



ENG 103

A Survey of the English

Language

Course Manual

Adesina B. Sunday Ph.D

A Survey of the English Language

ENG103



University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre
Open and Distance Learning Course Series Development
Version 1.0 ev1

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Vice-Chancellor's Message

The Distance Learning Centre is building on a solid tradition of over two decades of service in the provision of External Studies Programme and now Distance Learning Education in Nigeria and beyond. The Distance Learning mode to which we are committed is providing access to many deserving Nigerians in having access to higher education especially those who by the nature of their engagement do not have the luxury of full time education. Recently, it is contributing in no small measure to providing places for teeming Nigerian youths who for one reason or the other could not get admission into the conventional universities.

These course materials have been written by writers specially trained in ODL course delivery. The writers have made great efforts to provide up to date information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly.

In addition to provision of course materials in print and e-format, a lot of Information Technology input has also gone into the deployment of course materials. Most of them can be downloaded from the DLC website and are available in audio format which you can also download into your mobile phones, IPod, MP3 among other devices to allow you listen to the audio study sessions. Some of the study session materials have been scripted and are being broadcast on the university's Diamond Radio FM 101.1, while others have been delivered and captured in audio-visual format in a classroom environment for use by our students. Detailed information on availability and access is available on the website. We will continue in our efforts to provide and review course materials for our courses.

However, for you to take advantage of these formats, you will need to improve on your I.T. skills and develop requisite distance learning Culture. It is well known that, for efficient and effective provision of Distance learning education, availability of appropriate and relevant course materials is a *sine qua non*. So also, is the availability of multiple plat form for the convenience of our students. It is in fulfilment of this, that series of course materials are being written to enable our students study at their own pace and convenience.

It is our hope that you will put these course materials to the best use.



Prof. Abel Idowu Olayinka

Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

As part of its vision of providing education for “Liberty and Development” for Nigerians and the International Community, the University of Ibadan, Distance Learning Centre has recently embarked on a vigorous repositioning agenda which aimed at embracing a holistic and all encompassing approach to the delivery of its Open Distance Learning (ODL) programmes. Thus we are committed to global best practices in distance learning provision. Apart from providing an efficient administrative and academic support for our students, we are committed to providing educational resource materials for the use of our students. We are convinced that, without an up-to-date, learner-friendly and distance learning compliant course materials, there cannot be any basis to lay claim to being a provider of distance learning education. Indeed, availability of appropriate course materials in multiple formats is the hub of any distance learning provision worldwide.

In view of the above, we are vigorously pursuing as a matter of priority, the provision of credible, learner-friendly and interactive course materials for all our courses. We commissioned the authoring of, and review of course materials to teams of experts and their outputs were subjected to rigorous peer review to ensure standard. The approach not only emphasizes cognitive knowledge, but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The development of the materials which is on-going also had input from experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner-friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind. This is very important because, distance learning involves non-residential students who can often feel isolated from the community of learners.

It is important to note that, for a distance learner to excel there is the need to source and read relevant materials apart from this course material. Therefore, adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information sources are suggested in the course materials.

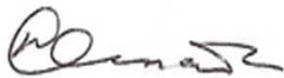
Apart from the responsibility for you to read this course material with others, you are also advised to seek assistance from your course facilitators especially academic advisors during your study even before the interactive session which is by design for revision. Your academic advisors will assist you using convenient technology including Google Hang Out, You Tube, Talk Fusion, etc. but you have to take advantage of these. It is also going to be of immense advantage if you complete assignments as at when due so as to have necessary feedbacks as a guide.

The implication of the above is that, a distance learner has a responsibility to develop requisite distance learning culture which includes diligent and disciplined self-study, seeking available administrative and academic support and acquisition of basic information technology skills. This is why you are encouraged to develop your computer skills by availing yourself the opportunity of training that the Centre’s provide and put these into use.

In conclusion, it is envisaged that the course materials would also be useful for the regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks. We are therefore, delighted to present these titles to both our distance learning students and the university's regular students. We are confident that the materials will be an invaluable resource to all.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Bayo Okunade', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Professor Bayo Okunade

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About this course manual

A Survey of the English Language ENG103 has been produced by University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre. All course manuals produced by University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre are structured in the same way, as outlined below.

How this course manual is structured

The course overview

The course overview gives you a general introduction to the course. Information contained in the course overview will help you determine:

- If the course is suitable for you.
- What you will already need to know.
- What you can expect from the course.
- How much time you will need to invest to complete the course.

The overview also provides guidance on:

- Study skills.
- Where to get help.
- Course assignments and assessments.
- Margin icons.

We strongly recommend that you read the overview *carefully* before starting your study.

