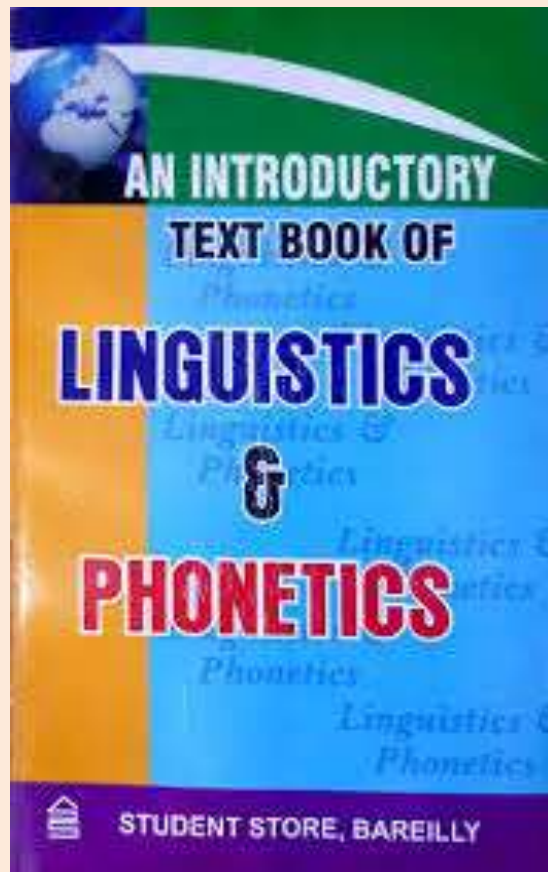


ELECTIVE – III A -INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

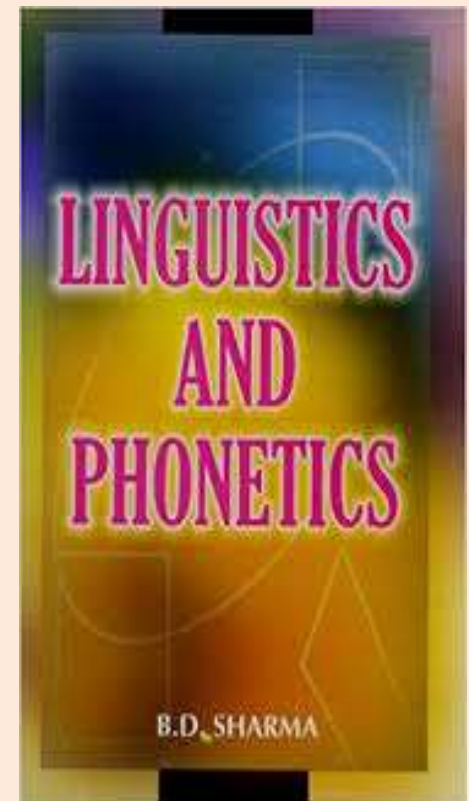
BOOK PRESCRIBED:

AN INTRODUCTORY TEXTBOOK OF LINGUISTICS
AND PHONETICS

BY R. L. VARSHNEY



Prepared by
Dr. R. Dharani
HOD of English
GASC
Avinashi - 4



UNIT - I

(Page No: 1-33)

- 1. Language : Definition, characteristics, human & animal communication, misconceptions about language. 2. Linguistics – A science? Scope, Levels, Structure of Language – relation of Linguistics with Anthropology, philosophy, psychology, Geography, Literature, Literature, natural Sciences and Communicative Engineering- Types of Linguistics – (Applied Linguistics, clinical, computational, biological, educational, etc.) – synchrony, diachronic, Langue, Parole, competence, performance, Substance and Form, Syntagmatic & Paradigmatic

WHAT IS LANGUAGE?



The method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way.

Language: Definitions

- ▶ 'Language is a primarily human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desire by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols' (Sapir, 1921)
- ▶ 'Language may be defined as the expression of thought by means of speech sounds' (Sweet, 1993)

DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE

- **Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication.**
- Language is a system----- elements in it are not arranged and combined randomly, but according to some rules and principles.
- Language is arbitrary----- there is no intrinsic connection between the word and the thing.
- Language is vocal----- the primary medium for all languages is sound.
- Language is used for human communication----- it is human specific.



Characteristics of Languages

- Language is Arbitrary
- Language is Social
- Language is Symbolic
- Language is Systematic
- Language is Vocal
- Language is Non-instinctive, Conventional
- Language is Productive and Creative:

Characteristics of Language

- **Language is creative and productive.**
- **It has the characteristics of interchangeability and reciprocity.**
- **Language is primarily vocal.**
- **Language is ubiquitous. It is present in all the activities.**
- **It is carrier of civilization and culture.**
- **Language is human and it differs from animal communication in several ways.**

CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE

Language is arbitrary

Language is social

Language is symbolic

Language is systematic

Language is vocal,
verbal and sound

Language is
conventional

Language is
productive and

Language is a means
of communication





Difference b/w human 'n Animal Communication

→ Human



- Infinite set of ideas
- discrete e.g., /k/
- Productivity new words like 'software'
- Structural complexity e.g., RP Variety of Eng. has 44 sounds
- non instinctive. Kids learn languages
- Displacement

→ Animal



- Finite
- non discrete
- Closed vocabulary
- Instinctive. e.g., Bees make hives-hereditary
- Communication takes place only in the present

Comparison of Human Language and Animal Communication

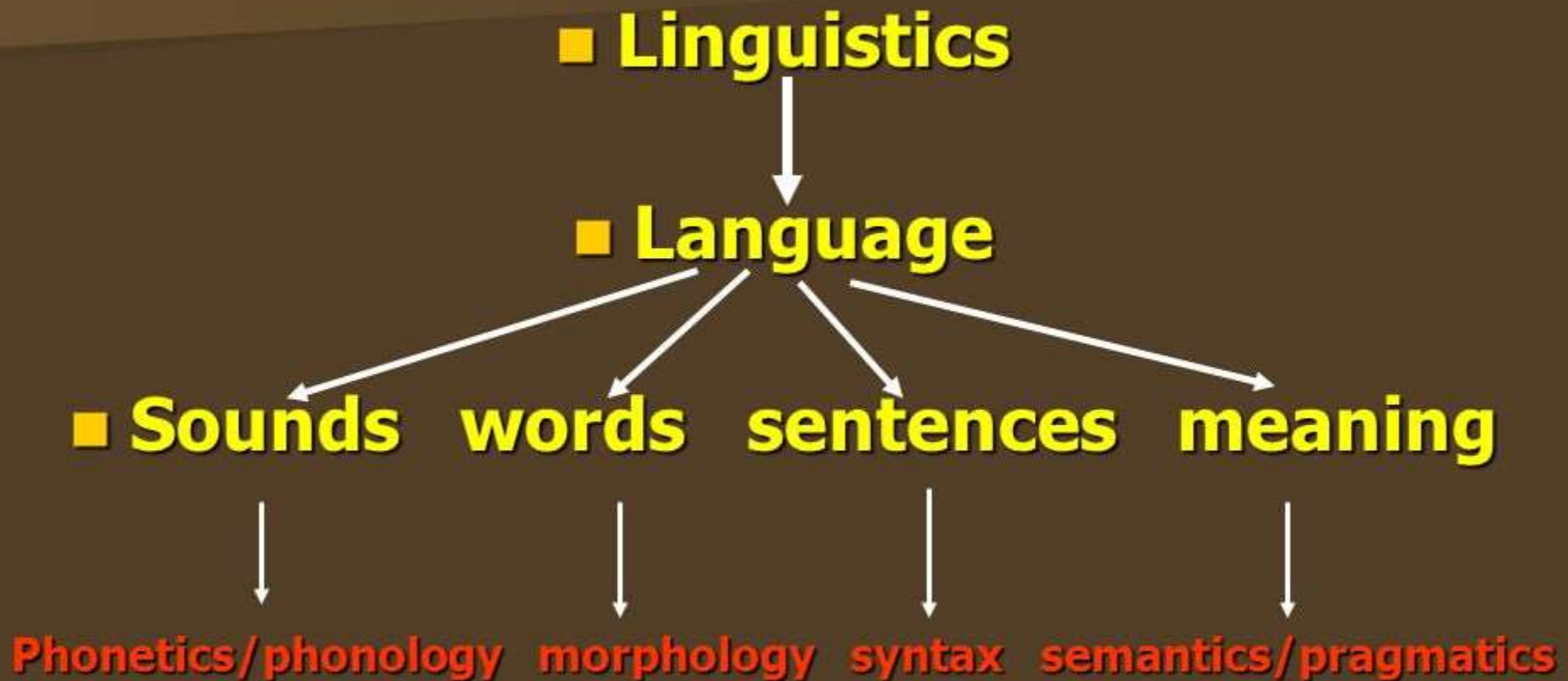
- Similarity: Both are composed of SIGNS (forms with meaning)
 - Six Key Differences:
 - ✓ Animal: The signs of animal systems are inborn.
 - ✓ Human: The capacity to be creative with signs is inborn, but the signs (words) themselves are acquired culturally.

