

IGNOU MEG-4 NOTES

IGNOU MEG-4 NOTES FOR TERM END EXAMINATION
WITH ANALYSIS OF LAST YEARS QUESTIONS
AND SUGGESTIONS WITH ANSWERS

By

ONLINE COACHING CENTRE

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DEDICATION

This book is dedicated to million of Indian Distance Learner those who are really wish to pursue higher education through distance education but facing lot of problems due to shortage of time and non availability of good study material. If the benefited from this book and become success to complete their course in time my efforts be success and I will be happy

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Without support of my parents & husband it was not possible to write this book.

PREVIOUS YEAR QUESTION PAPERS

Year	Q.1 No 1	Q.1 No 2	Q No 3	Q No 4	Q No 5
Jun 13	What is meant by derivational morphology ? Explain the classification of derivational affixes in detail.	What is sociolinguistics ? Expand upon its scope and areas of investigation	What is the difference between 'standard' and 'standardized' English ? Discuss the four stages in the standardization process of a language	Explain and exemplify language variation in terms of dialect, style and register	What is the relationship between linguistics and literary criticism ? In what way can linguistics aid in the analysis of literary texts ?
Dec 13	Discuss the Saussurean principles of sign-system	Discuss Stress and Rhythm in connected speech with suitable examples	Write in detail about five tests of determining a syntactic constituent. Give suitable examples.	Why do we need standardization of language ? Describe the process of language standardization	What is the difference between literal vs figurative meanings ? Give suitable examples
Jun 14	Outline the grammatical changes from old English to Modern English.	How are the English consonants classified? Discuss	Give an account of the different types of clauses in English, with suitable examples.	What is a speech community? Discuss the problems in defining a speech community.	Discuss the role of attitudes motivation in language learning.
Dec 14	Outline the characteristics of human language. How are these different from animal communication ?	How would you classify the English vowels ? Discuss.	What are the tests that would help you to identify a syntactic constituent ? Give examples.	Discuss the consequences of bilingualism on the individual, society and the languages	Give an account of the different types of language planning with examples.

PREVIOUS YEAR QUESTION PAPERS

Year	Q.1 No 1	Q.1 No 2	Q No 3	Q No 4	Q No 5
Jun 15	What are the main principles of generative-syntax ? Discuss.	Trace the three stages of the evolution of the English language.	Describe in detail the place and manner of consonant sounds in English.	What do you understand by language planning ? Discuss the limitations of language planning	Discuss the different types of bilingualism, and its consequences to the society
Dec 15	1. Write short notes on any two of the following : 25 (a) Latin borrowings in English (b) Negation (c) Backformation (d) Language and Style	2. Outline the characteristics of human language. Show how human language is different from other forms of communication.	Describe in detail the English consonants and show how they are different from vowels.	What are the consequences of bilingualism/multilingualism on the individual, the social group and the languages ?	Outline the salient features of code-mixing and code-switching with suitable examples.
Jun 16	1. Write short notes on any two of the following : 25 (a) Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (b) Code-Switching (c) Finite and Non-finite verbs (d) Pidgin and Creole	2. Discuss with examples how new words are formed in English	3. Describe the Vowels in English and explain how they are different from consonants	4. Discuss the process of language standardization	5. Examine the role of motivation and attitudes in second language learning

PREVIOUS YEAR QUESTION PAPERS

Year	Q.1 No 1	Q.1 No 2	Q No 3	Q No 4	Q No 5
Dec 16	Write Short Notes on (a) Competence and performance (b) Ethnography of Communication (c) Ideology of Language Planning (d) Cline of Bilingualism	Discuss Bloomfield's approach to linguistic analysis in detail.	What are the criteria for description and classification of consonants ? Discuss..	How would you describe various Clause types and Sentence types.	Elaborate the factors that have bearing upon second language acquisition.
Jun 17	1. What are the Saussurean principles of Structural Linguistics ? Discuss giving examples.	2. How would you describe and classify vowels ? Elaborate giving examples.	3. Discuss the grammatical changes that took place in Modern English. . Why is language planning essential ? What are the different types of language planning ? Elaborate.	5. Give a detailed account of word formation with examples from the English language.	6. How do code-mixing and code-switching help in achieving communicative and social goals ? Explain.
Dec 17	1. Describe, with examples, the characteristics of human language. How is it different from animal communication ?	Describe the English consonants, giving examples.	4. What tests would you use to identify a syntactic constituent ?	5. What is a standard language ? Attempt an examination of the need, process and consequences of Standard English.	6. Distinguish between code-switching and code-mixing with suitable examples.

Jun 18	2. Examine how English spelling became unphonetic. Give examples where necessary.	3. Discuss the following approaches to word formation : 25 (a) Compoundin (b) Conversion (c) Inflectional (d) Reduplicatio n Give examples.	4. , What is bilingualism ? Differentiate between compound, coordinate and subordinate bilinguals. 25	5. Discuss the different types of language planning. How do they relate to the Indian context ? 25	6. Examine the characteristics of American English and how it differs from British English. 25 7. Discuss how linguistics is related to literary criticism and stylistics. 25
Dec 18	1. Write short notes on any two of the following : 20 (a) The Origins of Language (b). Cardinal Vowels (c) Anaphora (d) The Co-operative Principle	2. How does human language differ from animal communication ? Discuss. 6. Discuss different types of code mixing, giving examples.	3. Give an account of Latin borrowings in English. Give suitable examples. 20 7. Give an account of the process of standardizati on of language, with suitable examples from English.	4. Examine the three ways by which change of meaning takes place.	5. Discuss the consequences of bilingualism on the individual, society and the concerned languages. 20

ANSWERS OF IMPORTANT QUESTIONS

Question No 1- Write short note on Word formation by re-duplication.

Answer- Reduplication in linguistics is a morphological process in which the root or stem of a word (or part of it) is repeated exactly or with a slight change. Reduplication is used in inflections to convey a grammatical function, such as plurality, intensification, etc., and in lexical derivation to create new words. It is often used when a speaker adopts a tone more "expressive" or figurative than ordinary speech and is also often, but not exclusively, iconic in meaning. Reduplication is found in a wide range of languages and language groups, though its level of linguistic productivity varies. Reduplication is the standard term for this phenomenon in the linguistics literature. Other terms that are occasionally used include cloning, doubling, duplication, repetition, and tautonym. Reduplication is often described phonologically in one of two different ways: either (1) as reduplicated segments (sequences of consonants/vowels) or (2) as reduplicated prosodic units (syllables or moras). In addition to phonological description, reduplication often needs to be described morphologically as a reduplication of linguistic constituents (i.e. words, stems, roots). As a result, reduplication is interesting theoretically as it involves the interface between phonology and morphology. The base is the word (or part of the word) that is to be copied. The reduplicated element is called the reduplicant, often abbreviated as RED or sometimes just R. In reduplication, the reduplicant is most often repeated only once. However, in some languages, reduplication can occur more than once, resulting in a tripled form, and not aduple as in most reduplication. Triplication is the term for this phenomenon of copying two times. Pingelapese has both reduplication and triplication.

Question No 2- Quantifiers in English.

Answer - Definition:-In grammar, a type of determiner (such as all, some, or much) that expresses a relative or indefinite indication of quantity. Quantifiers usually appear in front of nouns (as in all children), but they may also function as pronouns (as in All have returned). A complex quantifier is a phrase (such as a lot of) that functions as a quantifier.

Examples and Observations:

⌚ "I believe that every person is born with talent." ⌚ (Maya Angelou) ⌚ "Most of the people who will walk after me will be children, so make the beat keep time with short steps." ⌚ (Hans Christian Andersen, in the instructions for the music for his funeral) ⌚ "Many books require no thought from those who read them, and for a very simple reason: they made no such demand upon those who wrote them." (Charles Caleb Colton, Lacon, or Many things in Few Words, 1820) ⌚

"All politicians should have three hats: one to throw into the ring, one to talk through, and one to pull rabbits out of if elected." ⌚ (Carl Sandburg) ⌚ "I've had a lot of worries in my life, most of which never happened." (attributed to Mark Twain, among others) ⌚ Meanings of Quantifiers:-"Quantifiers can be classified in terms of their meaning. Some quantifiers have a meaning of inclusiveness. That is, they refer to an entire group. Both refers to two members of a group of two, few to a subgroup of the entire group, and all to the totality of members of a group of unspecified size. Every and each refer to single members of a group. The difference between all, a few, and both on the one hand and each and every, is reflected in subject-verb agreement . . . "Other quantifiers are noninclusive and have a meaning related to size or quantity. These quantifiers can be classified by the relative size they indicate. For example, many and much refer to large quantities, some to a moderate quantity, and little and few to small quantities . . . " ⌚ (Ron Cowan, The Teacher's Grammar of English: A Course Book and Reference Guide. Cambridge Univ. Press, 2008)

⌚ Partitives and Quantifiers: Agreement ⌚ "There is, in fact, a somewhat fuzzy distinction between partitive structures and inclusives and Quantifiers formed with of. In a clause such as a lot of students have arrived it is the noun students which determines number agreement on the Finite (have - plural). It is not normally possible to say *a lot of students has arrived. Therefore students is the head of the noun group and a lot of is a complex Quantifier. Similarly, it is also normal to say a number of students have arrived not a number of students has arrived, that is, to treat a number of as a complex Quantifier. . . . "For beginning learners, it may be best to introduce expressions such as a lot of and a number of as complex Quantifiers but in other cases to err on the prescriptive side and encourage agreement with the noun preceding of." (Graham Lock, Functional English Grammar. Cambridge Univ. Press, 1996) ⌚ Count Nouns, Mass Nouns, and Quantifiers:-"Count nouns (e.g. diamond, bottle, book, board, waiter, table, cat, bush, truck, house) and mass nouns (e.g. gold, coffee, paper, wood, meat, air, water, coal, smoke, blood, wine) differ grammatically in the range of articles and quantifiers they occur with. For instance, count nouns occur with the indefinite article a but not with the complex quantifier a lot of: a diamond, *a lot of diamond. Mass nouns do the opposite: a lot of gold, *a gold." (Ronald W. Langacker, "Linguistic Manifestations of the Space-Time (Dis)Analogy." Space and Time in Languages and Cultures: Language, Culture, and Cognition, ed. by Luna Filipović and Katarzyna M. Jaszczolt. John Benjamins, 2012) ⌚ Zero Plurals:-"After numerals or quantifiers, count nouns may have a zero plural (the same form as in the singular): thirty year, many mile." (Sidney Greenbaum,

Oxford English Grammar. Oxford Univ. Press, 1996).

Question No 3- Explain the functions of intonation in English and the major tones.