The course content

The course is broken down into Study Sessions. Each Study Session comprises:

- An introduction to the Study Session content.
- Study Session outcomes.
- Core content of the Study Session with a variety of learning activities.
- A Study Session summary.
- Assignments and/or assessments, as applicable.
- Bibliography

Your comments

After completing A Survey of the English Language we would appreciate it if you would take a few moments to give us your feedback on any aspect of this course. Your feedback might include comments on:

- Course content and structure.
- Course reading materials and resources.
- Course assignments.
- Course assessments.
- Course duration.
- Course support (assigned tutors, technical help, etc.)

Your constructive feedback will help us to improve and enhance this course.

Course Overview

Welcome to A Survey of the English Language ENG103

ENG103 provides a broad survey of different aspects of the English language from phonology through semantics and pragmatics to stylistics and language acquisition. It will provide a basis and background for further language studies. Our discussion of these levels will be introductory in the main. At higher levels in this programme, you will encounter detailed study of each of these levels.

The Study Sessions in each of these levels of linguistic analysis will be handled under different parts. Part I discusses Phonetics and Phonology; Part II discusses Syntax; Part III handles Stylistics; while Part IV is devoted to Semantics.

Course outcomes

Upon completion of A Survey of the English Language ENG103 you will be able to:



Outcomes

- *describe* the nature of speech, the physiology and processes of speech production, with an emphasis on the written notation of speech sounds.
- *analyse* words in their distinctive linguistic units, especially phonemes and morphemes.
- *outline* the composition of phrases, clauses and sentences.
- *classify* expressions according to their meanings.

Timeframe



How long?

This is a 15 week course. It requires a formal study time of 45 hours. The formal study times are scheduled around online discussions / chats with your course facilitator / academic advisor to facilitate your learning. Kindly see course calendar on your course website for scheduled dates. You will still require independent/personal study time particularly in studying your course materials.

How to be successful in this course



As an open and distance learner your approach to learning will be different to that from your school days, where you had onsite education. You will now choose what you want to study, you will have professional and/or personal motivation for doing so and you will most likely be fitting your study activities around other professional or domestic responsibilities.

Essentially you will be taking control of your learning environment. As a consequence, you will need to consider performance issues related to time management, goal setting, stress management, etc. Perhaps you will also need to reacquaint yourself in areas such as essay planning, coping with exams and using the web as a learning resource.

We recommend that you take time now—before starting your self-study—to familiarize yourself with these issues. There are a number of excellent resources on the web. A few suggested links are:

- <http://www.dlc.ui.edu.ng/resources/studyskill.pdf>

This is a resource of the UIDLC pilot course module. You will find sections on building study skills, time scheduling, basic concentration techniques, control of the study environment, note taking, how to read essays for analysis and memory skills (“remembering”).

- http://www.ivywise.com/newsletter_march13_how_to_self_study.html

This site provides how to master self-studying, with bias to emerging technologies.

- <http://www.howtostudy.org/resources.php>

Another “How to study” web site with useful links to time management, efficient reading, questioning/listening/observing skills, getting the most out of doing (“hands-on” learning), memory building, tips for staying motivated, developing a learning plan.

The above links are our suggestions to start you on your way. At the time of writing these web links were active. If you want to look for more, go to www.google.com and type “self-study basics”, “self-study tips”, “self-study skills” or similar phrases.

Need help?



As earlier noted, this course manual complements and supplements ENG103at UI Mobile Class as an online course.

You may contact any of the following units for information, learning resources and library services.

Distance Learning Centre (DLC)

University of Ibadan, Nigeria

Tel: (+234) 08077593551 – 55

(Student Support Officers)

Email: ssu@dlc.ui.edu.ng

Head Office

Morohundiya Complex, Ibadan-Ilorin Expressway, Idi-Ose, Ibadan.

Information Centre

20 Awolowo Road, Bodija, Ibadan.

Lagos Office

Speedwriting House, No. 16 Ajanaku Street, Off Salvation Bus Stop, Awuse Estate, Opebi, Ikeja, Lagos.

For technical issues (computer problems, web access, and etcetera), please send mail to webmaster@dlc.ui.edu.ng.

Academic Support



A course facilitator is commissioned for this course. You have also been assigned an academic advisor to provide learning support. The contacts of your course facilitator and academic advisor for this course are available at onlineacademicsupport@dlc.ui.edu.ng

Activities



This manual features “Activities,” which may present material that is NOT extensively covered in the Study Sessions. When completing these activities, you will demonstrate your understanding of basic material (by answering questions) before you learn more advanced concepts. You will be provided with answers to every activity question. Therefore, your emphasis when working the activities should be on understanding your answers. It is more important that you understand why every answer is correct.

Assessments



There are three basic forms of assessment in this course: in-text questions (ITQs) and self assessment questions (SAQs), and tutor marked assessment (TMAs). This manual is essentially filled with ITQs and SAQs. Feedbacks to the ITQs are placed immediately after the questions, while the feedbacks to SAQs are at the back of manual. You will receive your TMAs as part of online class activities at the UI Mobile Class. Feedbacks to TMAs will be provided by your tutor in not more than 2 weeks expected duration. Schedule dates for submitting assignments and engaging in course / class activities is available on the course website. Kindly visit your course website often for updates.