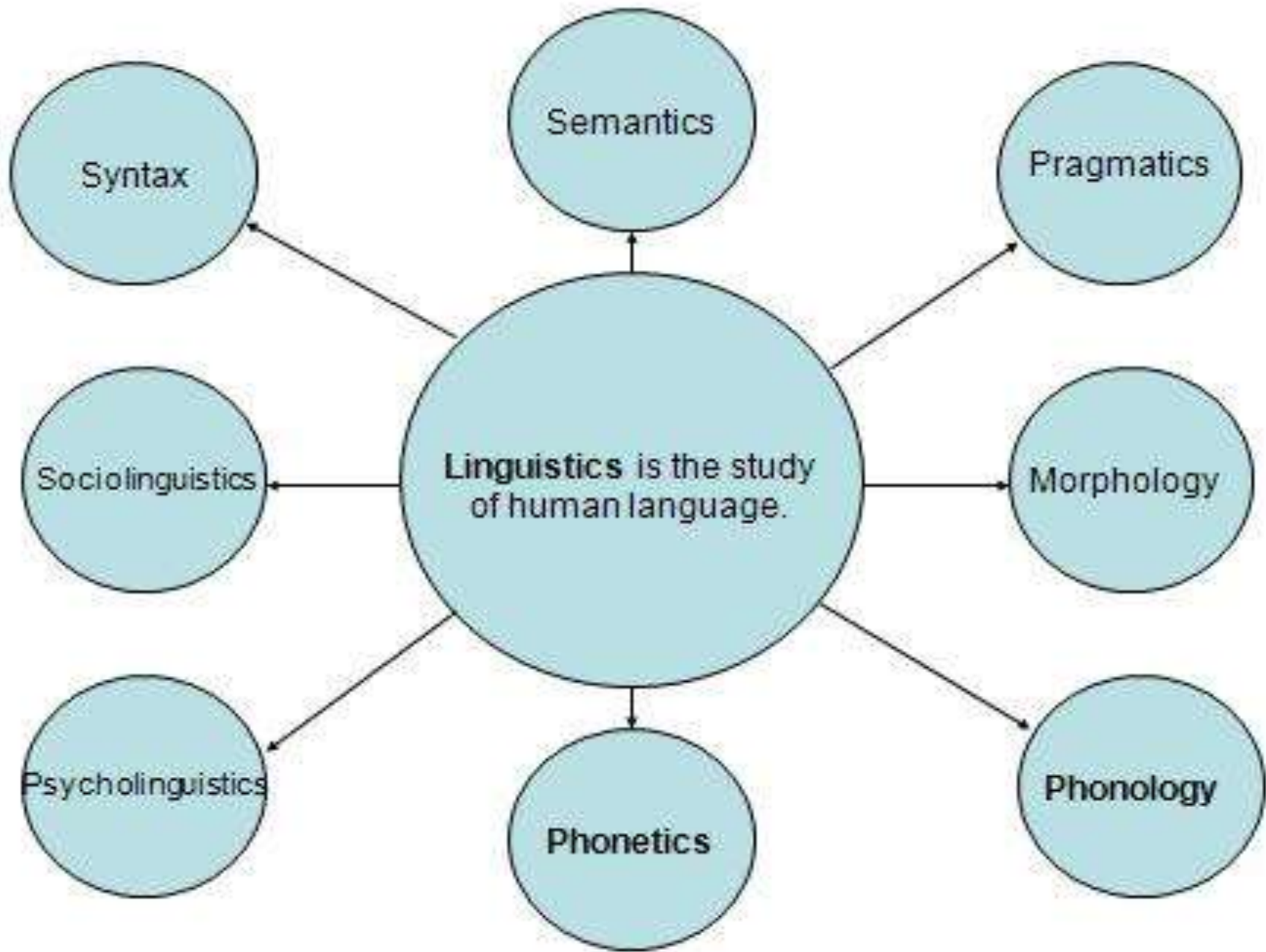
 - ✓ Animal: Communication is set responses to stimuli (indexes).
 - ✓ Human: Not limited to use as an index.
-
- ✓ Animal: Each sign has one and only one function; each meaning can be expressed only in one way
 - ✓ Human: Signs often have multiple functions; one meaning can be expressed in many ways

Some Misconceptions about Language

- Misunderstanding of the parts of a language – grammar, spelling, usage, etc.,
- One language is superior than the other – one dialect is superior than the others.
- Children learn language purely by imitation
- Written language is more prestigious than the spoken.
- The historical treatment of a language is the right treatment
- All languages can be analyzed like how one can analyze the European Languages such as Greek and Latin
- Latin and Sanskrit are the Ideal languages
- Languages are static

Core branches of Linguistics





DEFINITION

LINGUISTICS

"The scientific study of human language meaning, form and context" Stowell (2000)

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

"The study of language in relation to society..." (Hudson 1996)

Contrast between Sociolinguistics and Sociology of Language

Sociolinguistics

It's main focus is "society on language."

Sociology of Language

It's main focus is "language effects on society."

Education

(teaching, learning, acquisition, assessment)

Sociology

(the scientific study of human social behavior and the study of society)

Applied Linguistics

Linguistics

(The study of the nature, structure, and variation of language, including phonetics, phonology, morphology and the study of human speech, language form, language meaning, and language in context)

Anthropology

(the scientific study of the origin and behavior of man, including the physical, social, and cultural development of societies and cultures)

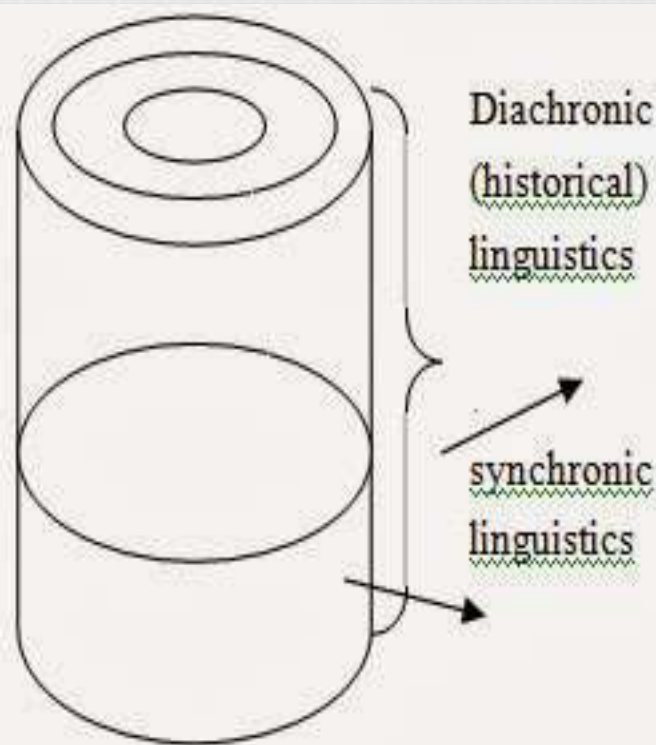
Psychology

(the science of mind and behavior, and the application of such knowledge of various spheres of human activity, such as education, health, occupational and employment services)

3 Synchronic vs. diachronic

Synchronic (linguistics)---languages are studied at a theoretic point in time: one describes a 'state' of language, disregarding whatever changes might be taking place.