Answer: - intonation is variation of spoken pitch that is not used to distinguish words; instead it is used for a range of functions such as indicating the attitudes and emotions of the speaker, signaling the difference between statements and questions, and between different types of question, focusing attention on important elements of the spoken message and also helping to regulate conversational interaction. It contrasts with tone, in which pitch variation in some languages does distinguish words, either lexically or grammatically. (The term tone is used by some British writers in their descriptions of intonation, but this is to refer to the pitch movement found on the nucleus or tonic syllable in an intonation unit – see Intonation in English: British Analyses of English Intonation, below). Although intonation is primarily a matter of pitch variation, it is important to be aware that functions attributed to intonation such as the expression of attitudes and emotions, or highlighting aspects of grammatical structure, almost always involve concomitant variation in other prosodic features. Crystal for example says that "...intonation is not a single system of contours and levels, but the product of the interaction of features from different prosodic systems – tone, pitch range, loudness, rhythmicity and tempo in particular." Functions of Intonation All vocal languages use pitch pragmatically in intonation — for instance for emphasis, to convey surprise or irony, or to pose a question. Tonal languages such as Chinese and Hausa use intonation in addition to using pitch for distinguishing words. Many writers have attempted to produce a list of distinct functions of intonation. Perhaps the longest was that of W.R. Lee who proposed ten. J.C. Wells and E. Couper-Kuhlen) both put forward six functions. Wells's list is given below; the examples are not his:

⌚ attitudinal function (for expressing emotions and attitudes) Example: a fall from a high pitch on the 'mor' syllable of "good morning" suggests more excitement than a fall from a low pitch

⌚ grammatical function (to identify grammatical structure) Example: it is claimed that in English a falling pitch movement is associated with statements, but a

rising pitch turns a statement into a yes–no question, as in He's going /home?.

This use of intonation is more typical of American English than of British. It is

claimed that some languages, like Chickasaw and Kalaallisut, have the opposite pattern from English: rising for statements and falling with questions.

🕒 focusing (to show what information in the utterance is new and what is

already known) Example: in English I saw a ↘man in the garden answers

"Whom did you see?" or "What happened?", while I ↘saw a man in the garden

answers "Did you hear a man in the garden?"

🕒 discourse function (to show how clauses and sentences go together in spoken discourse) Example: subordinate clauses often have lower pitch, faster tempo and narrower pitch range than their main clause, as in the case of the material in brackets in "The Red Planet [as it's known] is fourth from the sun" psychological function (to organize speech into units that are easy to perceive, memorize and perform) example: the utterance "You can have it in red blue

green yellow or ↘black" is more difficult to understand and remember than the

same utterance divided into tone units as in "You can have it in ↗red | ↗blue |

↗green | ↗yellow | or ↘black" 🕒 indexical function (to act as a marker of

personal or social identity) Example: group membership can be indicated by the use of intonation patterns adopted specifically by that group, such as street vendors or preachers. The so-called high rising terminal, where a statement ends with a high rising pitch movement, is said to be typical of younger speakers of English, and possibly to be more widely found among young female speakers. It

is not known whether such a list would apply to other languages without alteration

Question No 4: - Define bilingualism. What consequences does it entail for the individual and group?

Answer:- Bilingualism is commonly defined as the use of at least two languages by an individual (ASHA, 2004). It is a fluctuating system in children and adults whereby use of and proficiency in two languages may change depending on the opportunities to use the languages and exposure to other users of the languages. It is a dynamic and fluid process across a number of domains, including experience, tasks, topics, and time.

▪ Simultaneous bilingualism occurs when a young child has had significant and meaningful exposure to two languages from birth. Ideally, the child will have equal, quality experiences with both languages. ▪ Sequential bilingualism occurs when an individual has had significant and meaningful exposure to a second language, usually after the age of 3 and after the first language is well established. These second language learners are referred to as "English language learners" in U.S. schools.

The "bilingual" experience is unique to every individual. There is variability in the amount and quality of exposure to the languages the individual learns, as well as the experiences he or she has using the languages when interacting with others.

Question No 5- What, according to Grice, is meant by the 'co-operative' principle and its maxims ? Explain and exemplify conversational implicatures.

Answers: - In social science generally and linguistics specifically, the cooperative principle describes how people interact with one another. As phrased by Paul Grice, who introduced it, it states, "Make your contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." Though phrased as a prescriptive command, the principle is intended as a description of how people normally behave in conversation. Listeners and speakers must speak cooperatively and mutually accept one another to be understood in a particular way. The cooperative principle describes how effective communication in

conversation is achieved in common social situations. The cooperative principle can be divided into four maxims, called the Gricean maxims, describing specific rational principles observed by people who obey the cooperative principle; these principles enable effective communication. Grice proposed four conversational maxims that arise from the pragmatics of natural language. The Gricean Maxims are a way to explain the link between utterances and what is understood from them. People who obey the cooperative principle in their language use will make sure that what they say in a conversation furthers the purpose of that conversation. Obviously, the requirements of different types of conversations will be different. The cooperative principle goes both ways: speakers (generally) observe the cooperative principle, and listeners (generally) assume that speakers are observing it. This allows for the possibility of implicatures, which are meanings that are not explicitly conveyed in what is said, but that can nonetheless be inferred. For example, if Alice points out that Bill is not present, and Carol replies that Bill has a cold, then there is an implicature that the cold is the reason, or at least a possible reason, for Bill's absence; this is because Carol's comment is not cooperative — does not contribute to the conversation — unless her point is that Bill's cold is or might be the reason for his absence. (This is covered specifically by the Maxim of Relevance). Grice's Maxims

Maxim of Quality Be Truthful

⌚ Do not say what you believe to be false. ⌚ Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence. Maxim of Quantity

⌚ Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange). ⌚ Do not make your contribution more informative than is required. Maxim of Relation Relevance

⌚ Be relevant. With respect to this maxim, Grice writes, "Though the maxim itself is terse, its formulation conceals a number of problems that exercise me a good deal: questions about what different kinds and focuses of relevance there may be, how these shift in the course of a talk exchange, how to allow for the fact that subjects of conversations are legitimately changed, and so on. I find the treatment of such questions exceedingly difficult, and I hope to revert to them in later work." (Grice 1989:27) Maxim of Manner Be Clear

⌚ Avoid obscurity of expression. ⌚ Avoid ambiguity. ⌚ Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity). ⌚ Be orderly.

Question No 6 - Write a detailed note on the rise of American English. Give examples.

Answer - The rise of the United States as a world power in the course of the

twentieth century paralleled a remarkable phenomenon in cultural history - the spread of American English with its own distinctively rich idioms and vocabulary. From the end of the First World War onwards scholars, journalists and commentators in the United States discovered a new appreciation for the vigorously American use of English, and in the inter-war years colloquial American language became increasingly dominant in novels and films. But behind this development there was a striking anxiety among educated Americans about the correct use of English, and this self-consciousness was at odds with linguistic science which was moving away from language-as-rule and toward language-as-spoken. These tensions came to a head in 1961 when the publishers Merriam-Webster, in their press release in advance of the publication of Webster's Third Unabridged Dictionary, defined 'ain't' as a contraction which was used orally in most parts of the US by cultivated speakers. Many Americans gasped. How could ain't be 'cultivated'?

The ensuing controversy is the subject of David Skinner's book *The Story of Ain't*:

—My book is about the rise of linguistics and the shifts in American culture towards more democratic and scientific standards of knowledge. And it's about the sort of comedy of people getting very upset about language. We all have incredibly strong feelings about other people's usage of words, and in this case it seemed as if the great authority on American vocabulary was, as the New York Times put it, —surrendering to the permissive school. In the ensuing discussion, journalist Peter Pomerantsev pointed out an interesting parallel in today's Russia, where he has recently covered the on-going political protests. He described the linguistic concerns of the Russian protest movement as they attempt to create and shape new and effective terminology to express political opposition against the Putin's Russia. —There is a fascinating search going on at the moment among the Russian intelligentsia to find a new language to express political concepts and to create a new terminology for concepts of democracy and civil society that are not tainted by the stalled opening of the 1990s.

The discussion was chaired by author and historian, Hywel Williams, and moderated by the Legatum Institute's President and CEO, Jeffrey Gedmin.

Question No 7: - What is meant by 'style' in Language and what are its uses?

Answer - In any language, different styles of expression are appropriate in different situations. We can go from the formal to the informal, the written to the spoken, from technical language (or jargon) to slang.

There are no "rules" as such; nevertheless, there are plenty of features which distinguish formal styles from informal styles. Here are some of them.

Principles of English written style: Note: these are principles: they are by no means to be considered as "rules".

⌚ a) The more formal a document is, the more it will use inanimate nouns as subjects of a sentence. ⌚ b) The more formal language is, the more it is likely to use passive structures. ⌚ c) The more formal language is, the more verbal nouns it will use. ⌚ d) The more formal a document is, the more words of Latin origin it will use. Conversely

⌚ a) The more informal or spontaneous language is, the more it will use humans as the subjects of sentences. ⌚ b) The more informal a text is, the less it will use passive structures, ⌚ c) The more informal a text is, the more it will use verb structures (where a choice is possible) instead of verbal nouns. ⌚ b) The more informal or spoken a text is, the more words of Germanic origin it will use. Here are some examples; in each case, the same idea is expressed using three different levels of formality: look at the different changes that occur, as we move from a formal style to an informal one:-

1. The inclement climatic conditions obliged the President to return earlier than scheduled. The president was obliged to return earlier than planned due to poor weather conditions. The president had to go back sooner than planned because the weather was so bad.

2. Please await instructions before dispatching items. Please wait for instructions before sending items off. Don't send anything off until you're told to do so.

Essential measures should be undertaken at the earliest opportunity. One should undertake any necessary measures at the earliest opportunity. You should do whatever you have to as soon as you can.

Prior to the discovery of America, potatoes were not consumed in Europe.

Before America was discovered, potatoes were not eaten in Europe. Before they discovered America, Europeans didn't eat potatoes.

From Written to spoken styles.

Written and spoken versions of a language use different styles, different registers. To talk in "written English" may be no more appropriate than to write using a "spoken" variety of English. Generally speaking, written English is always more formal than spoken English. nevertheless, there are informal forms of written English (notably in fiction and in the popular press), and formal styles of spoken English, in particular "discourse", or prepared speech.

In the following examples, the same message is expressed in five different styles, from an extremely formal written style, to the very informal spoken style. Note in particular how the colour coded word groups evolve. (The information expressed in the following examples is necessarily quite technical, as formal jargon levels of expression are totally inappropriate for non technical communication).

Question No 8: - What is meant by structuralism, in the field of Linguistics?

ANS:- In Ferdinand de Saussure's Course in General Linguistics (written by Saussure's colleagues after his death and based on student notes), the analysis focuses not on the use of language (called "parole", or speech), but rather on the underlying system of language (called "langue"). This approach examines how the elements of language relate to each other in the present, synchronically rather than diachronically. Saussure argued that linguistic signs were composed of two parts:

1. a "signifier" (the "sound pattern" of a word, either in mental projection—as when one silently recites lines from a poem to one's self—or in actual, physical realization as part of a speech act) 2. a "signified" (the concept or meaning of the word) This was quite different from previous approaches that focused on the relationship between words and the things in the world that they designate. Other key notions in structural linguistics include paradigm, syntagm, and value (though these notions were not fully developed in Saussure's thought). A structural "idealism" is a class of linguistic units (lexemes, morphemes or even constructions) that are possible in a certain position in a given linguistic environment (such as a given sentence), which is called the "syntagm". The different functional role of each of these members of the paradigm is called

"value" (valeur in French). Saussure's Course influenced many linguists between World War I and World War II. In the United States, for instance, Leonard Bloomfield developed his own version of structural linguistics, as did Louis Hjelmslev in Denmark and Alf Sommerfelt in Norway. In France Antoine Meillet and Émile Benveniste continued Saussure's project. Most importantly, however, members of the Prague school of linguistics such as Roman Jakobson and Nikolai Trubetzkoy conducted research that would be greatly influential. However, by the 1950s Saussure's linguistic concepts were under heavy criticism and were soon largely abandoned by practicing linguists: "Saussure's views are not held, so far as I know, by modern linguists, only by literary critics and the occasional philosopher. [Strict adherence to Saussure] has elicited wrong film and literary theory on a grand scale. One can find dozens of books of literary theory bogged down in signifiers and signifieds, but only a handful that refer to Chomsky."