Bibliography



For those interested in learning more on this subject, we provide you with a list of additional resources at the end of the Study Sessions; these may be books, articles or websites.

Getting around this course manual

Margin icons

While working through this course manual you will notice the frequent use of margin icons. These icons serve to “signpost” a particular piece of text, a new task or change in activity; they have been included to help you to find your way around this course manual.

A complete icon set is shown below. We suggest that you familiarize yourself with the icons and their meaning before starting your study.

			
Activity	Assessment	Assignment	Case study
			
Discussion	Group Activity	Help	Outcomes
			
Note	Reflection	Reading	Study skills
			
Summary	Terminology	Time	Tip

Study Session 1

English Sounds I: Segmental Level

Introduction

In this Study Session, we will discuss phonetics and phonology. Since there are many things to explore in phonology and phonetics, we will only discuss the English pure vowels. In subsequent study sessions, other aspects of English phonetics and phonology will be explained.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 1.1 *define* and use correctly the terms in bold:
 - **phonetics**
 - **phonology**
- 1.2 *explain* the two levels in which sounds can be studied.

1.1 Phonetics and Phonology

Phonology The branch of linguistics concerned with the pattern of the sounds of a language.

The branch of linguistics that is concerned with the pattern of the sounds of a language is referred to as **phonology**. Closely related to it is phonetics, which deals with the study of the actual sound produced by the speaker of a language. Phonetics has three branches: articulatory, auditory, and acoustic. Articulatory phonetics deals with the production of sounds; auditory phonetics deals with the perception of the sounds produced; while acoustic phonetics deals with the properties of the sounds produced.

Hint

Phonology deals with the pattern of sound while phonetics focuses on the study of actual produced by a speaker.

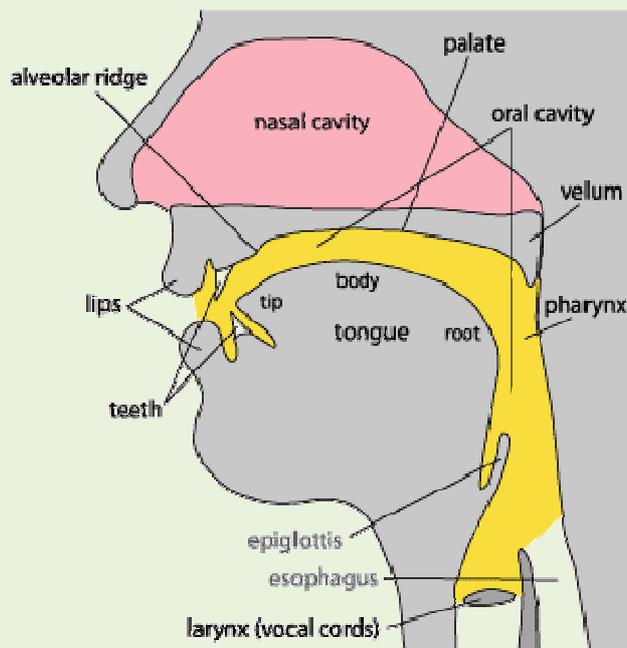
1.2 English Sounds

The study of sounds of a language can be approached from the segmental level and the suprasegmental level. The former deals with each segment while the latter deals with features above the segment. At the segmental level, focus is on vowels and consonants. Vowels are those sounds produced without any obstruction of the airstream coming from the lungs. In the production of consonants, on the other hand, there is obstruction of the airstream coming from the lungs.

The Organs of Speech

Organs of speech refer to the parts of human body used in producing speech sounds. You will notice that these organs have their primary functions, such as for digestion or respiration. Speech function is secondary to these organs. In fact it is superimposed on them. The diagram below shows the organs of speech.

Fig 1.1 Organs of Speech



Source:
http://www.englishbaby.com/lessons/3201/member_submitted/vocal_organs_of_speech
 21/10/2011



Sounds can be studied at segmental and suprasegmental levels.

1.2.1 Segmental Level of English Sounds: Vowels

Vowels are classified into monophthongs and diphthongs. A **monophthong** is made up of vowels while a **diphthong** is made up of two vowels produced as one vowel. Monophthongs (also called pure vowels) are further subdivided into long and short vowels. English has 5 long vowels and 7 short vowels. Altogether, there are 12 monophthongs in English. The diphthongs are 8 in number. This means that English has 20 vowels.

Monophthongs

Now let's look at each of these monophthongs and see words that contain it.

1 / i: /

key
beat
feet
quay
foetus
police

2 / i /

kit
bit
fit
kick
middle
fittings

3 / e /

beg
send
best
threat
says
fence

4 / æ /

bag
sack
ram
bat
drag
pack

5 / a: /

bark
fast
laugh
half
star
barn

6 / ɔ /

pot
shot
want
lorry
top
sorry

7 / ɔ: /

port
fourth
pour
caught
drawer
board

8 / ʊ /

put
cook
brook
puush
took
pull

9 / u: /

pool
loose
juuice
blue
prouve
moon

10 / ʌ /

cuup
coume
wourry
blood
flood
louve
luucky

11 / ɜ: /

worship

burn
 furniture
 birth
 mercy
 nursery

12 /ə/

doctor
 daughter
 interim
 potato

Hint

Monophthong vowels are also known as pure vowels.