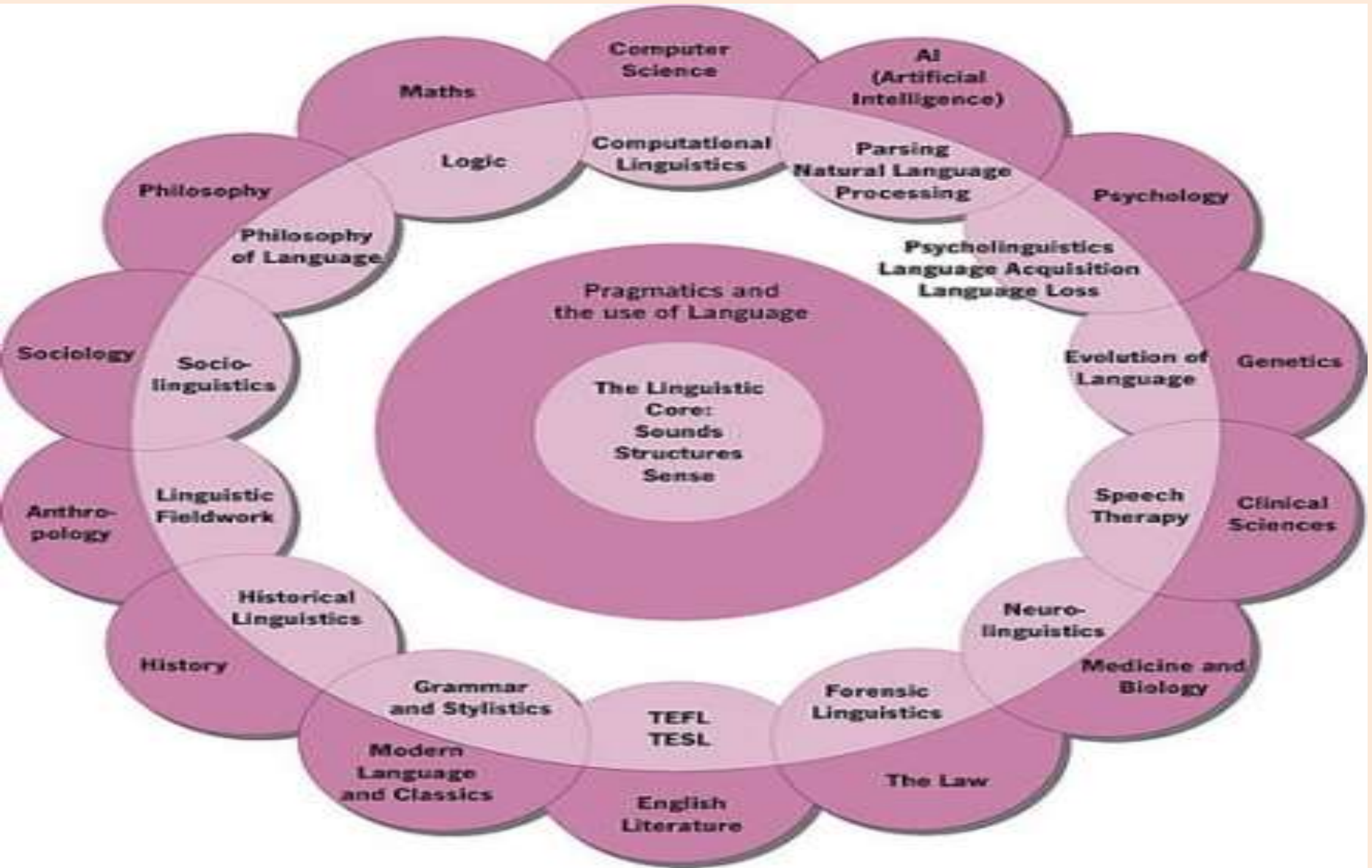
Diachronic---languages are studied from point of view of their historical development – for example, the changes which have taken place between Old and Modern English could be described in phonological, grammatical and semantic terms.



What does “diachronic” mean?

- from two Greek words “*dia*” which means **through** and “*khronos*” which means **time**.
- of or concerned with phenomena, such as linguistic features, as they change through time.

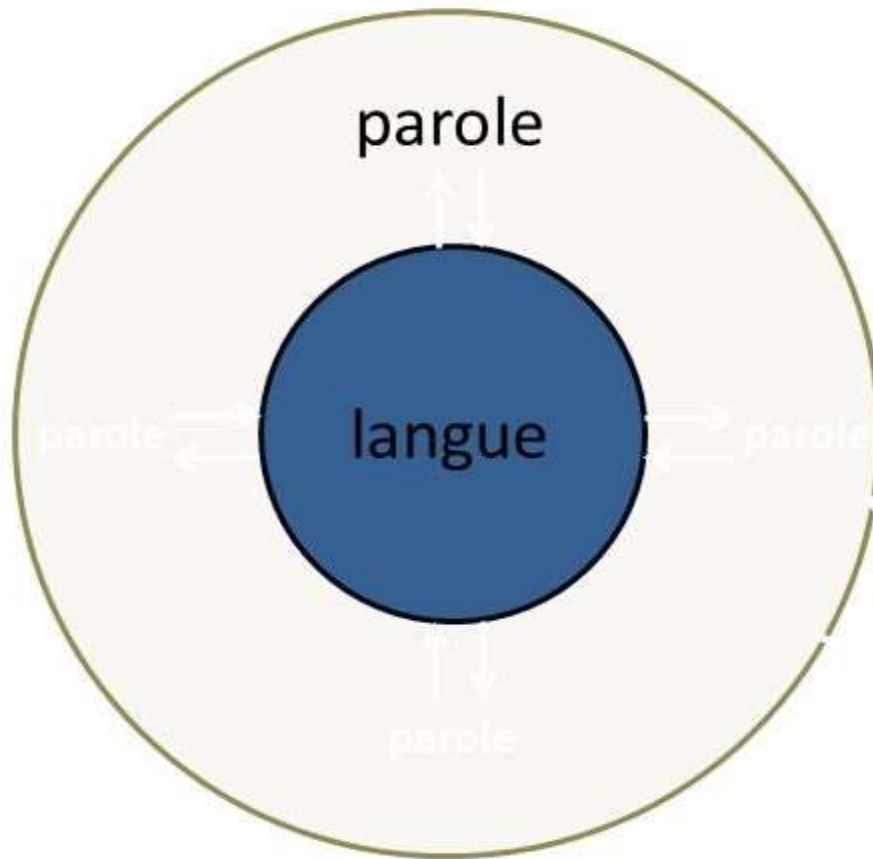
Types of Linguistics



Subfields of linguistics (2)

- Language and ecology
- Language and education in multilingual settings.
- Language and entertainment.
- Language and mind.
- Language and subcultures.
- Language and the media.
- Language disorders.
- Language for especial purposes.
- Language in contact.
- Language loss, attrition and re-learning.
- Language planning and language policy.
- Language teaching methodology and teacher education.
- Language, gender and power.
- Learner autonomy in language learning.
- Lexicography and lexicology.
- Mother tongue education.
- Multimodality.
- Multiple literacies.
- Pragmatics.
- Psycholinguistics: Processing.

Ferdinand de Saussure



- *parole* – the way a particular person speaks
- *langue* – the system of rules that makes it possible for a person to know how to speak

CHOMSKY'S CONTRIBUTION

★ *Competence*
★ *Performance*

Competence vs. Performance

(Chomsky, 1965)

- Competence: what a person knows
 - we have the ability to distinguish between “grammatical” and “ungrammatical” expressions, as well as recognize ambiguity. We are capable of judging sentences we have never heard before!
- Performance: what a person can actually produce
 - we tend not to produce what is in our ‘competence’ because of memory limitations, distractions, errors, false starts, etc.



Chomsky's Idea of Competence & Performance

Language Competence vs Performance

- Chomsky distinguishes between:
 - ▣ **Competence:** speaker's/ hearer's unconscious knowledge of language (about sounds, meanings, syntax)
 - ▣ **Performance:** actual use of language in concrete situations
 - ▣ Competence is mental reality and not directly observable whereas performance is observable

Ferdinand de Saussure (1)

- A word has two very different components which Saussure (1916) referred to as its “form” and its “substance”.
- The “substance” of a word are its phonemes, its graphemes (written symbols) and its morphology (how it combines with other morphemes e.g. dog+s).
- The “form” of a word is an abstract formal set of relations. That is, it’s our concept of what the word refers to.

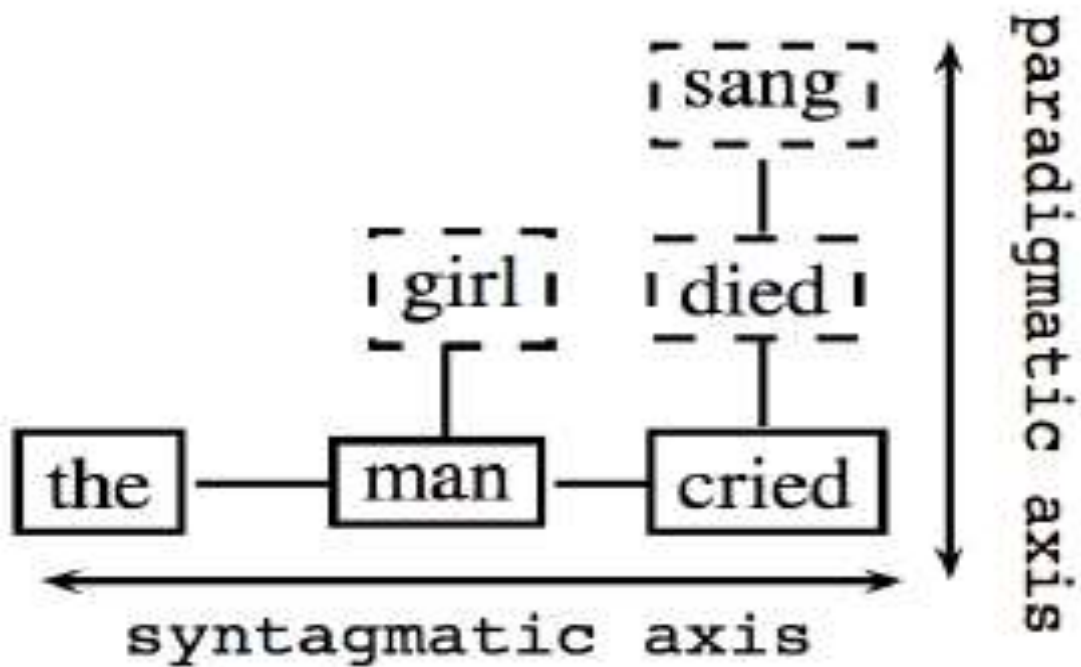
| | SUBSTANCE | FORM |
|----------------------------------|--|--|
| SIGNIFIED (content) | indefinite plane of confused ideas; unformed thought mass | determined plane of ideas; conceptual order |
| SIGNIFIER (expression) | indeterminate plane of sounds | determined plane of sounds; phonic order |