The clearest and most important example of Prague school structuralism lies in phonemics. Rather than simply compiling a list of which sounds occur in a language, the Prague school sought to examine how they were related. They determined that the inventory of sounds in a language could be analyzed in terms of a series of contrasts. Thus in English the sounds /p/ and /b/ represent distinct phonemes because there are cases (minimal pairs) where the contrast between the two is the only difference between two distinct words (e.g. 'pat' and 'bat'). Analyzing sounds in terms of contrastive features also opens up comparative scope—it makes clear, for instance, that the difficulty Japanese speakers have differentiating /r/ and /l/ in English is because these sounds are not contrastive in Japanese. Phonology would become the paradigmatic basis for structuralism in a number of different fields.

Question No 9 - Write short note on Competence and performance.

Answer - When we communicate with each other, we use a language. We have already known that language is a means of our communication. So, language has a main role in our daily communication and using language, it is easy for us to be understood in communication that is why we should have a good communicative competence.

It means that how we can apply the grammatical aspect, and the most important is how we can use the language in certain contexts. Communicative competence includes the knowledge about the grammatical aspect, linguistics competence, as well as how we use this knowledge of grammar in our actual

speech comprehension (linguistics performance). There are things to be remained related with the definition and the relationship between competence and performance in our communicative competence. Competence means the knowledge of a language system. It refers to our ability to make sentences and to understand it. It also includes our knowledge of what belongs to sentences and what does not in a language. For example, an English native speaker might know the concept and the meaning of sentence: —I go to school every dayll but they would not accept if the sentence becomes — I go to school yesterdayll, even it is still in English sentence but is unacceptable. Performance means what we do with our knowledge of certain language. It is about how we, as a language user, can apply the language in actual use. Performance also means our actual use of language. Linguistic performance may indicate our competence. It means we can see the difference between linguistic competence and linguistic performance. For example, we may have the competence to create long sentence in our competence, but when we use our performance, sometimes we elicit some words to pronounce, may be because we forget, or we know consciously if we delete the word. Perhaps we forget what we are going to say or even we have the slip of tongue. Communicative competence is really related to our linguistic competence and performance. Briefly, communicative competence will depend on our competence and performance. Competence can give good effect to us in creating our linguistic performance. About, performance does not guarantee whether our competence good or bad. Sometimes we make errors or even mistake to do our competence and performance.

Question No 10 - How do competence and performance apply to the language classroom?

Answer - As we have learned, competence and performance involve —knowingll and —doingll. In the recent past, many language instruction programs have focused more on the —knowingll competence part of learning a language wherein words and sentences are presented and practiced in a way to best help learners internalize the forms. The assumption here is that once the learners have ‘learned’ the information they will be able to use it through reading, writing, listening and speaking. The disadvantage of this approach is that the learners are unable to use the language in a natural way. Having been trained to learn the language through —knowingll, learners have difficulty reversing this training and actually —doingll something with the language. In brief, it is difficult to assess whether the learners’ insufficient proficiency is due to limitations of competency or a lack of performance. In order to focus learners

more on the —doingll part of learning, which allows a more accurate measure of learners' language proficiency, a more communicative approach to teaching can be used. This type of approach concentrates on getting learners to do things with the language. If we think of B-SLIM we can see that this relates to the Getting It and Using It stages of the model. By encouraging students to eventually —learn through the languagell as opposed to strictly learning the language there is a more balanced focus on both competence and performance.

Question No 11-What does 'register, mean in the English language? Give a clear distinction between register and a dialect?

Answer - A dialect is a regional variation of a language; the definition is mainly political since no two authorities can agree on when an accent becomes a dialect or when a dialect becomes a separate language. For example, a person from Naples in Italy would probably not understand a single word someone from Milan said and vice versa if they are speaking their own local vernacular; varieties of Italian differ so much from standard Italian that they have their own grammar and vocabulary - yet they are referred to as "dialects"; on the other hand, Serbian and Croatian are practically the same language apart from a few items of vocabulary and the way a certain letter is pronounced, and a person from Belgrade would have no difficulty conversing with someone from Zabreb - yet the speakers will insist very firmly that they are different languages (although before the partition of Yugoslavia they were classed as the same language). Register refers to the *type* of language you use for a given situation and can cut across language/dialect/accent. For example, compare the following sentences:

- (1) "Some fellow got run over and killed by a lorry in the high street yesterday"
- (2) "A man died yesterday following a collision with a heavy goods vehicle in a busy town centre"

The first one would probably be said in conversation by someone talking with friends. The other is the way it would probably be reported in a newspaper. So Sentence (1) is in "conversational register", whilst (2) would be "journalistic register"; it is true that conversational register is more likely to occur in dialect than journalist register is, but the fact that someone speaks in dialect does not preclude registers other than conversational. For example, in British theatre or films, a comic effect is often produced by having a Policeman with a strong local accent or dialect speaking in a legalistic register.

Question No 12 - Write short note on Cardinal vowels.

Answer - Cardinal vowels are a set of reference vowels used by phoneticians in describing the sounds of languages. For instance, the vowel of the English word "feet" can be described with reference to cardinal vowel 1, [i], which is the cardinal vowel closest to it. A cardinal vowel is a vowel sound produced when the tongue is in an extreme position, either front or back, high or low. The current system was systematized by Daniel Jones in the early 20th century, though the idea goes back to earlier phoneticians, notably Ellis and Bell. Three of the cardinal vowels—[i], [a] and [u]—have articulatory definitions. The vowel [i] is produced with the tongue as far forward and as high in the mouth as is possible (without producing friction), with spread lips. The vowel [u] is produced with the tongue as far back and as high in the mouth as is possible, with protruded lips. This sound can be approximated by adopting the posture to whistle a very low note, or to blow out a candle. And is produced with the tongue as low and as far back in the mouth as possible. The other vowels are 'auditorily equidistant' between these three 'corner vowels', at four degrees of aperture or 'height': close (high tongue position), close-mid, open-mid, and open (low tongue position). The Ngwe language of West Africa has been cited as a language with a vowel system that has 8 vowels which are rather similar to the 8 primary cardinal vowels (Ladefoged 1971:67). These degrees of aperture plus the front-back distinction define 8 reference points on a mixture of articulatory and auditory criteria. These eight vowels are known as the eight 'primary cardinal vowels', and vowels like these are common in the world's languages. The lip positions can be reversed with the lip position for the corresponding vowel on the opposite side of the front-back dimension, so that e.g. Cardinal 1 can be produced with rounding somewhat similar to that of Cardinal 9 (though normally compressed rather than protruded); these are known as 'secondary cardinal vowels'. Sounds such as these are less common in the world's languages. Other vowel sounds are also recognized on the vowel chart of the International Phonetic Alphabet

Question No 13- Write short note on Pidgins and Creoles.

Answer - A pidgin is a restricted language which arises for the purposes of communication between two social groups of which one is in a more dominant position than the other. The less dominant group is the one which develops the pidgin. Historically, pidgins arose in colonial situations where the representatives of the particular colonial power, officials, tradesmen, sailors, etc., came in contact with natives. The latter developed a jargon when communicating with

the former. This resulted in a language on the basis of the colonial language in question and the language or languages of the natives. Such a language was restricted in its range as it served a definite purpose, namely basic communication with the colonists. In the course of several generations such a reduced form of language can become more complex, especially if it develops into the mother tongue of a group of speakers. This latter stage is that of creolisation. Creoles are much expanded versions of pidgins and have arisen in situations in which there was a break in the natural linguistic continuity of a community, for instance on slave plantations in their early years. The interest of linguists in these languages has increased greatly in the last few decades. The main reason for this is that pidgins and creoles are young languages. In retracing their development it may be possible to see how new languages can arise. Furthermore, the large number of shared features among widely dispersed pidgins and creoles leads to the conclusion that creoles at least show characteristics which are typical of language in the most general sense, the features of older languages, such as complex morphology or intricate phonology, arising due to the action of various forces over a long period of time after the birth of these languages. In type, creoles are all analytic and generally lack complexity in their sound systems. The terms 'pidgin' and 'creole' There are a number of views on the origin of the term pidgin, none of which has gained sole acceptance by the academic community.

1) Chinese corruption of the word business. As the word is used for any action or occupation (cf. joss-pidgin 'religion' and chow-chow-pidgin 'cooking' it should not be surprising that it be used for a language variety which arose for trading purposes.

2 Portuguese *ocupação* meaning 'trade, job, occupation'. This suggestion is interesting as the Portuguese were among the first traders to travel to the third world and influence natives with their language. Phonetically the shift from the original word to a form /pidgin/ is difficult to explain.

3 A form from the South American language Yayo '-pidian' meaning 'people' claim put forward by Kleinecke, 1959). This form occurs in tribal names like 'Mapidian', 'Tarapidian', etc. This claim rests on a single occurrence of the word 'Pidians' in a text from 1606. But as several authors have pointed out this might be a spelling error for 'Indians' seeing as how the author has other misspellings in the text in question.

4 Hancock 1972 suggested that the term is derived from 'pequeno português' which is used in Angola for the broken Portuguese spoken by the illiterate. This view is semantically justified seeing that the word 'pequeno' is often used to

mean 'offspring', in this case a language derived from another. Phonetically, the shift to /pidgin/ is not difficult to account for: /peke: no/ > /pege: n/ > /pigin/ > /pidgin/ (stages not attested, however).

5) Hebrew word 'pidjom' meaning 'barter'. This suggestion is phonetically and semantically plausible, hinges however on the distribution of a Jewish word outside of Europe and its acceptance as a general term for a trade language.

The term 'creole' There is less controversy on this issue than on the previous one. The term would seem to derive from French 'creole', it in its turn coming from Portuguese 'crioulo' rather than from Spanish 'criollo' which goes back to an Iberian stem meaning 'to nurse, breed, bring up'. The present meaning is 'native to a locality or country'. Originally it was used 17th century to refer to those from European countries born in the colonies. The term then underwent a semantic shift to refer to customs and language of those in the colonies and later to any language derived from a pidgin based on a European language, typically English, French, Portuguese, Spanish or Dutch. Now the term refers to any language of this type, irrespective of what the input language has been

Question No 14 - Discuss the difference between European and American structuralism in detail.