Diphthongs Two pure vowels that are pronounced and treated as a single sound.

English Diphthongs

In the previous sub-section, we discussed monophthongs. We are focussing on diphthongs. As we mentioned in earlier, diphthongs are made up of two vowels. But the two are pronounced and treated as one. In other words, the sequence is taken to be one vowel and not two vowels. Diphthongs are classified as either centring diphthong or closing diphthong. The former ends in schwa, a central vowel; while the latter ends in closing vowel, either /ɪ/ or /ʊ/. Diphthongs are otherwise called glides. This is because in the course of producing them, the organs of speech glide from one point to another (Roach 1997). In producing a diphthong, the first vowel is longer than the second one. English diphthongs are 8 in number. We will now take the diphthongs one by one and examine words that contain them.

1 /eɪ/

page
 fake
 labour
 sailor
 neighbour

2 /əʊ/

home
 foam
 loan
 shown
 dose

3 /aɪ/

buy

cry
side
fight
guide
shy

4 / aʊ/

how
crowd
sound
fowl
gown

5 / ɔɪ/

choice
boys
noise
voice
toilet

6 / ɪɜ/

career
ceremonious
carrier
median
cranium
junior
here
tear (fluid from the eye)

7 / eə/

bear
their
fair
care
fare
where
tear (to pull apart)

8 / ʊə/

cure
furious

centurion
 curious
 spiritual
 continuous

1.3 English Consonants

The previous sub-section of this session was devoted to the vowels. We will now examine consonants. A consonant is a sound during whose production there is radical obstruction of the airstream coming from the lungs. There are three parameters used in describing a consonant:

- i. position of the glottis
- ii. place of articulation
- iii. manner of articulation

The position of the glottis gives information on whether the sound is voiced or voiceless. A sound is voiced if there is vibration of the vocal cord when such a sound is produced. Conversely, a sound is voiceless if there is no vibration of the vocal cords in the course of the production of such a sound. The vocal cords are the two cartilaginous organ found in the glottis. All English vowels are voiced. You can perceive this vibration if you block your two ears or if you place your finger in your Adam's apple (Egbokhare, 1994). The following English consonants are voiceless /p, t, k, f, s, h, θ, tʃ, ʃ/. All English nasals (/m, nŋ/) are voiced.

The place of articulation has to do with where the constriction occurs in the course of production of a consonant. It gives descriptions such as bilabial, dental, labiodentals, alveolar, alveo-palatal, palatal, velar, glottal, and so forth.

The manner of articulation describes the way the airstream escapes in the course of production of a given consonant. It gives descriptions like plosive, fricative affricate, nasal approximant, and so on.

We will now take each of the consonants and give you words to illustrate its occurrence:

1	/p/
	She <u>p</u> herd Cap <u>a</u> ble Pr <u>o</u> fit Poss <u>i</u> ble Pr <u>i</u> ncipal Pat <u>te</u> rn