Table 1: de Saussure's *signified-signifier* distinction



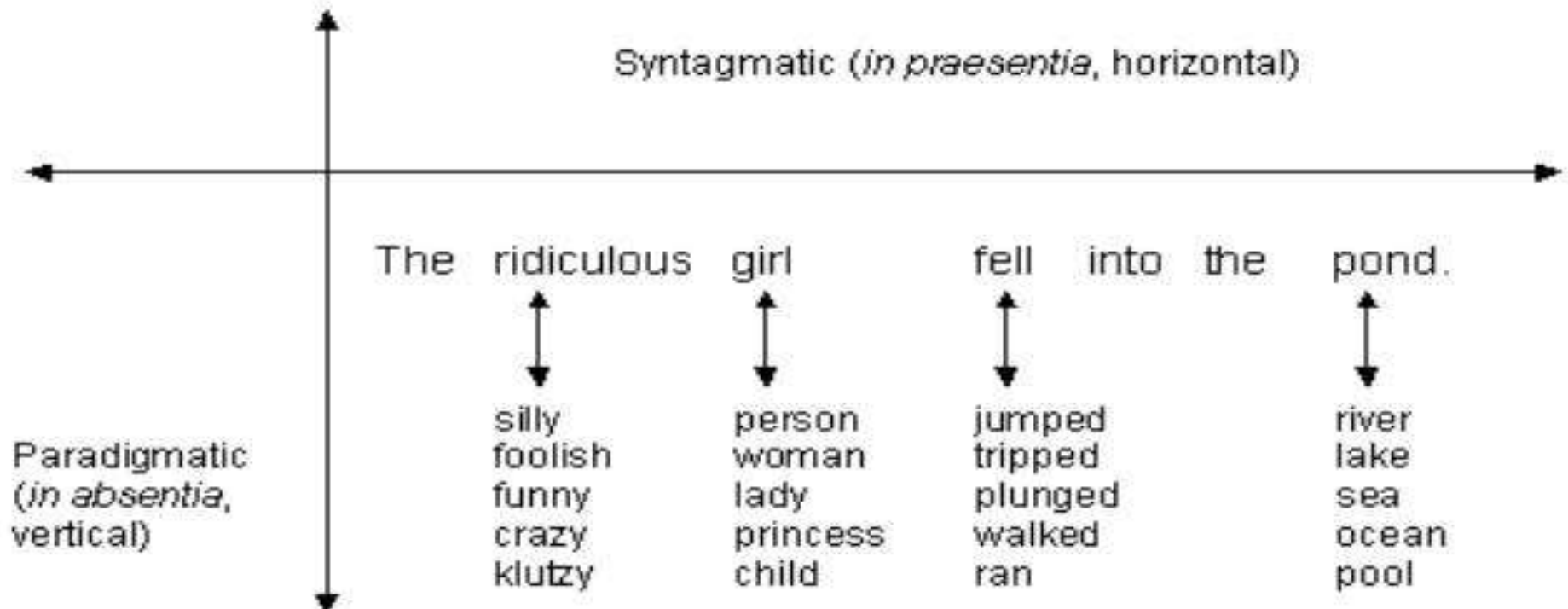
Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations

- The former refers to the horizontal relationship between linguistic elements, which form linear sequences.
- The latter means the vertical relationship between forms, which might occupy the same particular place in the structure.



The man buys the cake
 The woman sells the cheese
 eats the bread
 her/his food

syntagmatic relations →



UNIT II PHONETICS /fə'netiks/

- **Phonetics is the study of speech sounds.**
 - > Articulatory phonetics – how speech sounds are produced
 - > Acoustic phonetics – the transmission and physical properties of speech sounds
 - > Auditory phonetics – perception of speech sounds
- **Phonetic transcriptions – one sound = one symbol.**
- **Study of human speech sounds:**
 - Describing and classifying human sounds
 - Understanding production of sounds
 - Comparing and contrasting sounds across languages
 - Discovering constraints and limitations of possible human speech

History of Phonetics

- ❖ **500 BC in Ancient India**
- ❖ **Panini**
 - **Indian grammarian**
 - **His work on Sanskrit is outstanding for its highly systematic methods.**
 - **The birth of linguistic science in Western Europe in the 19th century was largely due to discovery of Panini's grammar.**
- ❖ **17th and 18th Centuries – how Lateral (L sounds) and Nasal (N and M) sounds.**
- ❖ **19th and 20th Centuries – By the late 1800's the International Phonetic Association create the IPA.**
- ❖ **IPA – the system allows linguists to explain the pronunciation of any language with one writing system.**
- ❖ **Modern Phonetics – the phonetics is studied alongside with phonology because all linguistics are interdisciplinary.**

Some data connected with the history of phonetic development:

- ❖ **1829 – Laryngoscope was invented;**
- ❖ **1852 – first observations of the vocal cords were made;**
- ❖ **1877 – Gramophone was invented;**
- ❖ **1886 – International Phonetic Association (IPA) was founded.**

IPA started publications of a special phonetic magazine “Le Matre Phonetique”. It stated phonetic symbols for sounds of many existing languages.

- ❖ **In 1886, a French linguist named Paul Passy formed the International Phonetic Association in Paris.**
- ❖ **The International Phonetic Association also produce a peer-reviewed academic journal three times a year since it was first created in 1971, which is called the Journal of the International Phonetic Association.**
- ❖ **International Congress of Phonetic Sciences (ICPhS)**
 - **held every four years, with each conference being held in a different country.**

❖ Many of the key speakers in Phonetics today and in recent years have studied in London, particularly at the University College of London (UCL)