Answer - American and European structuralism shared a number of features. In insisting upon the necessity of treating each language as a more or less coherent and integrated system, both European and American linguists of this period tended to emphasize, if not to exaggerate, the structural uniqueness of individual languages. There was especially good reason to take this point of view given the conditions in which American linguistics developed from the end of the 19th century. There were hundreds of indigenous American Indian languages that had never been previously described. Many of these were spoken by only a handful of speakers and, if they were not recorded before they became extinct, would be permanently inaccessible. Under these circumstances, such linguists as Franz Boas (died 1942) were less concerned with the construction of a general theory of the structure of human language than they were with prescribing sound methodological principles for the analysis of unfamiliar languages. They were also fearful that the description of these languages would be distorted by analyzing them in terms of categories derived from the analysis of the more familiar Indo-European languages. After Boas, the two most influential American linguists were Edward Sapir (died 1939) and Leonard Bloomfield (died 1949). Like his teacher Boas, Sapir was equally at home in anthropology and linguistics, the alliance of which disciplines has endured to the present day in many American universities. Boas and Sapir were

both attracted by the Humboldtian view of the relationship between language and thought, but it was left to one of Sapir's pupils, Benjamin Lee Whorf, to present it in a sufficiently challenging form to attract widespread scholarly attention. Since the republication of Whorf's more important papers in 1956, the thesis that language determines perception and thought has come to be known as the Whorfian hypothesis. Sapir's work has always held an attraction for the more anthropologically inclined American linguists. But it was Bloomfield who prepared the way for the later phase of what is now thought of as the most distinctive manifestation of American "structuralism." When he published his first book in 1914, Bloomfield was strongly influenced by Wundt's psychology of language. In 1933, however, he published a drastically revised and expanded version with the new title *Language*; this book dominated the field for the next 30 years. In it Bloomfield explicitly adopted a behaviouristic approach to the study of language, eschewing in the name of scientific objectivity all reference to mental or conceptual categories. Of particular consequence was his adoption of the behaviouristic theory of semantics according to which meaning is simply the relationship between a stimulus and a verbal response. Because science was still a long way from being able to give a comprehensive account of most stimuli, no significant or interesting results could be expected from the study of meaning for some considerable time, and it was preferable, as far as possible, to avoid basing the grammatical analysis of a language on semantic considerations. Bloomfield's followers pushed even further the attempt to develop methods of linguistic analysis that were not based on meaning. One of the most characteristic features of "post-Bloomfieldian" American structuralism, then, was its almost complete neglect of semantics. (see also Index: stimulus-response theory) Another characteristic feature, one that was to be much criticized by Chomsky, was its attempt to formulate a set of "discovery procedures"--procedures that could be applied more or less mechanically to texts and could be guaranteed to yield an appropriate phonological and grammatical description of the language of the texts. Structuralism, in this narrower sense of the term, is represented, with differences of emphasis or detail, in the major American textbooks published during the 1950s.

Question No 15- What Is the Relationship between Stylistics and Literary Criticism?

Answer - Literary criticism encompasses a complex and changing group of disciplines while Literary stylistics is the study and interpretation of texts from a linguistic perspective. The main difference between literary and stylistic study is that while literary criticism is an orgy of opinion, stylistic analysis is a submission to the work itself. Literary stylistics and literary criticism are approaches to

analyse and evaluate literature. Stylistics refers to the study of style or patterns used in literary and verbal language whereas literary criticism is the practical implication of literary theory. Criticism follows object approach whereas stylistics has got a subjective approach.

Question No 16- What are consonants? How are they classified? Illustrate your answer.

Answer Definition:-A speech sound that's not a vowel; a letter of the alphabet that represents a speech sound produced by a partial or complete obstruction of the air stream by a constriction of the speech organs. Etymology: From the Latin, "agree" and "sound —Examples and Observations: ⌚ "There are 21 consonant letters in the written alphabet (B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S, T, V, W, X, Y, Z), and there are 24 consonant sounds in most English accents. . . . Because of the erratic history of English spelling, there is no neat one-to-one correlation between letters and sounds." ⌚ (David Crystal, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Cambridge University Press, 2003). ⌚ "The 24 usual consonants occur in the following words, at the beginning unless otherwise specified: pale, tale, kale, bale, dale, gale, chain, Jane, fail, thin, sale, shale, hale, vale, this, zoo; (in the middle of) measure, mail, nail; (at the end of) sing, lay, rail, wail, Yale. Not one of these consonants is spelled in a completely consistent way in English, and some of them are spelled very oddly and inconsistently indeed. Note that our alphabet has no single letters for spelling the consonants in chain, thin, shale, this, measure, and sing. Those letters that are commonly used for spelling consonants may be called consonant letters, but calling them consonants is loose and misleading." (R.L. Trask, Mind the Gaffe! Harper, 2006) ⌚ "In a phonetic description, we distinguish vowels from consonants in terms of how they are articulated in the vocal tract, and the associated patterns of acoustic energy." (David Crystal, How Language Works. Overlook Press, 2006)

⌚ "Our B represents probably the same sound carried by the analogous letter in Near Eastern alphabets of 30 or 40 centuries ago. ⌚ "It is a consonant sound. Therefore, B is a consonant letter, the first in alphabetical sequence of our 21. If asked at a dinner party to define the word 'consonant,' someone might venture, 'Well, I know it's not a vowel . . .' and that actually is the best starting point. Whereas vowels are pronounced from the vocal cords with minimal shaping of expelled breath, consonant sounds are created through obstruction or channeling of the breath by the lips, teeth, tongue, throat, or nasal passage, variously combined. Some consonants, like B, involve the vocal cords; others

don't. Some, like R or W, flow the breath in a way that steers them relatively close to being vowels." (David Sacks, Letter Perfect. Broadway Books, 2003) 🕒
The Lighter Side of Consonants:-"Lost Consonants is a text and image word play series which illustrates a sentence from which a vital letter has been removed, altering its meaning. Welcome to a world where children have leaning difficulties and youth can become addicted to rugs; where firemen wear flame-resistant clothing, and footballers get camp in their legs; where dogs start baking and horses start catering, and where, after several days without water, everyone is really thirty."

Question No 17- What do you understand by the term 'language planning'? Describe the practical considerations that need to be taken into account by the language planners.

Answer - Language planning is a deliberate effort to change a language or its functions in society. There are three kinds of language planning: Corpus planning: making changes in the structure of a language. In ethnic languages a linguistic institution may introduce new expressions and new words (or officialize words that have entered the language recently). Making grammars, dictionaries, and an orthography - and introducing orthographic reforms - are part of the establishing of a linguistic norm for a language, or the changing of an older norm. Linguistic purism also belongs to corpus planning. There is no abyss between ethnic languages and planned languages that are built on ethnic languages regarding corpus planning, only a scalar difference. The written ethnic languages received their norm through corpus planning. The ethnic languages change not only through spontaneous evolution but also through corpus planning. When a planned language is created, corpus planning occurs more or less from scratch. But when a planned language has acquired a stable structure and has been used for a while, changes occur almost like in an ethnic language. Esperanto is such a language. Status planning: political ways of changing the status of a language in a certain society. Making a certain language or dialect an official language or a national language is status planning, as well as giving official minority language status to a certain language. Writing systems are often the result of status planning, since a writing system is often based on an officially chosen dialect. Acquisition planning: influencing the teaching and learning of languages, and the number of language students. Deciding which languages are to be taught in a certain school system is acquisition planning, just like allocating resources to educate language teachers for certain languages. These decisions are usually taken by national, regional, or local authorities. National language institutes like British Council and Goethe-Institut are also active in acquisition planning, striving to increase the

number of students of their language abroad. Private organizations like Universala Esperanto-Asocio are also engaged in acquisition planning. So language planning can be conducted by authorities, ethnic, religious, or occupational groups, by private organizations, and by individuals. It is important to note that language democracy is dependent on two things: a) language planning, especially status planning and acquisition planning; and b) that language planning is used to further language democracy.

Question No 18- Discuss the scope of negation and negation as a logical operation. List with examples the different kinds of negation in English.

Answer - Almost as soon as we are born, we can use negation, indicating by gesture or other behavior that we reject, exclude, or disagree with something. Because it is so common and so easily-mastered, negation may seem to be a simple concept. However, it has bedeviled all efforts to be easily defined and understood. In trying to define negation, it is useful to consider two approaches to the topic: negation as a technical tool for use in logic, and negation in natural language. We begin with the former. Negation in logic

Classical (Aristotelean) term logic is the earliest and simplest formal logic. It is limited to single-predicate propositions that are necessarily either true or false. A single-predicate proposition is one like 'Mary is beautiful' or 'Snow is red', in which one single thing is said (whether rightly or not) to have a single characteristic, or predicate. Negation of a proposition in term logic may be defined by listing two necessary and sufficient properties of that function with respect to an object or set, X: i. X and its complement must include everything, and ii. The intersection of X and its negation must be empty.

In simple terms, this means that what a thing is and what it is not together make up everything. Consider, for example, the proposition 'All men are happy'. This proposition means that the set of all men that are either happy or not-happy ('X and its complement') contains all men, and that set of all men that are both happy and not-happy ('the intersection of X and its negation') contains nothing.

This simple definition is fraught with many complications because there are several ways to deny or contradict the truth value of a proposition. In the propositional logic introduced after Aristotle by the Stoics, logical negation was defined in more powerful and more complex manner, by allowing the negation operator to be attached not only to the subject or single predicate of a simple proposition, but to an entire, possibly complex, proposition. Moreover, in propositional logic subjects and predicates may be quantified, by having

descriptors like 'every' and 'a little' attached to them. These complications unleash the problem that Aristotle tried to control by definitional fiat when he limited negation to subject and predicates in simple propositions: the complex problem of the scope of negation, or of deciding which part of a proposition is negated. This problem is still not fully understood.

Negation in Natural Language

Negation, as defined as a technical tool for logicians, is not the same as the ordinary negation as used in natural language. However, natural language negation is also complicated. There are many apparently different forms of negation in natural languages. Here we consider six categories of natural language negation, in roughly the order they appear developmentally. Others have proposed distinctions and commonalities that would increase or decrease this number.

The simplest forms of negation appearing in the lexicon is the use of the word 'no' (or its equivalent in other languages) in its subjective or pre-logical sense, to reject or to signal displeasure with an undesirable situation or object.

The second form of negation is the use of the word 'no' to signal a refusal to comply with a request or command for action or for a cessation of a particular action.

The third form of negation is the use of the word 'no' as a directive to others to act differently. As well as denying a request or a command to act or cease acting, and refusing objects offered to them, young infants are able to use negation to refuse to accept the actions of others.

In the fourth form of negation child uses negation to comment on his or her failure to achieve an intended goal. It has been argued that the word 'no' becomes a cognitive device for the first time when it is used in such a manner. Many researchers have also noted early uses of negation as self-prohibition, uttered by the child when he or she is about to do something or is doing something that is prohibited.

The fifth form of natural language negation uses negation to compare or quantify scalar values. Negation is often used for the concept of zero, or non-existence, as when we say 'there is no way to get there from here' or an infant notes an unexpected absence by saying 'no car'. The appearance of negation as scalar predication appears reliably as the most highly developed (i.e. latest-appearing) form of negation prior to the appearance of negation of linguistic propositions.

The last form of negation to appear developmentally is the use of negation to deny a stated utterance. It is remarkable that children are able to negate propositions about as soon as they can produce them. Many studies have estimated that the ability for this form of negation appears between 1.5 years to 2.5 years, which is about the same time that children are first able to put two words together.

The plethora of uses might make it seem that natural language negation does not admit of any simple definition that covers all cases. However, numerous philosophers have proposed the same unifying definition, that side-steps many of the logical complications alluded to above. They have re-cast negation as a positive assertion of the existence of a relevant difference— that is, they have taken negation to mean 'other than'. This definition has a long history, and appears to have been independently formulated many times.

It seems simple to 'just say no', but negation is in fact astonishingly complicated. In logic the role of negation is so complex as to have defied complete understanding despite over two thousand years of concerted effort. In natural language, negation proves impossible to bound, spilling over to take in constraints at the social and environmental levels, and to be intimately tied to deep and complex issues of memory, expectation, general cognition, and symbolic manipulation that are themselves still largely mysterious.

Question No 19-Write short note on Langue and Parole.