2	/b/
	B <u>u</u> rn Cab <u>l</u> e Bab <u>y</u>

Blunt
Banter
Basket

3 /t/

Train
Slapped
Ranked
Latter
Apartheid
Atttribute
Attention

4 /d/

Odd
Begged
Attend
Medal
Double
Drawer

5 /k/

Cloak
Kite
Cousin
Broke
Account
Character

6 /g /

Growth
Eagle
Ghost
Guest
Game
Wig

7 /θ/

Thin
Thought
Both

Bath
Mouth
Birth

8 /ð/

Than
Them
Though
That
Write
Brother

9 /f/

Phone
Phenomenon
First
Fellow
Floor
Friend

10 /v/

Valley
Vehicle
Vest
Vine
Vantage
Stove

11 /s/

Slow
Sample
Serve
Base
Cats
Works

12 /z/

Zone
Zoom
Zebra

Designer
Zest
Buzz

13 /h/

Home
House
Help
Hen
Hawk
Horrible

14 /m/

Tomb
Comb
Room
Money
Mingle
Lemon
Make

15 /n/

Nurse
Neuron
Onion
Earnest
Pneumonia
Notable

16 /ŋ/

Sing
Ring
Bank
Sprinkle
Angle
Uncle

17 /ʃ/

Show
Pressure
Mission
Sure

Wish
Crush

18 /z/

Television
Leisure
Lesion
Measure
Seizure
Conclusion

19 /tʃ/

Stature
Statute
Christian
Church
Culture
Bench

20 /dʒ/

Join
Junior
Edge
Cage
Range
Judgment
Jungle

21 /l/

Long
Leg
Allone
Levl
Little
Lost

22 /w/

Wed
When
Wife
Wing

Withstand
Away

23 /r/

Wrest
Wrong
Right
Orange
Arrive
Marry
Rate

24 /j/

Young
Union
University
Yes
Yacht
Yesterday



Note

There is still another type of vowel – triphthong. A triphthong is made up of three vowels pronounced and treated as one (such as /aʊə, aɪə/). There is some controversy concerning the existence of triphthongs, but that will not be our concern in this course.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we have introduced phonetics and phonology to you. We discussed the branches of phonetics and the preoccupation of phonology. We went further to discuss the English monophthongs and diphthongs. You also learnt that a consonant sound is produced with the obstruction of the airstream coming from the lungs. We noted that a consonant sound can be described using the three parameters – place of the glottis, place of articulation and manner of articulation.

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Reading

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<http://www.jstor.org/discover/10.2307/4178420?uid=3738720&uid=2129&uid=2&uid=70&uid=4&sid=21102695284943> retrieved August, 2013.

Study Session2

English Suprasegmentals

Introduction

In this Study Session, we will introduce you to the second level of phonological analysis –suprasegmental level. At this level, the unit of analysis is no longer the segment; rather it is the unit above the segment. Stress, intonation, rhythm are the major concepts that will be discussed. The first Study Session on English suprasegmentals will begin with the basic domain of the suprasegmentals. This is the syllable. Then we will discuss stress placement in English.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 2.1 *define* and use the term syllable correctly.
- 2.2 *discuss* the term stress.
- 2.3 *define* intonation
- 2.4 *identify* tone groups
- 2.5 *define* rhythm

2.1 Syllable

Syllabification The act of breaking a word into its smallest pronounceable units

The **syllable** is the smallest pronounceable unit of a language. The native speaker of a language is endowed with the ability to know what constitutes the syllable of his/her language. S/he knows the boundary of the syllables of a word. The process of breaking a word into its component syllables is known as **syllabification**. It is a relatively simple process, but for some words there could be some disparity among speakers on where the syllable boundaries should be. A typical example is the word 'extra'. The following syllabification patterns are possible: extra, extra, extra. This example shows that perception of syllable boundary may vary from hearer to hearer.

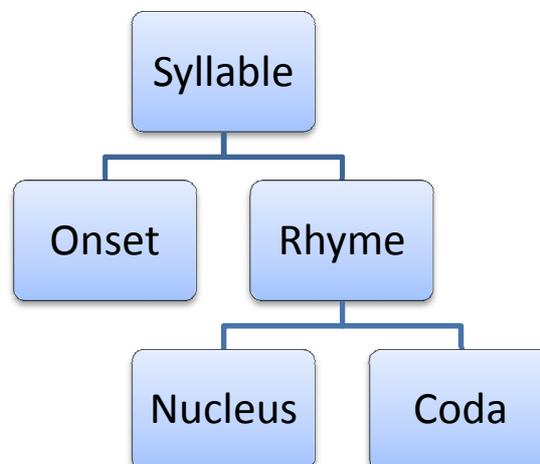
4.1.1 English Syllable Structure

The syllable has three components: the *onset*, the *nucleus/peak*, and the *coda*. The nucleus/peak is the vowel in the syllable; however, syllabic consonants /m n l/ can also occupy this position (Kuiper and Allan, 1996:99). The onset comprises the consonant(s) that occur(s) before the nucleus/peak; the coda comprises the consonant(s) that occur(s) after the nucleus/peak. The nucleus/peak and the coda constitute the rhyme of the syllable. Therefore, it could also be said that the syllable has two parts, that is, *onset* and *rhyme* (Kuiper and Allan, 1996: 97-98). The nucleus is

usually a vocalic element, in most cases, a vowel. But syllabic consonants too can occupy the nucleus (peak) position (Egbohare, 1994: 64). *Syllabic consonants are so called because they occupy the nucleus position.* This position is customarily occupied by vowels. Syllabic consonants occur only in word-final positions. Now, let's see some words that have syllabic consonants:

- i. Bottle /bɒtl/
- ii. Little /lɪtl/
- iii. Scuttle /skʌtl/
- iv. Bottom /bɒtm/
- v. Rhythm /rɪðm/
- vi. Fathom /fæðm/
- vii. Cotton /kɒtn/
- viii. Britain /brɪtn/
- ix. Shorten /ʃɔ:tn/

The structure of the English syllable is $(C^{0-3}) V (C^{0-4})$ (Roach, 1997). This means that English permits a maximum of three optional consonants in the onset; an obligatory vowel (or syllabic consonant) in the nucleus; and a maximum of four optional consonants in the coda. This relationship can be schematized thus:



A syllable can also be described as either **closed/checked/arrested** or **open**. A syllable that has a coda is called a **closed/checked/arrested syllable**, while the one that has no coda is called **open syllable** (Abercrombie, 1967:41). Let us explore examples of each.