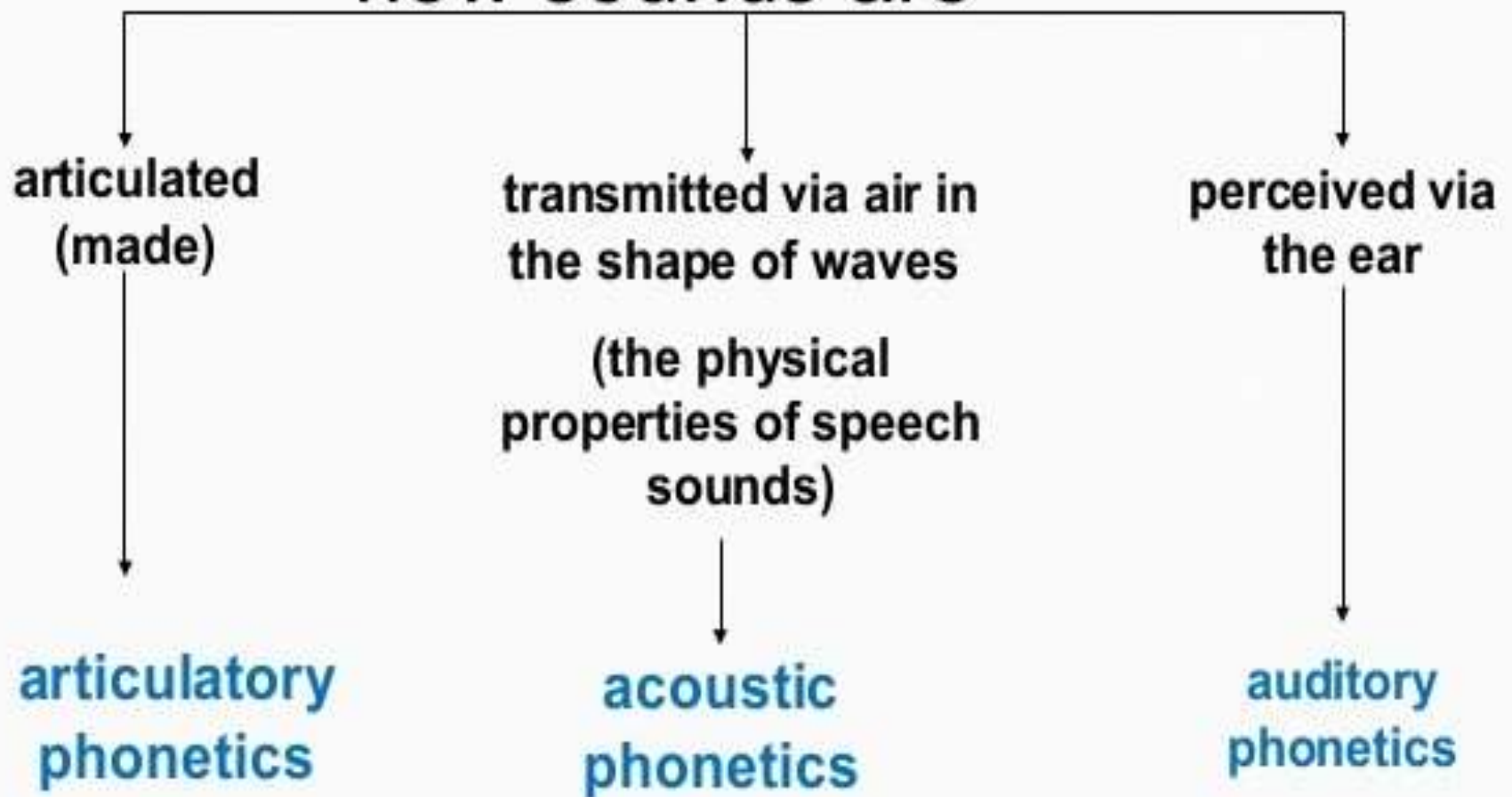
- John C Wells
- Daniel Jones

❖ The University of California

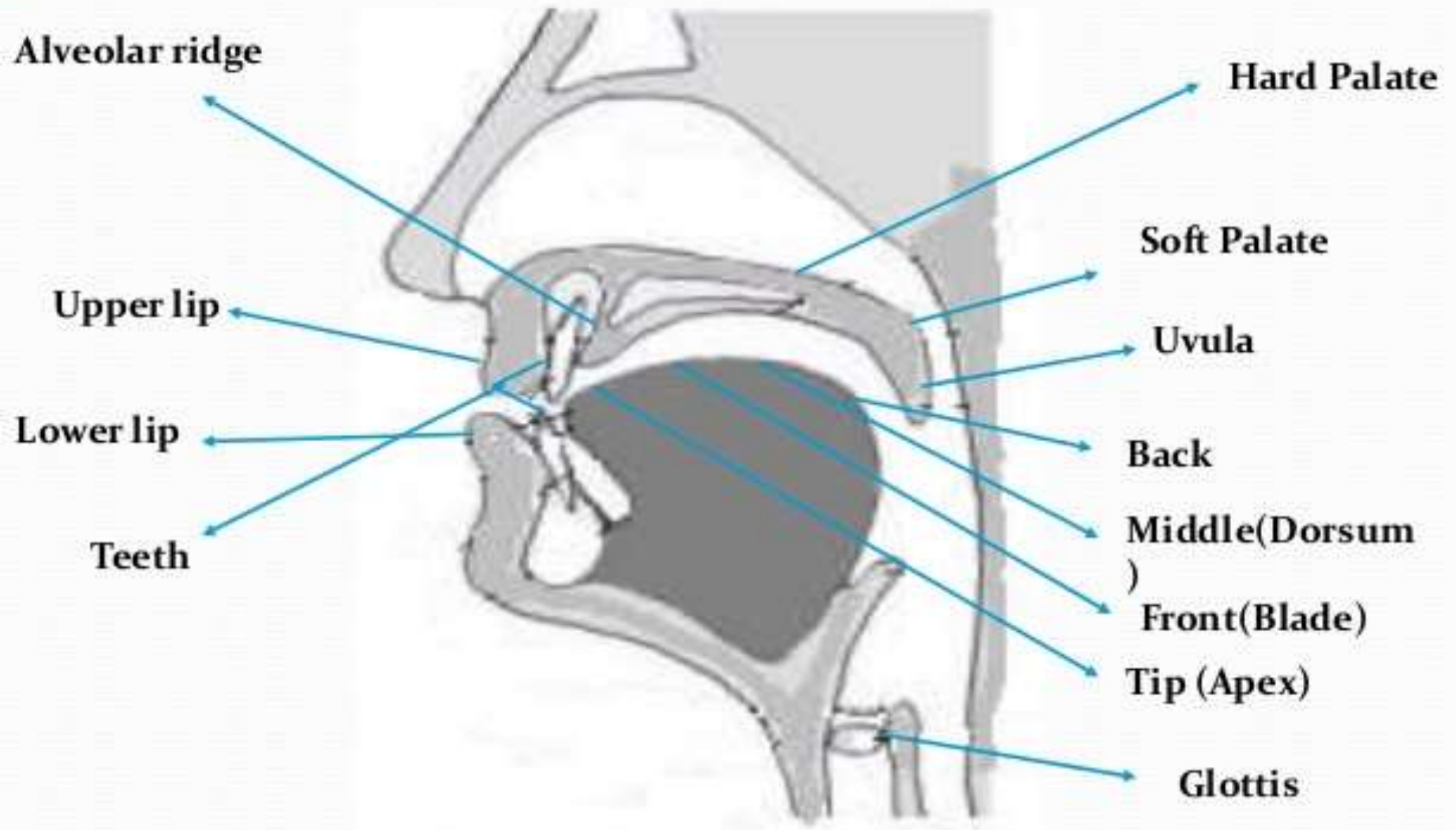
- invested in the research and teaching of Phonetics, boasting a large number of professors in the field, producing and publishing many of their own books and journals on the topic.

The study of

how sounds are



SPEECH ORGANS



The Organs of Speech

Definition:

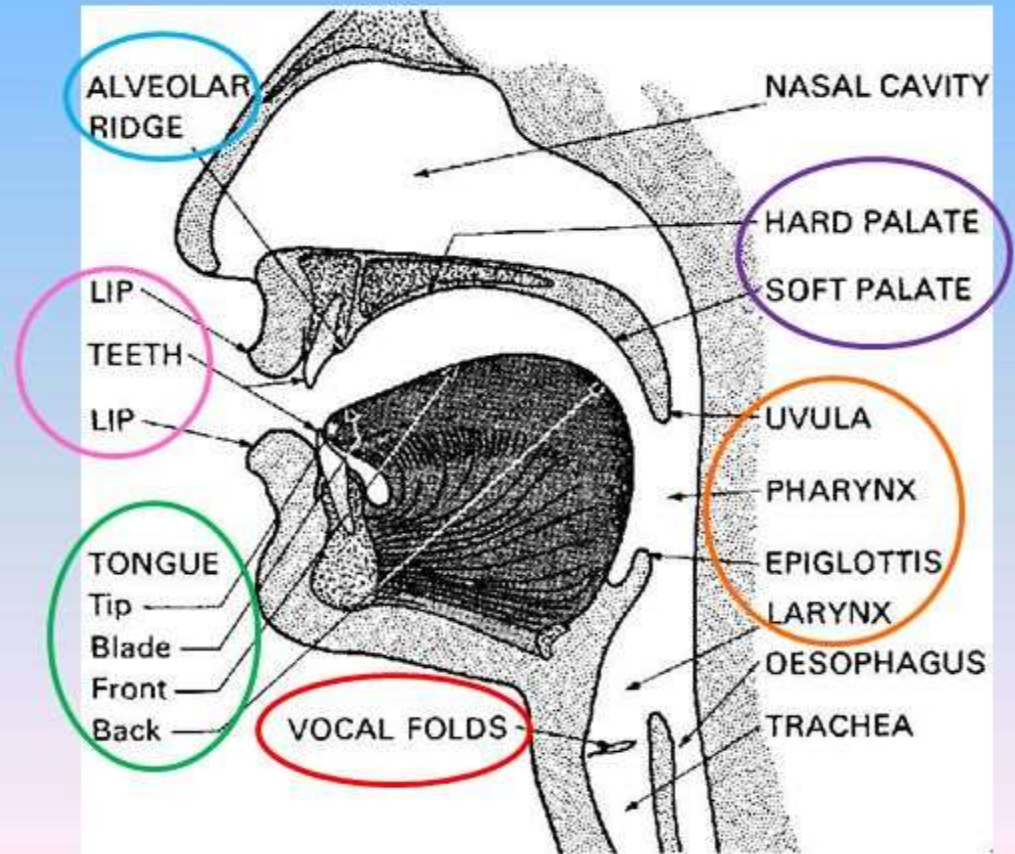
The various organs of our mouth we use to produce speech sounds are called the organs of speech or Speech organs.

Speech organs or articulators, produce the sounds of language. **Organs** used for **speech** include the lips, teeth, alveolar ridge, hard palate, velum (soft palate), uvula, glottis and various parts of the tongue. They can be divided into two types: passive articulators and active articulators.