Answer - Langue (French, meaning "language") and parole (meaning "speech") are linguistic terms distinguished by Ferdinand de Saussure in his Course in General Linguistics. Langue encompasses the abstract, systematic rules and conventions of a signifying system; it is independent of, and pre-exists, individual users. Langue involves the principles of language, without which no meaningful utterance, "parole", would be possible. Parole refers to the concrete instances of the use of langue. This is the individual, personal phenomenon of language as a series of speech acts made by a linguistic subject. Saussure did not concern himself overly with parole; however, the structure of langue is revealed through the study of parole. The distinction is similar to that made about language by Wilhelm von Humboldt, between *energeia* (active doing) and *ergon* (the product of that doing). [2] Saussure drew an analogy to chess to explain the concept of langue and parole. He compared langue to the rules of chess— the norms for playing the game—and compared the moves that an individual chooses to make—the individual's preferences in playing the game—to the parole.

Question No 20- Discuss the salient points of Bloomfield's theory of structuralism.

Answer - Leonard Bloomfield main contributions to linguistics Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949) was an American linguistic and philologist, one of the most important representatives of American structuralism. Bloomfield rejects the application of all that was not —directly observable for linguistic analysis; in the study of language he marginalizes the semantic aspect. Leonard Bloomfield left his mark on the fields of morphology and syntax. He was teacher and founder of antimentalism a theory contrary to the Sapir's mentalism which is an interpretation of language inextricably linked to acts of the mind), leads to its ultimate limits the dissociation of signifiers and meanings, to exclude these of his consideration. He claims that the linguist can only make assertions about the system of signifiers, because the facts of meaning, mental and conceptual in nature, are not his concern. His linguistic is concern only in analyzing formal features of language. The significance is only taken into account as a control, to be sure that the conclusions are not irrational. Bloomfield was a colleague of Sapir at Yale University, after having worked in Ohio and Chicago, both of which were located in opposite theoretical positions, as Bloomfield rejected the possibility that linguistics analyze meaning, while for Sapir semantics is an essential part of the studies about the language and languages. Bloomfield's main works is admittedly *Language* 1933, setting out his version of structuralism linguistics. Bloomfield says that his work draws on the three main traditions in the study of language: the comparative–historical, philosophical and empirical, descriptive and prescriptive. Despite this triple, Bloomfield boosted mainly descriptive field studies. That descriptivism is limited by the fact that as he admitted, speaking communities are often not homogeneous, an observation that history has placed as required of all socio and ethnolinguistic studies today. One of the major concerns of Bloomfield is to give linguistics a similar character to that of the natural sciences, which explicitly considers an epistemological model. To do this, Bloomfield proposes to eliminate all mentalist or psychological studies of language, focusing on materials and mechanical aspects, that is, language is conceived by Bloomfield as a visible human behavior. Behaviors are described in terms of response and pair of stimulus on typical situations and that's way Bloomfield is considered a representative of behaviorism, which has had expressions in various social sciences and humanities. Behaviorism requires Bloomfield's to reformulate the place of semantic within linguistics, since this conception of language does not have place for any kind of concept or mental image (the definition of significance of Saussure): all that can be seen is a set of stimuli and reactions that occur in certain situations. Bloomfield accepts the Saussure premise that language study

involves studying the correlation between sound and meaning, but technically, the meaning is too difficult to —seell, so you should be outside the scope of linguistics. For Bloomfield, then, the language —beginsll with the phonetics and Phonology. Bloomfield argues that are two components that should focus the study of the correlation between sound and meaning: the lexicon and grammar. While the lexicon is the total inventory of morphemes of a language, grammar is the combination of morphemes in any —complex formll. That is, the meaning of a statement follows from the sum of the meaning of lexical items plus —something elsell that is the meaning provided by the grammar. Grammar includes both syntax (e.g. the construction of phrases) and morphology e.g. the construction of words . Each individual language morpheme is an —irregularityll as far that represents an arbitrary relationship between form and meaning that must be memorized. Thus the lexicon is defined as —a list of basic irregularitiesll, a notion that has been recovered in various theories. Bloomfield's interest was to make linguistics a true science of language. This defined the task of the linguist as one that would address to study the emissions corpus, discovering regularities and structures.

Question No 21- distinguish between vowels and consonants by referring to their criteria of classification.

Answer - A consonant is a sound in spoken language that is characterized by a constriction or closure at one or more points along the vocal tract. The word consonant comes from Latin meaning "sounding with" or "sounding together", the idea being that consonants don't sound on their own, but only occur with a nearby vowel; this conception of consonants, however, does not reflect a modern linguistic understanding, which defines them in terms of vocal tract constrictions. Each consonant can be distinguished by several features: The manner of articulation is the method that the consonant is articulated, such as nasal, stop, or approximant. The place of articulation is where in the vocal tract the articulators of the consonant act, such as bilabial, alveolar, or velar. The phonation method of a consonant is whether or not the vocal cords are vibrating during articulation of a consonant. When the vocal cords are vibrating, the consonant is voiced; when they're not, it's voiceless. Aspiration is also a feature of phonation. The airstream mechanism is how the air moves through the vocal tract during articulation. Most languages have exclusively pulmonic egressive consonants, but ejectives, clicks, and implosives use different mechanisms. All English consonants can be classified by a combination of these, such as "voiceless alveolar stop consonant" [t]. In this case, the airstream mechanism is omitted. A vowel is a type of sound for which there is no closure of the throat or mouth at any point where vocalization occurs. Vowels can be contrasted with

consonants, which are sounds for which there are one or more points where air is stopped. In nearly all languages, words must contain at least one vowel. While a word can be formed without any consonants – such as the English words I or way – no word may consist of only consonants, without a vowel.

In English, there are five letters which always represent a vowel when written: a, e, i, o, and u. These five letters represent more than five vowel sounds, however, depending on the word, or if they are combined with other vowels. Compare the letter a in the words hat and hate as one of many examples.

Question No 22: - What Is Intonation ?

Answer - Intonation is a word used to refer to how a sentence sounds. How a sentence sounds if it's a question sounds different from how a sentence sounds if it's a statement. If you say a sentence out loud, first as a question and then as a statement, you'll hear the difference in sound. That is intonation.

Intonation refers to the rising, or falling pitch in a person's voice as they say words or phrases. In many languages, the changes in pitch reflect a change in meaning of what is being said. Intonation varies from language to language; the same way you would stress a word in your native language is not always pronounced in the same way in English.

Question No 23- Define 'bilingualism'. Discuss its consequences for L1 and L2.

ANS: - Introduction:-The definition of bilingualism is complex and is influenced by multiple factors such as the age of acquisition of the second language, continued exposure to the first language (L1), relative skill in each language and the circumstances under which each language is learned. Popular definitions of bilingualism conceptualize language knowledge as being a binary category—whether one is classified as having acquired two languages or not (Brutt-Griffler & Varghese, 2004). However, bilingualism should be thought of as being on a continuum, where one can have varying levels of proficiency in two languages, regardless of how and when they were acquired. In addition, language and literacy skills are comprised of multiple subskills. In any given language, bilinguals might be highly proficient in one domain of skills but not the other. For example, a person might show high oral language skills and limited reading skills. The problems in defining bilingualism and the consequences of bilingualism on specific reading related skills will be explored throughout this paper.

Key Goals

The key goals of the paper are:

1. To make people aware of the complexity of defining bilingualism
2. To briefly describe social and environmental factors related to degrees of bilingualism
3. To describe consequences and implications of bilingualism

Definitions of Bilingualism:-Classifications of bilinguals in the research usually acknowledge the complexity of defining bilingualism. In its simplest form, bilingualism is defined as —knowingll two languages (Valdez & Figueora, 1994). However, a major difficulty occurs in defining what it means to —knowll a language. Some bilinguals are highly proficient in both languages they speak, while other bilinguals clearly have a dominant or preferred language. Therefore, when classifying bilinguals it is important to consider varying degrees of bilingualism.

Researchers suggest that native-like proficiency in both languages, referred to as —trueell bilingualism, is rare (Cutler, Mehler, Norris, & Segui, 1992; Grosjean, 1982). One factor to consider in defining types of bilingualism is when the two languages are acquired in relation to each other. Simultaneous bilingualism is considered to occur when two languages are acquired from birth or prior to one year of age (De Houwer, 2005). Cases of pure, simultaneous bilingualism with neither language being dominant are also rare. For sequential bilingualism, when one language is acquired following another, the age of L2 acquisition is important (Flege, 1992). Researchers are discovering that sensitive periods for native-like L2 acquisition occur at younger ages than previously believed. For example, brain organization is different for L2 acquisition after 5 years of age in contrast to before age 5, when native-like organization for language is possible (De Houwer, 2005; Weber-Fox & Neville, 1996). Therefore, children who acquire the L2 at school would not be considered native speakers, even if they have high levels of L2 proficiency. In older language learners (preadolescents and older), age of acquisition is related to the learner's ability to perceive and produce speech sounds in their second language Flege, 1992 . Another factor related to L2 pronunciation is the frequency and continued use of the L1.

In addition to classifying when languages are acquired in relation to each other, the reasons why the L2 is acquired can be used to categorize bilinguals (Valdez & Figueora, 1994). For example, elective bilinguals learn another language in a formal setting, typically as an additional course credit at school, while continuing to use their L1 most of the time. They are also classified as —additive bilingualsll because the L2 is learned in addition to an L1 that is maintained at a

high level. Circumstantial bilinguals, however, learn their L2 because they are required to do so to attend school or to find work. They are usually immigrants learning the societal language. These bilinguals are often classified as —subtractive bilinguals because L1 skills usually decrease or are lost in favour of the majority language, the L2. Subtractive bilingualism is particularly common in children of immigrants.

An additional consideration in the definition of bilingualism includes the concept of language dominance. Most bilinguals have stronger skills in one language, their dominant language. However, their dominant language need not be their L1. In addition, it is possible to show language dominance in one language for one domain (e.g. L1 for home) and dominance in the other language for another domain (e.g. L2 for work). Other terminology that is relevant to classifying bilinguals is whether or not they were born in Canada. If not, their age of arrival is relevant. (See the previous discussion on a related issue: age of acquisition.) In Canada, first and second generation immigrants are the most common type of bilingual learners. Although the L1 might be the language of the local community, it is a minority language in the larger community. In addition, these individuals continue to be exposed to their L1 in the home, and often through heritage language classes in an attempt to minimize L1 loss. To give a general overview of the linguistic picture in Canada, surveys of recent immigration to Canada can be examined (Statistics Canada, 2001). For example, between 1996 to 2001 approximately 1.2 million immigrants arrived in Canada, 46% of which moved to Toronto, 17% to Vancouver, 12% to Montreal, and the remaining 25% of which settled in other areas of the country. Among residents who reported speaking only one language, the majority reported speaking only English, followed by half as many people who spoke French. Other common L1s that are not official languages are: Chinese, Italian, German, Punjabi, Spanish, Portuguese, Polish and Arabic, in decreasing order of prevalence. One way to demonstrate the differences between communities is by comparing a smaller urban city with a larger urban centre. For example, in Kitchener, Ontario, 24% of the population speaks a language other than English or French, but only 1% of these people use this language as their main language at work. In comparison to Toronto, where 47% of the population speaks a nonofficial language as their L1, and only 4% use a non-official language at work. In cities such as Toronto, there may be many larger communities that can support specific L1 groups culturally so that there is not as much language loss.

The relative degree of proficiency in the two acquired languages has consequences for language and cognitive skills of bilinguals. As we will note, being bilingual has certain benefits, but it also poses some challenges.