Closed/checked/arrested syllable

- i. Rod /rɒd/
- ii. Board /bɔ:d/
- iii. Fold /fəʊld/
- iv. Top /tɒp/

Open syllable

- i. Floor /flɔ:/
- ii. More /mɔ:/
- iii. Draw /drɔ:/
- iv. Sure /ʃɔ:/



A closed/checked/arrested syllable has a coda while an open syllable has no coda.

The components of the syllable shown above combine in different ways. Some of the patterns are considered in the box that follows.

1.	V Or /ɔ:/ A /eɪ/ or /ə/ Awe /ɔ:/
2.	CV Go /gəʊ/ Tea /ti:/ Bee /bi:/
3.	CCV Draw /drɔ:/ Blow /bləʊ/ Flow /fləʊ/
4.	CVC Block /blɒk/ Take /teɪk/ Give /gɪv/
5.	VC Egg /eg/ As /əs/, /æs/ or /æz/ Of /ɒf/ or /ɒv/
6.	VCC Eggs /egz/ Odds /ɒdz/ Ebbs /ebs/
7.	CVCC Heads /hedz/ Birds /bɜ:dz/ Legs /legz/ Serves /sɜ:vz/

8.	CCVC	Drip /drɪp/ Step /step/ Press /pres/ Blame /bleɪm/
9.	CCVCC	Steps /steps/ Brand /brænd/ Drinks /drɪŋks/ Plant /plɑːnt/ Braids /breɪdz/
10.	CCVCCC	Brings /brɪŋgs/ Blends /blendz/ Friends /frendz/ Brands /brændz/
11.	CCCVC	Spray /spreɪ/ Splash /splæʃ/ Stream /striːm/ Spread /spred/
12.	CCCVCC	Strong /strɒŋg/ String /strɪŋg/ Screams /skriːm/ Screen /skriːn/
13.	CVCCC	Banks /bæŋks/ Helps /helps/ Tests /tests/ Pests /pests/
14.	CVCCCC	Sixths /sɪksθs/ Texts /teksts/ Belts /belts/ Tempts /temptz/
15.	CCVCCC	Twelfths /twelfθs/

2.2 Stress

Stress The extent of prominence given to a particular syllable

Stress refers to the degree of prominence given to a particular syllable. From the angle of the speaker, a stressed syllable requires greater breath effort and more muscular energy than an unstressed syllable. Like pitch, quality, and quantity, stress is a way of giving a syllable prominence

above its neighbours (Gimson, 1980:222). On the part of a speaker, a stressed syllable involves more energy or intensity; on the part of the hearer, a stressed syllable is perceived as being louder than its neighbours (Quirk, 1972: 315; Akinjobi, 2000:17).

Stress is also associated with pitch prominence. A stressed syllable brings about a pitch movement (Knowles, 1974: 119). Pitch plays significant roles in distinguishing the word class of some homographs. Stress/loudness is not enough in distinguishing between, as seen in '*object* (n) and *ob'ject* (v), and '*convict* (n) and *con'vict* (v), where stress shift has changed the part of speech of the words.

2.2.1 Degrees of Stress in English

Three degrees of stress exist in English:

- 1) Primary Stress (Primary Accent). This is marked with a small stroke above and before the syllable that receives it, or by capitalizing the syllable that bears it as shown below:

- geography /dʒiː'græfi/

- madam /'mædəm/

- FINGER

- TEACHER

- 2) Secondary Stress (Secondary Accent). This is the syllable next in prominence to the most prominent syllable. It is shown by a small stroke below and before the syllable that receives it, as exemplified below:

- Education /edʒʊ'keɪʃn/

- University /jʊ'nɪ'vɜ:sɪti/

- 3) Unstressed Syllable. This consists of any other syllable in the word that does not receive stress. This syllable is not given any mark. It is to be noted that some scholars put the stress mark on the vowel of the syllable that receives the stress mark (Akinjobi, 2000:17), as shown below:

- mercy /m'ɜ:si/

- welcome /w'elkəm/

2.2.2 Stress Patterns of English

In any language, stress could be free or fixed. In a language with fixed stress, stress falls on a particular syllable. An example is French, in which stress falls on the last syllable. In Czech, it falls on the first syllable. In Polish, it falls on the penultimate syllable (Gimson, 1980: 221). In a language with free stress, on the other hand, the primary stress falls on any syllable.

As far as English is concerned, stress is both fixed and free. It is fixed in the sense that the stress always falls on a particular syllable; it is free

because it is not tied to any particular syllable. The freeness of stress in English makes stress marking chaotic. Even if a rule is designed, many exceptions to the rule exist. This makes it difficult for L2 users of English to master the stress patterns of English. This chaotic nature notwithstanding, some rules could still be of help. Cruttenden (1986: 19) argues that ‘a general rule with exceptions is more economical than listing every word with its own unique pattern (i.e. listing everything as an exception).’ In this course we will not examine the rules. At higher levels, you will come across these rules.