THE MAIN SPEECH ORGANS

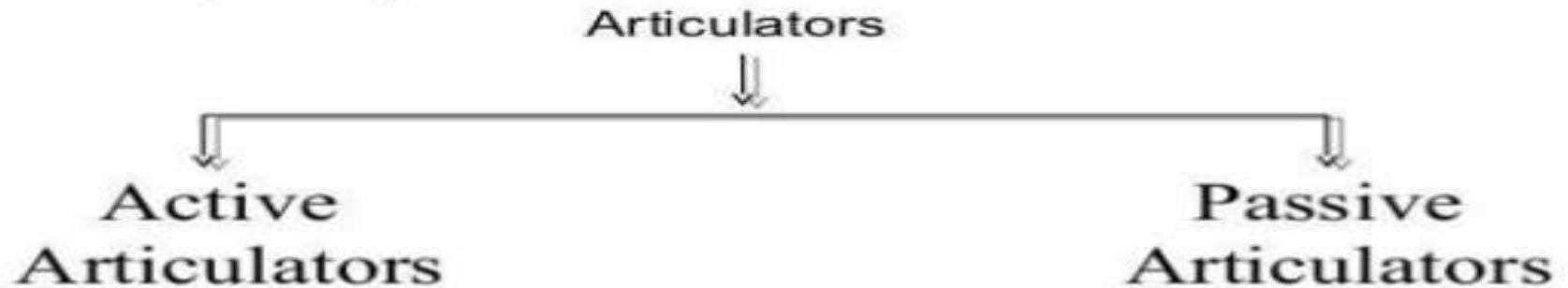
1. Lips
2. Teeth
3. Alveolar ridge
4. Tongue
5. Larynx
6. Vocal cords
7. Epiglottis
8. Pharynx
9. Soft palate

10. Uvula
11. Hard palate



Classification of Organs of Speech

Famous Philologist David Crystal divides the articulators into two different ways according to its mobility. They are...



Active and Passive Articulators

- Active articulators are those organs of speech that move from their position of rest to articulate against other organs of speech that do not or can not move which are called passive articulators.

EX: in producing **t, d, n, s** the tip and blade of the tongue move from their position to the alveolar ridge. So, the tip and blade of the tongue are active articulators and the alveolar ridge is the passive one.

- The active articulators are mostly located in the lower jaw and the passive articulators are mostly in the upper jaw.

1.4.1 Classification of English Speech sounds

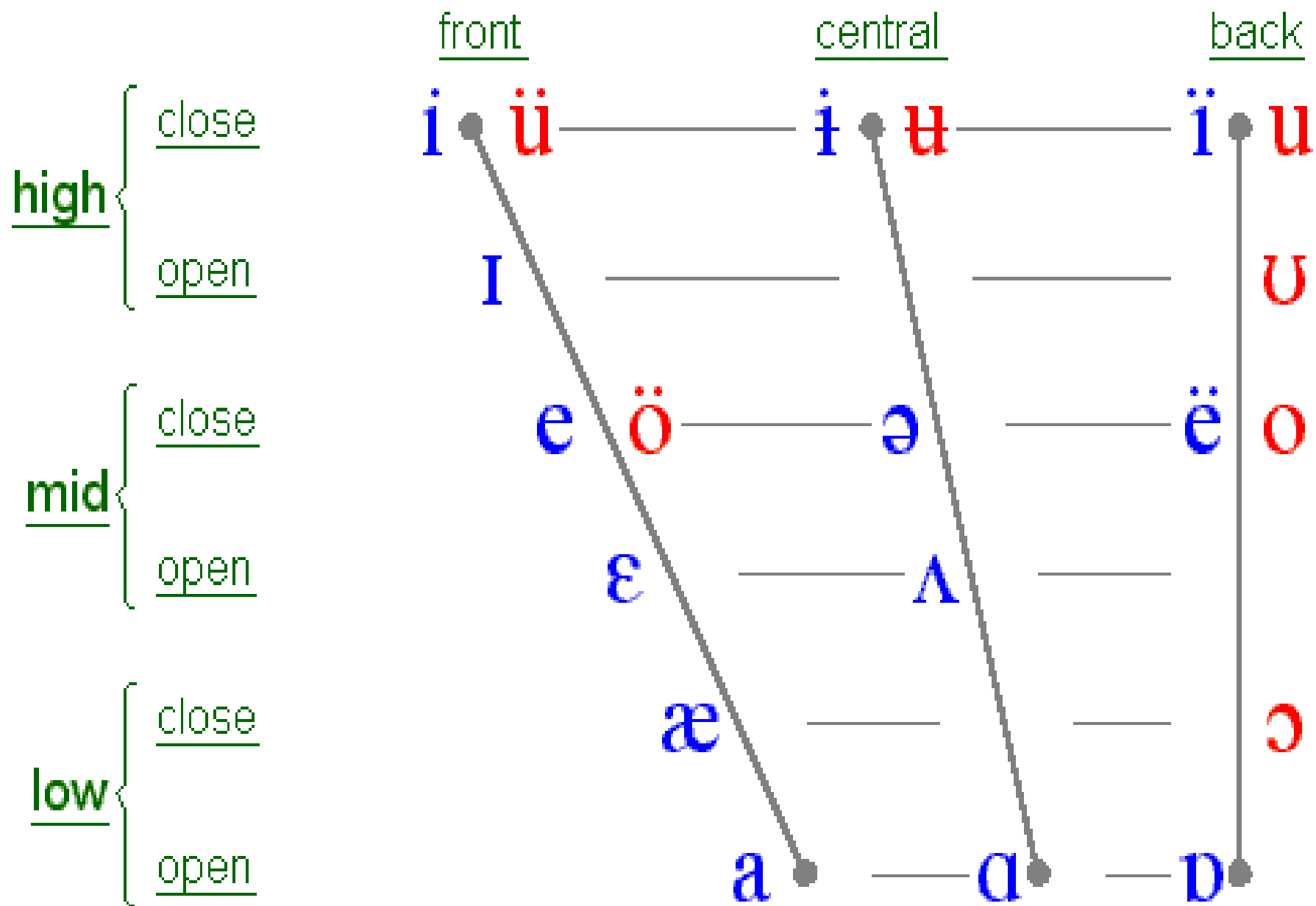
A dichotomy of English speech sounds:

1. **Vowels:** Speech sounds which are produced with no obstruction whatsoever of the vocal tract, so no turbulence or a total stopping of the air can be perceived.
2. **Consonants:** Speech sounds which are produced by constricting or obstructing the vocal tract at some place to divert, impede, or completely shut off the flow of air in the oral cavity.

International Phonetic Alphabet (I.P.A.)

| VOWELS | | DIPHTHONGS & Rhoticized vowels | |
|----------------|------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|
| Symbol | Key word | Symbol | Key word |
| i ^y | se <u>a</u> t | aɪ | by |
| ɪ | si <u>t</u> | aʊ | so <u>u</u> nd |
| e ^y | sa <u>y</u> | ɔɪ | bo <u>y</u> |
| ɛ | se <u>t</u> | | |
| æ | sa <u>t</u> | ɝ ^r | tu <u>r</u> n ³ |
| ɑ | bo <u>x</u> | ə ^r | tea <u>ch</u> er ³ |
| ɔ | bo <u>u</u> ght ¹ | ɛr | wh <u>e</u> re |
| o ^w | ho <u>m</u> e | ɑr | ca <u>r</u> |
| ʊ | bo <u>o</u> k | ɔr | fl <u>o</u> or |
| u ^w | bo <u>o</u> t | ʊr | to <u>u</u> r |
| ʌ | bu <u>t</u> ² | ɪr | be <u>e</u> r |
| ə | ba <u>n</u> ana ² | | |

¹ Most Americans in the southern, central and western U.S. use /ɑ/ instead of /ɔ/



Consonants

| | | | | | |
|----|-------|---------|---|--------|---------|
| p | pen | /pen/ | s | so | /səʊ/ |
| b | bad | /bæd/ | z | zoo | /zu:/ |
| t | tea | /ti:/ | ʃ | shoe | /ʃu:/ |
| d | did | /dɪd/ | ʒ | vision | /'vɪʒn/ |
| k | cat | /kæt/ | h | hat | /hæt/ |
| g | got | /gɒt/ | m | man | /mæn/ |
| tʃ | chain | /tʃeɪn/ | n | no | /nəʊ/ |
| dʒ | jam | /dʒæm/ | ŋ | sing | /sɪŋ/ |
| f | fall | /fɔ:l/ | l | leg | /leg/ |
| v | van | /væn/ | r | red | /red/ |
| θ | thin | /θɪn/ | j | yes | /jes/ |
| ð | this | /ðɪs/ | w | wet | /wet/ |

| MANNER | | VOICING | PLACE | | | | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|-------------|----------|---------|-------|---------|
| | | | Bilabial | Labiodental | Interdental | Alveolar | Palatal | Velar | Glottal |
| Obstruent | Stop | Voiceless | p | | | t | | k | ʔ |
| | | Voiced | b | | | d | | g | |
| | Fricative | Voiceless | | f | θ | s | ʃ | | h |
| | | Voiced | | v | ð | z | ʒ | | |
| | Affricate | Voiceless | | | | | tʃ | | |
| | | Voiced | | | | | dʒ | | |
| Sonorant | Nasal | | Voiced | m | | | n | | ŋ |
| | Liquid | Lateral | Voiced | | | | l | | |
| | | Rhotic | Voiced | | | | | r (ɹ) | |
| | Glide | | Voiced | w | | | | j | (w) |

PHONOLOGY



fəˈnɛtɪks

the sounds of spoken language

- It is concerned in the **abstract, grammatical characterization** of systems of sounds.
- It is the **study** of the speech **sounds** used in a particular language (**language-specific = langue**).
- It is a field in linguistics that studies sounds and connects them to meaning.