Definitions of bilingualism are relevant for clinicians and educators because degrees of L1 and L2 proficiency and L1 and L2 language learning experiences cannot be assumed to be equal across bilingual speakers. The cognitive differences inherent in those who speak more than one language are also important because they can inform whether or not differences in the performance of an individual bilingual child arise due to learning difficulties etc., or whether they are a consequence of being bilingual.

Social and Environmental Factors:-Most sequential bilinguals learn their first language in the home and their second language in the school and/or community. In order to maintain the classification of bilingualism, communicative competence in the L2 must be acquired and L1 proficiency must be maintained. Pearson (2007) describes social and environmental factors that can have an impact on whether children become bilingual, or adopt and speak only the majority language. For example, maintaining the first language is related to the amount of continual exposure to the first language. In families where parents only speak the L1 and where children are exposed to the minority language early and often, a greater chance of true bilingualism exists. For example, to acquire some types of grammatical structures exposure to the language is required for correct use e.g. when to use —muchll versus —manyll (Gathercole, 2002). The attitudes of parents, siblings and peers toward the minority language can add value to, or subtract value from, the language. In fact, any way of increasing the attractiveness of the minority language (i.e., through books or mass media) is likely to help maintain that language. In most cases, children are naturally attracted to the majority language. Finally, a powerful source of minority language exposure is education, specifically the provision of programs within the school to enhance first language learning and to show that it is a valued language. In Canada, provinces, school boards and urban centres provide support for international/ heritage language learning programs.

Consequences and implications of bilingualism:-Research conducted with bilinguals also attempts to determine how language is organized in the brain and whether languages assist each other (positive transfer) or interfere with each other (negative transfer). Educators, clinicians and parents are often interested in whether children who are bilingual show advantages or disadvantages on language skills in comparison to their monolingual peers. Research studies with adults have found that a bilingual person's mental dictionary, which stores word meanings and spelling-sound information, incorporates items from all known languages (Jiang, 2004) and that both the L1 and L2 are activated simultaneously when adults read their L1 or L2 (Dijkstra & van Heuven, 2002).

Much of the research examining cognitive consequences of bilingualism in children has been conducted in Canada. The Canadian immigration context, with its relatively high proportion of middle-class and educated immigrants provides a unique opportunity to examine the effects of bilingualism without the additional burden of poverty and low parental educational level.

In general, L1 oral language skills are related to L2 oral language skills, where children with strong L1 skills show better acquisition of their second language (Cummins, 1991). However, different language skills are differentially affected in positive and negative ways by bilingualism. Vocabulary development is typically delayed in learning a second language, whether that language is acquired sequentially or simultaneously (August, Carlo, Dressler & Snow, 2005). Further research on vocabulary acquisition shows that there are specific differences in the vocabulary knowledge of L2 learners. Specifically, breadth of vocabulary—as assessed by the number of words known, and depth of vocabulary—the richness of the word representation, are two terms typically used to describe differences in vocabulary knowledge. L2 groups have been identified as having relatively more difficulty with depth of vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Feldman & Healy, 1998; Ordonez, Carlo, Snow & McLaughlin, 2002). Additionally, in a model testing L2 reading comprehension, vocabulary knowledge was especially important for improved reading comprehension outcomes (Proctor, Carlo, August & Snow, 2006), while poor vocabulary skills can have a negative impact on reading comprehension skills. Reading comprehension skills in the L2 remain an area of difficulty in bilinguals for a long time (August et al., 2005).

An additional area of difference between monolinguals and bilinguals is metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness is thought to be acquired differently in monolinguals and bilinguals (see Bialystok, 2007).

Metalinguistic awareness includes the awareness of the form of language, such as the awareness of sounds (phonological awareness), grammatical rules (syntactic awareness) and grammatical markers (morphological awareness). Some studies have shown that bilingualism enhances metalinguistic ability (Yelland, Pollard & Mercuri, 1993). However, evidence that supports a bilingual advantage for the acquisition of phonological awareness is not consistent, with some studies showing no differences between monolinguals and bilinguals and other studies showing this advantage for bilinguals (Bruck & Genessee, 1995; Carvalos & Bruck, 1993). When group differences do occur, they tend to disappear by first grade. In addition, these relationships may depend on the degree of similarity between languages and the degree of consistency within a language. For example, the Spanish language has a very consistent orthography, where sounds map onto letters

(phonemes to graphemes) quite readily (see Ziegler & Gosami, 2005). In contrast, Chinese script does not map onto the level of individual sounds. One study found higher levels of English phonological awareness for Spanish-English speakers in comparison to Chinese-English speakers (Bialystok, Luk, & Kwan, 2005).

Research conducted on learning to read English as a third language extends these differences in literacy skills that have been found between monolinguals and bilinguals. For example, one study found that children who had proficiency in two languages (Hebrew and Russian) and were learning English as a third language, outperformed children with less proficiency in these two languages and also outperformed monolingual children who were learning English only as an L2 on measures of phonological awareness, nonword reading, and nonword spelling (e.g., barp, stip) (Schwartz, Geva, Share, & Leikin, 2007). Thus, research seems to show support for the trend that acquiring more than one language has benefits for literacy acquisition. Schwartz et al. (2007) described this phenomenon as a form of additive multilingualism. She also noted that in many environments, the L1 and even L2 are non-majority languages that are not used in formal educational contexts. This situation can also be applied to a Canadian context, where children may grow up speaking one or more other languages at home, and are subsequently educated in English, which may or may not be spoken at home. Specifically, middle class families might provide additional L1 enrichment opportunities in order to maintain their children's first language skills and associated culture (Chow, 2004).

Question No 24 - What do you understand by language variation. Why does variation occur? Give examples of different types.

Answer - Variation in language use among speakers or groups of speakers is a principal concern in sociolinguistics. Such variation may occur in pronunciation (accent), word choice (lexicon), or even preferences for particular grammatical patterns. Studies of language variation and its correlation with sociological categories, such as William Labov's 1963 paper "The social motivation of a sound change," led to the foundation of sociolinguistics as a subfield of linguistics. Although contemporary sociolinguistics includes other topics, language variation and change remains an important issue at the heart of the field. Studies in the field of sociolinguistics typically take a sample population and interview them, assessing the realisation of certain sociolinguistic variables. Labov specifies the ideal sociolinguistic variable to

- ⌚ be high in frequency, ⌚ have a certain immunity from conscious suppression,
- ⌚ be an integral part of larger structures, and ⌚ be easily quantified on a linear

scale. Phonetic variables tend to meet these criteria and are often used, as are grammatical variables and, more rarely, lexical variables. Examples for phonetic variables are: the frequency of the glottal stop, the height or backness of a vowel or the realization of word-endings. An example of a grammatical variable is the frequency of negative concord (known colloquially as a double negative). There are several different types of age-based variation one may see within a population. They are: vernacular of a subgroup with membership typically characterized by a specific age range, age-graded variation, and indications of linguistic change in progress.

One example of subgroup vernacular is the speech of street youth. Just as street youth dress differently from the "norm", they also often have their own "language". The reasons for this are the following: (1) To enhance their own cultural identity (2) To identify with each other, (3) To exclude others, and (4) To invoke feelings of fear or admiration from the outside world. Strictly speaking, this is not truly age-based, since it does not apply to all individuals of that age bracket within the community. Age-graded variation is a stable variation which varies within a population based on age. That is, speakers of a particular age will use a specific linguistic form in successive generations. This is relatively rare. J.K. Chambers cites an example from southern Ontario, Canada where the name of the letter 'Z' varies. Most of the English-speaking world pronounces it 'zed'; however, in the United States, it is pronounced 'zee'. A linguistic survey found that in 1979 two-thirds of the 12 year olds in Toronto ended the recitation of the alphabet with the letter 'zee' where only 8% of the adults did so. Then in 1991, (when those 12 year olds were in their mid-20s) a survey showed only 39% of the 20-25 year olds used 'zee'. In fact, the survey showed that only 12% of those over 30 used the form 'zee'. This seems to be tied to an American children's song frequently used to teach the alphabet. In this song, the rhyme scheme matches the letter Z with V 'vee', prompting the use of the American pronunciation. As the individual grows older, this marked form 'zee' is dropped in favor of the standard form 'zed'. People tend to use linguistic forms that were prevalent when they reached adulthood. So, in the case of linguistic change in progress, one would expect to see variation over a broader range of ages. William Bright provides an example taken from American English, where in certain parts of the country there is an ongoing merger of the vowel sounds in such pairs of words as 'caught' and 'cot'. Examining the speech across several generations of a single family, one would find the grandparents' generation would never or rarely merge these two vowel sounds; their children's generation may on occasion, particularly in quick or informal speech; while their grandchildren's generation would merge these two vowels uniformly. This is the basis of the apparent-time hypothesis where age-based variation is taken as an

indication of linguistic change in progress. A commonly studied source of variation is regional dialects. Dialectology studies variations in language based primarily on geographic distribution and their associated features. Sociolinguists concerned with grammatical and phonological features that correspond to regional areas are often called dialectologists.

Question No 25- What is morphology? Distinguish between Inflectional and Derivational Morphology.

Answer - The term morphology is generally attributed to the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832), who coined it early in the nineteenth century in a biological context. Its etymology is Greek: morph- means ‘shape, form’, and morphology is the study of form or forms. In biology morphology refers to the study of the form and structure of organisms, and in geology it refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms. In linguistics morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed. The differences between derivational and inflectional morphology are somewhat ambiguous to explain in some languages. This is also what Bybee 1985: 81 stated in his book, —One of the most persistent undefinables in morphology is the distinction between derivational and inflectional morphology. It is said so since both deal with morphemes that are usually affixes, either prefixes or suffixes. But in English the distinctions between them are quite recognizable. Derivational morphology changes the meaning of words by applying derivations. Derivation is the combination of a word stem with a morpheme, which forms a new word, which is often of a different class, for example, develop(V) becomes development(N), developmental(ADJ) or redevelop(V). Thus, derivational morphemes make new words from old ones (Crystal, p. 90.) as with the suffix of -ion when it is added to the word of create(V) to form another completely separate word of creation(N). Another example, the suffix -ation converts the verb nationalize, into the derived noun nationalization. The suffix -ize converts the noun plural, into the verb pluralize.

Nominalization is a common kind of derivation in English, and it involves forming new nouns from verbs or adjectives, by adding suffixes to them, for example: Suffix Verb/adjective Derived noun -ness happy (A) happiness -ee employ (V) employee Derivational morphology can be quite complicated, as the classes of words that an affix apply to are not always clearcut, for example the suffix -ee cannot be added to all verbs, ie to add it to run (V) gives runee, which is clearly not an English word. The characteristics of derivational morphology:

1) Change the part of speech or the basic meaning of a word. Thus -ment added to a verb forms a noun (judge-ment). re-activate means "activate again."

2) Are not required by syntactic relations outside the word. Thus un-kind combines un- and kind into a single new word, but has no particular syntactic connections outside the word -- we can say he is unkind or he is kind or they are unkind or they are kind, depending on what we mean.

3) Are often not productive -- derivational morphemes can be selective about what they'll combine with, and may also have erratic effects on meaning. Thus the suffix -hood occurs with just a few nouns such as brother, neighbor, and knight, but not with most others. e.g., *friendhood, *daughterhood, or *candlehood. Furthermore "brotherhood" can mean "the state or relationship of being brothers," but "neighborhood" cannot mean "the state or relationship of being neighbors."

4) Typically occur between the stem and any inflectional affixes. Thus in governments,-ment, a derivational suffix, precedes -s, an inflectional suffix.