2.3 Intonation

Intonation The variation in the pitch of voice

Normally, when a person speaks, his/her voice does not remain constant; there is variation in the pitch of the voice. This variation in the pitch of the voice is referred to as intonation. Different languages deploy intonation in different ways. Some languages deploy it at the syllable level; such languages are known as tonal languages, for example Yoruba. Some languages deploy it at much larger units; these languages are known as intonational languages, for example English.

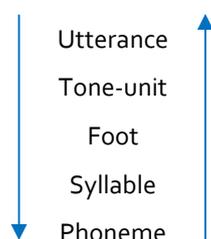
There are four basic intonation tunes in English:

- i. rise
- ii. fall
- iii. rise-fall
- iv. fall-rise

Intonation is often described in terms of **high** and **low**. But you should note that what is considered as low pitch to somebody will be high to another person and vice-versa. Some activities such as sports could also affect the normal pitch level of an individual. Therefore, if pitch difference is to be of linguistic significance, it must be under the control of the speaker. When doing intonational analysis, you need to consider the state of the speaker at such a time.

2.4 The Tone-Unit

The tone-unit is a part of phonological units (Roach, 1997:145). It is also called **tone-group** or **sense-unit**. You can see its position in the schema below:



At the lowest level is the phoneme; followed by the syllable; then the foot; the tone-unit is next in hierarchy below the utterance, which is the highest in the hierarchy. Notice that an utterance is a stretch of speech before and after which there is a pause. As seen in the schema above, the tone-unit is between the foot and the utterance.

In the analysis of intonation, the basis of analysis is often that the unit that is greater in size than the syllable is often used. This unit is called tone-unit. However, the tone-unit may also consist of just a syllable.

The tone-unit has four components: **Pre-head** (PH), **Head** (H), **TonicSyllable** (TS), **Tail** (T). Among these, only the TS is obligatory; the other three components are optional. We will now explain each of them, beginning with the obligatory element.

The TS is also called **Nucleus**. It is the syllable that carries a tone. It is the syllable on which the pitch change begins. It is the syllable that has the highest degree of prominence; therefore, it is stressed; it carries the **TonicStress** or **Nuclear Stress**. This stress is often assigned to the last lexical word in the tonic-unit.

The PH refers to the entire unstressed syllable(s) in a tone-unit before the first stressed syllable. In other words, the PH can only be found in context where there is no H or where there is an H.

The T refers to any syllables between the TS and the end of the tone-unit.

Let's now consider some examples:

1. with a man
This has no H; it only has PH. This is a case of PH occurring when there is no H.
2. in the car of our teacher
PH H TS T

The first stressed syllable here is *car*; therefore, '*in the*' constitutes the PH, while '*car of our*' constitutes the H, and '*tea-*' is the TS, while '*cher*' is the T. Take special note of this example. The TS and the T are found in a word '*teacher*'.
3. for me
PH TS
4. Tolu hates writing
H TS T
5. Come in
TS T

Intonation performs the following functions:

- 1) Attitudinal function
- 2) Accentual function
- 3) Grammatical function
- 4) Discourse function

The attitudinal function of intonation refers to the use of intonation to display emotion and feeling. Roach (1997:167-168) presents the intonational patterns that are commonly deployed for some attitudes. These are presented below:

1. Fall - Finality, definiteness

Stop them

I rest my case

No one like Him

2. Rise

A. General question

Is this possible?

Are we free?

B. Listing

Orange, guava, cashew and apple

Notice that the last item will naturally be uttered with the fall tune

C. "More to follow"

Do it right (and you will be rewarded)

D. Encouraging

You are on the right track

3. Rise-fall

Surprise, being impressed

You made it

That boy

4. Fall-rise

A. Uncertainty, doubt:

You are capable

She is considerate

B. Requesting

Should we leave

Will you attend the programme

The above uses are just generalisations; there could be variations.



Note

it is not only intonation that shows attitude; facial expression, body movements, and gestures also play important roles in the display of attitudes. In fact, a combination of these is often used to show attitude.

2.4.1 The Accentual Function of Intonation

This is also known as contrastive function of intonation. It involves placing tonic stress on a particular syllable to mark it out as the most important in the tone-unit.

In the utterances below, the second ones is contrastive:

I need a blue pen.

I need a red pen. (not a blue pen)

In the utterances below, the second ones are emphatic:

He is quite decent.

He is quite decent

You should always be serious.

You should always be serious.

There are some situations in which the tonic syllable does not fall on the last lexical word, yet it is not accentual. Roach (1997:173) gives this example:

I have plans to leave (i.e. I am planning to leave)

I have plans to leave (i.e. I have some plans/drawing that I have to leave.)

Don't you see this as intonation being used to disambiguate this utterance?

2.4.2 Grammatical Function of Intonation

This is the use of intonation to show the grammatical or syntactic structure of an utterance. It could be to indicate:

- a. The boundaries between phrases, clauses or sentences
- b. The type of sentence. *Usually polar sentences have rise tone*

Is she coming?