- *Phonetics* is the term for the production, description, and classification of speech sounds, specially how they are transmitted and received.
- SPANISH (5 vowels) – ENGLISH (12 – 20 vowels) every language has its own characteristics.

- **Phonetics and Phonology** - both can be generally described as the study of speech sounds
- **Phonetics** – specifically the study of how speech sounds are produced, what their physical properties are, and how they're produced
- **Phonology** – the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds; based on a theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language

Phoneme – Phone – Allophone

- **Phoneme** = a basic unit of which words are composed. It functions contrastively and is an abstract unit, a sound-type "in the mind"
- **Phones** are all the different versions of a phoneme produced in actual speech
- **Allophones** are a set of phones, all of which are versions of a single phoneme
- Differences in pronouncing a word?
bad cold, tired, angry, regional/dialectal differences, size of person, etc.
- **Phonology** → helps us consistently recognize the different versions of a word, e.g. "me" as the form [mi], and not [ni], [si], [ma], [mo]

What's a phoneme?

- The smallest unit by which one can distinguish one word from another (meaning-distinguishing units in a language), See Yule pages 30 and 34 for English phonemes.
- The psychological (abstract) representations or units of actual physical realizations of phonetic segments.
- A set of speech sounds that are identified by a native speaker as the same sound
e.g. tar star eight writer
the [t] sounds in these examples make up a class of speech sounds that English speakers know as /t/

Phonemes

Let's examine the [t] sound in the following:

tar star eight writer

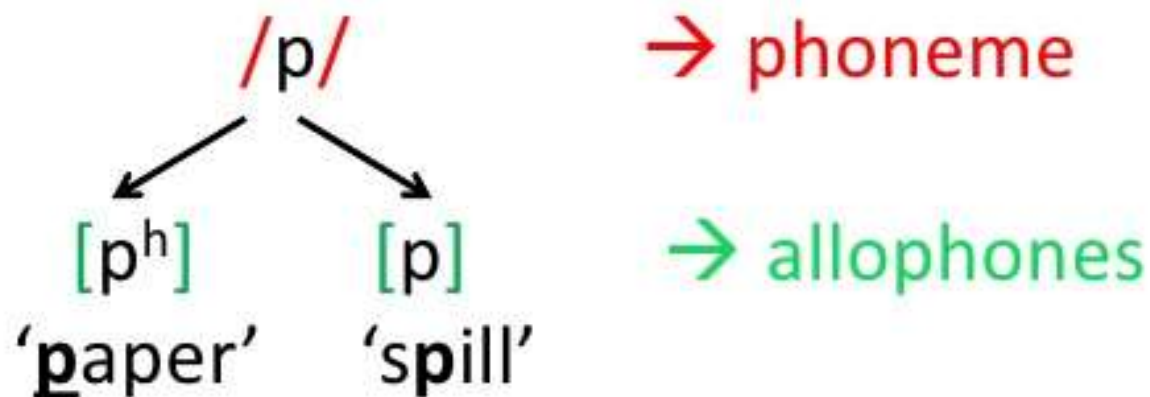
-We might think of these as being the 'same', but actually they are pronounced quite differently.

-However, in the phonology of English, they would be represented in the same way → /t/

- These articulation differences are important, but the distinction between [t] and, for example [c], [b], and [f] are more important because they distinguish meanings of words such as *tar, car, bar, far*.

English Phoneme /p/

[p^h] and [p] are the allophones of the same phoneme /p/ in English:



The 'p' in 'paper' is normally pronounced with aspiration. That is, there is a release of a puff of air. The 'p' in 'spill' is normally not aspirated.

Detour: Aspiration in English

PHONETIC FACT: There is a burst or puff of air after the /p/ in *pill*, *till*, and *kill*, that is absent in *spill*, *still*, and *skill*.

ASPIRATION: The period between the release of the closure of a consonant and the start of the vocal cord activity for the vowel that comes after it. This period is usually felt as a puff of air.

pill [p^hɪl]

till [t^hɪl]

kill [k^hɪl]

spill [spɪl]

still [stɪl]

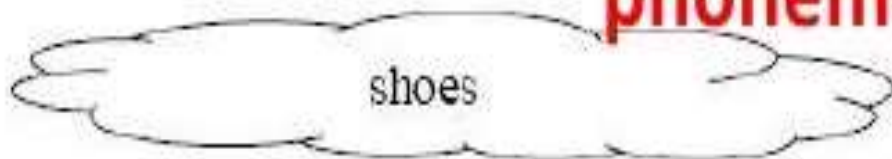
skill [skɪl]



The human mind also ignores other physical/perceptible differences which are not relevant for particular purposes



Allophones –
different versions of
the same underlying
representation



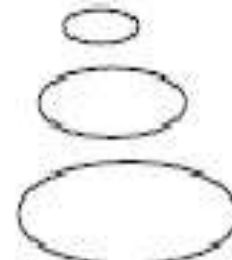
phoneme

The human mind also ignores other physical/perceptible differences which are not relevant for particular purposes

a a A

A a A

Allophones –
different versions of
the same underlying
representation



The first letter of the alphabet

phoneme

Unit III

What are segmental and suprasegmental features?

- *Segmental features of pronunciation:*
The individual sounds (phonemes) of a language—vowels and consonants.
- *Suprasegmental features of pronunciation:*
Aspects of pronunciation that affect more than just one sound segment, such as stress, rhythm, and intonation*—the musical aspects of pronunciation.

Juncture is a slight pause between elements – syllable, words, sentences.

E.g. It is a nice house.

It is an ice house.

Juncture is indicated in writing by commas, periods, and punctuation in general.

Pitch results from the vibration of the vocal cords. The pitch is higher when the vocal cords are vibrating more rapidly. Pitch frequently results in the change of tone.

If we use a low pitch in the sentence

He asked Mary,

it would be understood as a statement.

But if we use a rising pitch in the final syllables, the same statement becomes a question.

The **stress** is loudness or softness of an utterance. It is the amount of intensity given the vowel in a syllable. It is mostly responsible for noun-verb contrasts in English: conduct, import, permit.

STRESS

Defined as the loudness, intensity or articulatory energy with which a syllable is spoken.

- ✓ The same as pitch, it helps to add meaning to what we say.
- ✓ Stress also helps to differentiate the meaning or grammatical function of a word
- ✓ To emphasize or contrast information
present / present

There are four contrasting degrees of stress in English.

- / ' / called the PRIMARY, LOUD or HEAVY STRESS;
- / ^ / called the SECONDARY or MEDIUM STRESS;
- / ` / called the TERTIARY, THIRD or LIGHT STRESS;
- / ˘ / called the WEAK or MINIMAL STRESS.

STRESS

muscular energy

Physiologically

loudness

Acoustically

prominence

Linguistically

I *didn't* take the test yesterday. (I did not take it.)

I didn't take the test yesterday. (Somebody else did.)

I didn't *take* the test yesterday. (I did something else with it.)

I didn't take *the* test yesterday. (I took a different one.)

I didn't take the *test* yesterday. (I took something else.)

I didn't take the test *yesterday*. (I took it some other day.)

Word Stress

- Sometimes a change in word stress indicates a change in the part of speech:

Noun

(stress on first syllable)

Verb

(stress on last syllable)

record

REcord

re**CORD**

progress

PROgress

pro**GRESS**

present

PREsent

pre**SENT**

Word Stress

- There are rules that can predict where the stress will fall in many words. They take into account...
 - the historical origin of a word
 - its prefixes and suffixes
 - its grammatical function in a sentence

Sentence Stress

- Just as every polysyllabic word has one strongly stressed syllable, every sentence or clause has one syllable that receives the strongest stress. This is called *sentence stress*.

What are syllables?

- A syllable is a *rhythmic* unit. It's a unit of sound that gets one "beat" in a word.
- A syllable has a *vowel*. It might also have one or more consonants before the vowel and one or more consonants after it.
- Or a syllable can have a *syllabic consonant*. That's a consonant that's stretched out and acts as a vowel. For example, the last syllable in "button" or "bottle" is usually pronounced as a syllabic consonant.

For example...