5) In English, may appear either as prefixes or suffixes: pre-arrange, arrangement. While inflectional morphology, in terms of both form and meaning, occupies an unusual position in language, stands between lexicon and syntax in apparent defiance of definition. In most languages inflectional morphology marks relations such as person, number, case, gender, possession, tense, aspect, and mood, serving as an essential grammatical glue holding the relationships of constructions together. Yet in some languages inflectional morphology is minimal or may not exist at all.

Question No 26 - Write short note on Code mixing.

Answer - Code-mixing refers to the mixing of two or more languages or language varieties in speech. Some scholars use the terms "code-mixing" and "code-switching" interchangeably, especially in studies of syntax, morphology, and other formal aspects of language. Others assume more specific definitions of code-mixing, but these specific definitions may be different in different subfields of linguistics, education theory, communications etc. Code-mixing is similar to the use or creation of pidgins; but while a pidgin is created across groups that do not share a common language, code-mixing may occur within a multilingual setting where speakers share more than one language. Some linguists use the terms code-mixing and code-switching more or less interchangeably. Especially in formal studies of syntax, morphology, etc., both terms are used to refer to utterances that draw from elements of two or more grammatical systems. These studies are often interested in the alignment of

elements from distinct systems, or on constraints that limit switching. While many linguists have worked to describe the difference between code-switching and borrowing of words or phrases, the term code-mixing may be used to encompass both types of language behavior. While the term code-switching emphasizes a multilingual speaker's movement from one grammatical system to another, the term code-mixing suggests a hybrid form, drawing from distinct grammars. In other words, code-mixing emphasizes the formal aspects of language structures or linguistic competence, while code-switching emphasizes linguistic performance.

Question No 27 - Write short note on Code-switching.

Answer - Code-switching occurs when a speaker alternates between two or more languages, or language varieties, in the context of a single conversation. Multilinguals—speakers of more than one language—sometimes use elements of multiple languages when conversing with each other. Thus, codeswitching is the use of more than one linguistic variety in a manner consistent with the syntax and phonology of each variety. Code-switching is distinct from other language contact phenomena, such as borrowing, pidgins and creoles, loan translation (calques), and language transfer (language interference). Borrowing affects the lexicon, the words that make up a language, while code-switching takes place in individual utterances. Speakers form and establish a pidgin language when two or more speakers who do not speak a common language form an intermediate, third language. On the other hand, speakers practice code-switching when they are each fluent in both languages. Code mixing is a thematically related term, but the usage of the terms code-switching and code-mixing varies. Some scholars use either term to denote the same practice, while others apply code-mixing to denote the formal linguistic properties of language-contact phenomena, and code-switching to denote the actual, spoken usages by multilingual persons. In the 1940s and 1950s, many scholars considered code-switching to be a sub-standard use of language. Since the 1980s, however, most scholars have come to regard it is a normal, natural product of bilingual and multilingual language use. The term "code-switching" is also used outside the field of linguistics. Some scholars of literature use the term to describe literary styles which include elements from more than one language, as in novels by Chinese-American, Anglo-Indian, or Latino writers. In popular usage, code-switching is sometimes used to refer to relatively stable informal mixtures of two languages, such as Spanglish, Franponaisor Portuñol. Both in popular usage and in sociolinguistic study, the name codeswitching is sometimes used to refer to switching among dialects, styles or registers, as practiced by speakers of African American Vernacular English as they move from less formal

to more formal settings.

Question No 28 - Write short note on speech community.

Answer - A speech community is a group of people who share a set of norms and expectations regarding the use of language. Exactly how to define speech community is debated in the literature. Definitions of speech community tend to involve varying degrees of emphasis on the following:

🕒 Shared community membership 🕒 Shared linguistic communication

Early definitions have tended to see speech communities as bounded and localized groups of people who live together and come to share the same linguistic norms because they belong to the same local community. It has also been assumed that within a community a homogeneous set of norms should exist. These assumptions have been challenged by later scholarship that have demonstrated that individuals generally participate in various speech communities simultaneously and at different times in their lives each of which has a different norms that they tend to share only partially, communities may be delocalized and unbounded rather than local, and they often comprise different sub-communities with differing speech norms. With the recognition of the fact that speakers actively use language to construct and manipulate social identities by signalling membership in particular speech communities, the idea of the bounded speech community with homogeneous speech norms has become largely abandoned for a model based on the speech community as a fluid community of practice. A speech community comes to share a specific set of norms for language use through living and interacting together, and speech communities may therefore emerge among all groups that interact frequently and share certain norms and ideologies. Such groups can be villages, countries, political or professional communities, communities with shared interests, hobbies, or lifestyles, or even just groups of friends. Speech communities may share both particular sets of vocabulary and grammatical conventions, as well as speech styles and genres, and also norms for how and when to speak in particular ways.

Question No 29- Define the Status planning.

Answer - Language planning is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure, or acquisition of languages or language variety within a speech community. It is often associated with government planning, but is also used by a variety of non-governmental organizations, such as grassroots organizations and even individuals. The goals of language planning differ depending on the nation or organization, but generally include making planning decisions and

possibly changes for the benefit of communication. Planning or improving effective communication can also lead to other social changes such as language shift or assimilation, thereby providing another motivation to plan the structure, function and acquisition of languages. Status planning Peru's history of language planning begins in the 16th century with Spanish colonization. When the Spanish first arrived in Peru, Quechua served as a language of wider communication, a lingua franca, between Spaniards and Peruvian natives. As the years passed, Spaniards asserted the superiority of the Spanish language; as a result, Spanish gained prestige, taking over as a language of wider communication and the dominant language of Peru. In 1975, under the leadership of President Juan Velasco Alvarado, the revolutionary government of Peru declared Quechua an official language of the Peruvian state, —coequal with Spanish.¶ Four years later, the law was reversed. Peru's 1979 constitution declares Spanish the only official language of the state; Quechua and Aymara are relegated to —official use zones,¶ equivalent to Stewart's provincial function. Quechua has officially remained a provincial language since 1979. Today, Quechua also serves a limited international function throughout South America in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Ecuador; communities of Quechua speakers outside Peru enable communication in Quechua across borders. Still, because of Quechua's low status, Spanish is almost always used as the lingua franca instead. Recently, Quechua has also gained ground in the academic world, both as a school subject and a topic of literary interest.

Question No 30 - What is The formation of old English.

Answer - English is a West Germanic language that originated from the Anglo-Frisian dialects brought to Britain by Germanic invaders and/or settlers from various parts of what is now northwest Germany and the Netherlands. Initially, Old English was a diverse group of dialects, reflecting the varied origins of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of Britain. One of these dialects, Late West Saxon, eventually became predominant. The English language underwent extensive change in the Middle Ages. Written Old English of AD 1000 is similar in vocabulary and grammar to other old Germanic languages such as Old High German and Old Norse, and completely unintelligible to modern speakers, while the modern language is already largely recognizable in written Middle English of AD 1400. The transformation was caused by two further waves of invasion: the first by speakers of the Scandinavian branch of the Germanic language family, who conquered and colonized parts of Britain in the 8th and 9th centuries; the second by the Normans in the 11th century, who spoke Old Norman and ultimately developed an English variety of this called AngloNorman. A large proportion of the modern English vocabulary comes directly from Anglo-Norman.

Close contact with the Scandinavians resulted in a significant grammatical simplification and lexical enrichment of the Anglo-Frisian core of English. However, these changes had not reached South West England by the 9th century AD, where Old English was developed into a full-fledged literary language. The Norman invasion occurred in 1066, and when literary English rose anew in the 13th century, it was based on the speech of London, much closer to the centre of Scandinavian settlement. Technical and cultural vocabulary was largely derived from Old Norman, with particularly heavy influence in the church, the courts, and government. With the coming of the Renaissance, as with most other developing European languages such as German and Dutch, Latin and Ancient Greek supplanted Norman and French as the main source of new words. Thus, English developed into very much a "borrowing" language with an enormously disparate vocabulary.

Question No 31- What are the characteristics that distinguish human language from other animal systems of communication? Give suitable examples.

Answer - Systems of communication are not unique to human beings. Other animal species communicate in a variety of ways. One way is by sound: a bird may communicate by a call that a territory is his and should not be encroached upon. Another means of animal communication is by odor: an ant releases a chemical when it dies, and other ants then carry it away to the compost heap. A third means of communication is body movement, for example used by honeybees to convey the location of food sources. Although primates use all three methods of communication: sound, odor, and body movement, sound is the method of primary interest since it is our own primary means of communication. A topic of persistent debate in linguistic anthropology is whether human communication (verbal and nonverbal) is similar to nonhuman primate communication, such as seen in apes and monkeys. Linguistics and primatologists have searched for a common thread running through the communication systems of humans and nonhuman primates. Certain scholars argue that our language capabilities are not unique and point to various aspects of non-human primate communication as evidence. Other scientists remain unconvinced. Today there continues to be a significant amount of debate concerning this area of linguistic anthropology. Communication can be defined to include both signals and symbols. Signals are sounds or gestures that have a natural or self-evident meaning [example of someone crying (=emotion), laughing (=emotion), animal cries (=indicating fear, food, or hunt). In this regard, we can consider that most animal communication is genetically determined and

includes hoots, grunts, or screams that are meant to mean only one thing and are used every time in the same situation. So there is only one way to express one thing and it never changes. Animal communication tends to consist primarily of signals.

In contrast, human communication is dependent on both signals and symbols. Symbols are sounds or gestures that have meaning for a group of people-it is the cultural tradition that gives it meaning (e.g. green light=go; teaching a child letters (see Faces of Culture video). Symbols have to be learned and are not instinctive; the meanings are arbitrary.

Some of the debate regarding human versus primate communication stems from observations by scientists in the field. For example, scientists who have observed vervet monkeys in the wild consider at least three of their alarm calls to be symbolic because each of them means a different kind of predator- eagles, pythons, leopards-monkeys react differently to each call. Interestingly, infant vervets often make the "eagle" warning call when they see any flying bird and learn the appropriate call as they grow up. This is similar to human infants who often first apply the word "dada" to all adult males, gradually learning to restrict it one person. It is possible, therefore, to consider such calls as symbolic.

Question No 32 - Write short note on Compounds in English.

Answer - Definition:-In linguistics, the process of combining two words (free morphemes) to create a new word (commonly a noun, verb, or adjective).

Compounds are written sometimes as one word (sunglasses), sometimes as two hyphenated words (lifethreatening), and sometimes as two separate words (football stadium).

⌚ "Compounds are not limited to two words, as shown by examples such as bathroom towelrack and community center finance committee. Indeed, the process of compounding seems unlimited in English: starting with a word like sailboat, we can easily construct the compound sailboat rigging, from which we can in turn create sailboat rigging design, sailboat rigging design training, sailboat rigging design training institute, and so on." (Adrian Akmajian et al., Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication. MIT Press, 2001)

⌚ Buffy: No actual witches in your witch group? Willow: No. Bunch of wannabessedbes. You know, nowadays every girl with a henna tattoo and a spice rack thinks she's a sister to the dark ones." (Sarah Michelle Gellar and Alyson Hannigan in "Hush." Buffy the Vampire Slayer, 1999)

⌚ Stress Test:-"Typically a compound begins as a kind of cliché, two words that

are frequently found together, as are air cargo or light colored. If the association persists, the two words often turn into a compound, sometimes with a meaning that is simply the sum of the parts (light switch), sometimes with some sort of figurative new sense (moonshine). The semantic relationships of the parts can be of all kinds: a window cleaner cleans windows, but a vacuum cleaner does not clean vacuums. We can be sure we have a compound when the primary stress moves forward; normally a modifier will be less heavily stressed than the word it modifies, but in compounds the first element is always more heavily stressed."

⌚ (Kenneth G. Wilson, *The Columbia Guide to Standard American English*. Columbia Univ. Press, 1993)

⌚ Distinguishing Features of Compounds: "[In most compounds] the rightmost morpheme determines the category of the entire word. Thus, greenhouse is a noun because its rightmost component is a noun, spoon-feed is a verb because feed also belongs to this category, and nationwide is an adjective just as wide is. . . . "English orthography is not consistent in representing compounds, which are sometimes written as single words, sometimes with an intervening hyphen, and sometimes as separate words. In terms of pronunciation, however, there is an important generalization to be made. In particular, adjectivenoun compounds are characterized by a more prominent stress on their first component. . . . "A second distinguishing feature of compounds in English is that tense and plural markers cannot typically be attached to the first element, although they can be added to the compound as a whole. (There are some exceptions, however, such as passers-by and parks supervisor.)" (William O'Grady, J. Archibald, M. Aronoff, and J. Rees-Miller, *Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction*. Bedford/St. Martin's, 2001)

⌚ Plurals of Compounds: "Compounds generally follow the regular rule by adding the regular s inflection to their last element. . . .

⌚ "The following two compounds are exceptional in taking the inflection on the first element: passer-by/passers-by listener-in/listeners-in "A few compounds ending in -ful usually take the plural inflection on the last element, but have a less common plural with the inflection on the first element: mouthful/mouthfuls or mouthsful spoonful/spoonfuls or spoonsful "Compounds ending in -in-law allow the plural either on the first element or (informally) on the last element: sister-in-law/sisters-in-law or sister-in-laws" (Sidney Greenbaum, *Oxford English Grammar*. Oxford University Press, 1996) ⌚ Compounds in the Dictionary: "Evidently, the definition of what counts as a single dictionary entry is fluid and allows for very wide margins; any attempt at further precision is impossible because of the unlimited potential for compounding and derivation. The OED [Oxford English Dictionary] policy on compounds and derivatives is

indicative of how blurred the line between a 'headword' and a compound or a derivative can be: Compounds are frequently collected together in a section or group of sections at or near the end of an entry. They are followed by a quotation paragraph in which examples of each compound are presented in alphabetical order of the compound. Some major compounds are entered as headwords in their own right. . . . Clearly, the size of the dictionary records exceeds by far the vocabulary of an individual speaker." (Donka Minkova and Robert Stockwell, "English Words." The Handbook of English Linguistics, ed. by Bas Aarts and April McMahon. Blackwell, 2006)

Question No 33- Define the Speech acts.

Answer - Speech acts are a staple of everyday communicative life, but only became a topic of sustained investigation, at least in the English-speaking world, in the middle of the Twentieth Century.[1] Since that time —speech act theoryll has been influential not only within philosophy, but also in linguistics, psychology, legal theory, artificial intelligence, literary theory and many other scholarly disciplines.[2] Recognition of the importance of speech acts has illuminated the ability of language to do other things than describe reality. In the process the boundaries among the philosophy of language, the philosophy of action, the philosophy of mind and even ethics have become less sharp. In addition, an appreciation of speech acts has helped lay bare an implicit normative structure within linguistic practice, including even that part of this practice concerned with describing reality. Much recent research aims at an accurate characterization of this normative structure underlying linguistic practice.

Question No 34 - Discuss with examples the different sentence types in English.

Answer - The beauty of sentences lies in clarity, the choice of words and how effectively the thought flows. If words are pearls then a great sentence can be described as a beautiful pearl necklace. Sentences convey more than meaning; they convey style. Now, when writing sentences, it must be understood that it consists of two important constituents-structure and purpose. The structure of a sentence and, the purpose in which it is used, both go a long way in forwarding its meaning. That is why it is important to know, that in how many ways a sentence can be composed. The entire written language depends on the type of its sentences. Only when one knows the various types then he/she can play with words, thoughts and ideas. In any form of writing, it is the sentences that are the building blocks of the structure of the copy. To help you know more of sentences, given below are the various types in which sentences can be

constructed.

Sentence Types

Sentences are classified in two ways-structure and purpose.

By Structure:-This is a traditional form of classifying sentences wherein, the sentences are classed depending on the number and types of finite clauses.

Simple Sentence:-In this type of sentence, there is only one independent clause and no dependent clause. The sentence contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. Simple sentences can also contain compound subjects and/or verbs but it doesn't contain any conjunction.

⌚ Some students (subject) like (verb) to study in the mornings.

⌚ Juan (subject) plays (verb) football every afternoon. ⌚ Alicia (subject) goes (verb) to the library and studies (verb) every day.

Compound Sentence:-In this type of sentence, there are multiple independent clauses and no dependent clause. All the clauses are joined together by coordinating conjunctions and/or punctuations. Here, the relationship between the two independent clauses can be changed by the proper use of coordinating conjunctions.

⌚ I (subject) tried (verb) to speak Spanish, and my friend (subject) tried (verb) to speak English. ⌚ Alejandro (subject) played (verb) football, so Maria (subject) went (verb) shopping. ⌚ Alejandro (subject) played (verb) football, for Maria (subject) went (verb) shopping.

Complex Sentence:-This type of sentence consists of at least one independent clause and one dependent clause. One characteristic of complex sentence is that it has a relative pronoun like 'that', 'who' or 'which' or a subordinator like 'because', 'since', 'when', 'although' or 'after'. If the complex sentence begins with a subordinator then a comma is placed after the dependent clause. When the sentence begins with an independent clause and the subordinators are in the middle, then there is no need to place a comma after the dependent clause.

⌚ When (subordinator) he (subject) handed (verb) in his homework, he (subject) forgot (verb) to give the teacher the last page. ⌚ The teacher (subject) returned (verb) the homework after (subordinator) she (subject) noticed (verb) the error. ⌚ The students (subject) are studying (verb) because (subordinator) they (subject) have (verb) a test tomorrow. ⌚ After (subordinator) they (subject) finished (verb) studying, Juan (subject) and Maria (subject) went (verb) to the

movies. ⌚ Juan (subject) and Maria (subject) went (verb) to the movies after (subordinator) they (subject) finished (verb) studying.

Compound-Complex Sentence This type of sentence consists of multiple independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. The clauses are connected by both conjunctions and subordinators.

⌚ The woman (subject), who (subordinate) my mom (subject) talked to, sells (verb) cosmetics. ⌚ The book (subject) that (subordinate) Jonathan (subject) read is (verb) on the shelf. ⌚ The house (subject) which (subordinate) Abraham Lincoln (subject) was born in is (verb) still standing. ⌚ The town (subject) where (subordinate) I (subject) grew up is (verb) in the United States.

By Purpose:-Sentences are also classified based on their purpose. Declarative Sentence:-This type of sentence, also known as a declaration, is generally used to make a statement. This sentence "declares" a fact or opinion and can be either positive or negative. Declarative sentences always end with a period.

⌚ I am happy. ⌚ That bird is flying. ⌚ I deposited my money in the bank.

Interrogative Sentence:-This type of sentence asks a question or request information. However, rhetorical questions do not fall into the category of interrogative sentences. Interrogative sentence always ends with a question mark.

⌚ When did you turn the lights off? ⌚ Do you know how to ride a bike? ⌚ Please tell me the real reason why you came here?

Exclamatory Sentence:-This type of sentence expresses an exclamation; it is a form of statement expressing emotion or excitement. Exclamatory sentences always end with an exclamation mark to emphasize a statement.

⌚ —Good night! she said. ⌚ Wow! What a dream. ⌚ What a beautiful sunrise!

Imperative Sentence:-This type of sentence is in the form of a command. This is a sentence which tells someone to do something. Imperative sentence, when framed strongly enough, can also be exclamatory. Imperative sentence can also be used to make a request and end with a period.

⌚ Please give me that book. ⌚ Finish all your chores before you go out. ⌚ I want to eat pizza tonight.

Conditional Sentence:-In this type of sentence, a condition is implied and what one would do if the conditions were met. It generally depends on the use of 'if'.

⌚ If I had 100 bucks, I would go for an ice-cream. ⌚ I could have done this for you only if I had the time.

Other Types Of Sentences Major Sentence A major sentence has two components—a subject and a predicate. It is, in short, any regular sentence.

⌚ We have to go. ⌚ They must eat.

Minor Sentence:-Any irregular sentence is known as a minor sentence. It also does not have any finite verb. Minor sentence may include stereotyped expressions, proverbs, emotional expressions, headings, etc. Nominal sentences, like catchphrases, can also be called minor sentences and they do not include any verbs. This intensifies the meaning around the nouns.

⌚ "Hello!" ⌚ Q - "What is the time?" A - "Two"

Word Sentences:-Single words that form a full sentence are known as word sentences.

⌚ —Alas!!

⌚ —Yes!!

Aforementioned are all the possible form of sentences that you need for an above average writing and speaking skill. The examples above would help you understand all sentences properly, thus enabling you in using appropriate sentences at appropriate places.

Question No 35- What is a Standard language ? Give an account of the various stages in the standardization of English.

Answer - Standard languages arise when a certain dialect begins to be used in written form, normally throughout a broader area than that of the dialect itself. The ways in which this language is used—e.g., in administrative matters, literature, and economic life—lead to the minimization of linguistic variation. The social prestige attached to the speech of the richest, most powerful, and most highly educated members of a society transforms their language into a model for others; it also contributes to the elimination of deviating linguistic forms. Dictionaries and grammars help to stabilize linguistic norms, as do the activity of scholarly institutions and, sometimes, governmental intervention. The base dialect for a country's standard language is very often the original dialect of the capital and its environs—in France, Paris; in England, London; in Russia, Moscow. Or the base may be a strong economic and cultural centre—in Italy, Florence. Or the language may be a combination of several regional dialects, as

are German and Polish.

Even a standard language that was originally based on one local dialect changes, however, as elements of other dialects infiltrate into it over the years. The actual development in any one linguistic area depends on historical events. Sometimes even the distribution of standard languages may not correspond to the dialectal situation. Dutch and Flemish dialects are a part of the Low German dialectal area, which embraces all of northern Germany, as well as the Netherlands and part of Belgium. In one part of the dialectal area, however, the standard language is based on High German, and in the other part the standard language is Dutch or Flemish, depending on the nationality of the respective populations. In the United States, where there is no clearly dominant political or cultural centre—such as London or Paris—and where the territory is enormous, the so-called standard language shows perceptible regional variations in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. All standard languages are in any case spoken in a variety of accents, though sometimes one particular accent (e.g., Received Pronunciation in Britain) may be most closely associated with the standard because of its shared social or educational origins. In most developed countries, the majority of the population has an active (speaking, writing) or at least passive (understanding) command of the standard language. Very often the rural population, and not uncommonly the lower social strata of the urban population as well, are in reality bidialectal. They speak their maternal dialect at home and with friends and acquaintances in casual contacts, and they use the standard language in more formal situations. Even the educated urban population in some regions uses the so-called colloquial language informally. In the German-, Czech-, and Slovene-speaking areas of middle Europe, for example, a basically regional dialect from which the most striking local features have been eliminated is spoken. The use of this type of language is supported by psychological factors, such as feelings of solidarity with a certain region and pride in its traditions or the relaxed mood connected with informal behaviour