- "Eye" has one syllable (just one vowel sound: /ay/)
- "Strength" also has one syllable (three consonants, one vowel, two consonants: /strENT/)
- "Potato" has three syllables: po-ta-to
/p^ˈ tey tow/
- "Pronunciation" has five syllables:
pro-nun-ci-a-tion /pr^ˈ n^ˈ n siy ey S

Word Stress

- In English, every polysyllabic word* has one *stressed* syllable.
- The stressed syllable is emphasized. It can be longer, louder, and higher in pitch than the others. It stands out from the others.

SYL^{la}ble

* Polysyllabic words have more than one syllable.
("Poly" means "many.")

Word Stress

- Which syllable is stressed in each of these words?

elephant

EL^ephant

giraffe

gi **RAFF**E

hippopotamus

hippo **POT**^amus

- In addition to the main stress, some words also have a syllable with weaker stress (like the second syllable in “responsibility.”)

re **spon** si **BIL** i ty

- We can call these degrees of stress:
 - primary stress (strongly stressed)
 - secondary stress (weakly stressed)
 - unstressed
- The vowels in unstressed syllables often become less distinct than in stressed syllables.
- Many (but not all) unstressed syllables contain the vowel / ʌ / (called “schwa”).

hip po**POT** a mus

/hɪp ˈpʌt ˈmʌs/

Stress and Intonation

- Stress and intonation are linked phenomenon; they work together to give the effect of “prominence” or accent. Accented syllables can be said with level pitch, high or low, or with a change in pitch.
- Prominence of accent depends on four factors:
- 1.stress2.pitch3.quality4.quantity.

STRESS, RHYTHM, INTONATION

- **Stress** - a speaker puts an emphasis on the syllable:


cargo

- **Rhythm** - this pattern of strong and weak stress and short and long pronunciation gives English its rhythm:

'I have **never** **liked** the **color** **brown**.'



STRESS, RHYTHM, INTONATION

- **Intonation** - is mainly about HOW we say instead of what we say:
 - **WH-questions** and **statements** have **falling** intonation:

● ● ● ● ● ● ●
'What was the callsign of the aircraft?'

● ● ● ● ● ● ●
'Checklists ensure bigger safety.'

Intonation and Stress

- **Beyond the word level:**

In phrases and sentences, only certain words are normally given stress. (content words).

- Content words: like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs

- Function words: serve more to provide grammar structure. They include articles, conjunctions, pronouns, and prepositions. Function words are normally reduced and spoken quickly.

- 🔊 In linguistics, **intonation** is the variation of pitch when speaking.
- 🔊 **Intonation** and stress are two main elements of linguistic prosody.
- 🔊 **Intonation** is a part of suprasegmental phonology.
- 🔊 Intonation helps to recognize the language that you hear in the same way as the melody of a song helps to recognize the song that you hear.

Key components of Intonation

Intonation is based on several key components:

- Pitch,
- Sentence stress,
- Rhythm.

- 🌀 **Pitch** is the degree of height of our voice in speech.
- 🌀 Normal speaking pitch is at *midlevel*.
- 🌀 Intonation is formed by certain pitch changes, characteristic of a given language.
- 🌀 **Sentence stress** makes the utterance understandable to the listener by making the important words in the sentence stressed, clear and higher in pitch and by shortening and obscuring the unstressed words.
- 🌀 Sentence stress provides rhythm in connected speech.

Functions of intonation

- Attitudinal functions
- Accentual functions
- Grammatical functions
- Discourse functions

ATTITUDINAL FUNCTIONS ACCENTUAL FUNCTIONS

- Allow us to express emotions: finality, confidence, interest, surprise, doubt, joy, pain, irony, etc.
- When it is said that intonation has accentual function, it implies that the **placement of stress is somewhat determined by intonation.**

GRAMMATICAL FUNCTIONS

THE DISCOURSE FUNCTIONS OF INTONATION

» The listener is better able to recognize the grammar and syntax structure of what is being said by using the information contained in the intonation.

For example such things as:

» A - The placement of boundaries between phrases, clauses and sentences.

» B - The difference between questions and statements.

» Intonation can signal to the listener what is to be taken as “new” information and what is already “given”.

» It can indicate when the speaker is indicating some sort of contrast or link with material in another tone unit.

» In conversation it can convey to the listener what kind of response is being expected from him.

Types of English intonation

🔊 In general, linguists distinguish several **main types of English intonation.**

The two basic types are:

- falling intonation
- rising intonation

🔊 Other main types of intonation include:
high fall, low fall, fall-rise, high rise, midlevel rise, low rise.

Falling Intonation

- 🔊 **Falling intonation is the most common type** of standard unemphatic intonation in English.
- 🔊 **It is used for** asking and giving information in normal, quiet, unemphatic style.
- 🔊 **Sounds more categorical, confident and convincing** than rising intonation.
- 🔊 Standard falling intonation in English falls stronger and deeper than standard falling intonation in Russian.

Standard patterns

- ❧ **Falling intonation is used** on the last stressed syllable of the sentence in:
 - ❧ **Statements** (declarative sentences): We live in \MOsCow. He doesn't have a \CAR.
 - ❧ **Special questions**: Where do you \LIVE?
 - ❧ **Commands** (imperative sentences): \STOP it! Sit \DOWN.
 - ❧ **Exclamatory sentences**: What a wonderful sur\PRISE!
 - ❧ **The last part of alternative questions** (after "or"): Do you want /TEA or \COFfee?
 - ❧ **Tag questions** (When we the speaker is *sure* that the answer will be "yes"): You \LIVE here, \DON'T you? (The speaker is sure and expects the answer "yes".)

Rising Intonation

- 🔊 **Rising intonation** in English is a pretty complicated phenomenon.
- 🔊 **It can express** a number of various emotions, such as: non-finality, surprise, doubt, interest, politeness, lack of confidence.
- 🔊 Rising intonation in English is ***very different from rising intonation in Russian.***
- 🔊 Standard rising intonation in English first goes down a little and then up, and doesn't go as high as the rise in Russian does.

Falling Intonation

- Declarative statements

I am going home

- wh- questions

Who will help?

Where are you going?

- Exclamations

How beautiful! What a nice day!

- Imperatives

Get out!

Turn the lights on!

- Question tags when you expect an answer "Yes".

The car is ready, isn't it?

Rising Intonation

- **Yes/no questions**

Are you feeling better?

- **Tag questions when we expect a negative answer** or tags intended as a genuine Yes/No answer.

You like chocolate, don't you?

You have left the door open, haven't you?

He usually arrives at NOON, DOESN't he?

- **Statements to encourage the listener:**

Come on! You can make it.

Come On! It won't take a minute.

- **Yes-no questions in statement form**

he is gone?

- **Incomplete sentences** (speaker intends to continue)

If you wait here,....

Well if you are going to play,....

STRONG AND WEAK FORMS OF WORDS

- Grammatical words help us to construct the sentence but they don't mean anything: articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, etc. are known as **Weak Forms of Words**. These words have no stress, and so they are weakened. That weakened form is called "weak form" as opposed to a "strong form", which is the full form of the word pronounced with stress.
- The strong form only happens when we pronounce the words alone, or when we emphasize them.
- Weak forms are very often pronounced with a schwa, and so are very weak and sometimes a bit difficult to hear properly.
- I am French (strong form) I'm French (weak form) (contractions)
- But usually there is no change of spelling, only the pronunciation is different:
- “Tell him to go” strong forms /hɪm/ /tu:/ weak form: /**tel** əm tə **gəʊ**/
- As you can see, the grammatical words "him" and "to" are unstressed and have a weak form when pronounced inside a sentence.

THE STANDARD PRONUNCIATION

The IPA

The International Phonetic Association was established in 1886 as a forum for teachers who were inspired by the idea of using phonetics to improve the teaching of the spoken language to foreign learners.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) includes 107 distinct phones listed and given distinct notation.

It is based primarily on the Latin and Greek alphabets.

The IPA is unique in that it is independent of any particular language and applicable to all languages.

Received Pronunciation



- In England, one accent has traditionally stood above all.
- This "prestige" accent is known as RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION, or RP.
- *RP* is the pronunciation of British English, originally based on the speech of the upper class of southeastern England.
- It is the characteristic of the English spoken at the public schools and at Oxford and Cambridge Universities.

Received Pronunciation

- The term is coined by “Daniel Jones”
- “Standard” (British) English pronunciation
- Regarded as the most prestigious accent
- It is also known as
 - Queen’s English
 - BBC English

Levels of language

Phonetics, Phonology

Morphology

Syntax

Semantics

Pragmatics

all sounds,
system sounds

forms and
words

clauses and
sentences

meanings of
various kinds

language
use

MORPHEMES

- Free vs. Bound
- Derivational vs. Inflectional
- Prefixes vs. Suffixes

Free morphemes

Can stand alone
as own word

e.g. dog, gentle,
picture
gem

Bound morphemes

Derivational

Inflectional

Prefixes

Suffixes

Suffixes

e.g. de- pre-
in- un-

e.g. -ion -ly
-able -er

e.g. plural -s
-ing -ed