Do you want use to go

Wh-type questions usually have fall tune:

Where are you doing?

What is the problem?

- c. Grammatical subordination

Those who sold quickly made profit

Those who sold quickly made profit (Roach 1997:174)

There are two tone-units in each. In the first sentence, the meaning is that only those who sold quickly made profit; whereas the second one means that anybody who sold made profit

Tone-unit boundaries often occur at boundaries of grammatical units that are higher than words:

I won't go home. I am afraid.

2.4.3 Discourse Function of Intonation

This is the use of intonation to indicate what is **new** information and what is **given** information. This can show the listener the kind of response to give. Roach (1997:177) illustrates with this:

1. I've got to take the dog for a walk.
2. I've got to take the dog to the vet.

Each underlined item on which the pitch changes is NEW, while the other items are GIVEN. But it is not always easy to determine which one is new

2.5 Rhythm

Rhythm Occurrence at

Rhythm has to do with some noticeable events which happen at regular

regular intervals of noticeable events

intervals of time. If delivered fluently and without interruption or hesitation, all speeches are said to have rhythm. This implies that certain phonetic events occur at roughly isochronous intervals, that is intervals that are approximately equal in time. The rhythmicity of speech is a perceptual phenomenon because it is a feature of speech production and it can be perceived only within certain units (Roach 1997, Sunday 2001: 81).

There are three main theories of rhythm: stress timing, syllable timing, and full vowel timing.

Study Session Summary

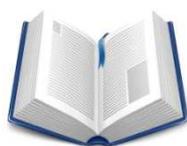


Summary

We discussed the suprasegmental aspect of English phonology in this Study Session. We also learnt how English syllable and English stress patterns operate. We finally advised that we need to frequently consult our dictionary in order to master the stress pattern of each word because of the fact that stress is free in English.

We also examined how intonation and rhythm operate in English. We illustrated the various functions of intonation. We were also exposed to the way intonation is analysed. This unit concludes our discussion on English phonetics and phonology. The next Study Session of this course is syntax

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Study Session 3

Theoretical Categories: Class

Introduction

Systemic functional grammar, also called Hallidayan Grammar, will be introduced to you in this Study Session. It was propounded by Halliday, although many scholars have also contributed to its development. Halliday identifies four theoretical categories and four scales in the analysis of language. The categories are class, unit, system and structure, while the scales are rank, delicacy, exponence and depth.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 3.1 *identify* grammatical units and state their functions.
- 3.2 *construct* correctly specific types of phrase.
- 3.3 *construct* correctly specific types of clause.
- 3.4 *make* correct sentence.
- 3.5 *analyse* structure.
- 3.6 *explain* the concept of system.
- 6.1

3.1 Class

This refers to the group to which members of a unit belongs. The grouping is based on their similarities and differences of structure. It is also based on their functions in the next largest unit. Besides, it is based on how they combine with other units of the same rank (Morley, 1985: 13).

3.2 Unit

Unit accounts for “stretches of language of varying length and composition which themselves carry grammatical patterns” (Morley, 1985: 8). Members of a unit are classified based on their structural similarities and differences, how they function in the units above them and how they combine with other units of the same rank. Five units are identified for English: morpheme, word, group, clause and sentence.

3.2.1 Morpheme

Morpheme The smallest meaningful grammatical unit of a language.

The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. There are two basic types of morpheme: free morpheme and bound morpheme. While a free morpheme can stand on its own, a bound morpheme cannot. This is why a free morpheme qualifies as a word. This does not mean that a bound morpheme is not meaningful. Let me now give you examples of

each.

Example 3.1

In the examples below, bound morphemes are underlined:

- 1) Bags
- 2) Helped
- 3) Disadvantage
- 4) Apolitical
- 5) Correctionion
- 6) Wickedness
- 7) Useful
- 8) Melodious
- 9) Takenen
- 10) Misinformation



A free morpheme can stand on its own. A bound morpheme depends on other morphemes to be meaningful.

You need to know that in some cases it is not possible to separate the bound morpheme from the free morpheme, but it will be obvious that a bound morpheme is present. Examples are presented in the box that follows.

Example 3.2

In the examples below, bound morphemes are inseparable from free morphemes

- 1) Went
- 2) Caught
- 3) Fought
- 4) Bent
- 5) Wrote

Another important point I must bring to your notice is that bound morphemes are affixes. In English, they are either prefixes or suffixes. Also notice that some morpheme may not be visible at all. These are called **zeromorphemes**. It is the context of use that hints about their presence. Examples abound in the plural forms of nouns that are not different in spelling from the singular forms, such as **sheep** and **fish**; past forms that are not different from the present forms, such as **cut**, **split**, **cast**, and **broadcast**.



Note

You should be careful not to take a morpheme to mean a syllable. While the syllable is a unit of phonology, the morpheme is a unit of grammar. However the two could be coterminous.

3.2.2 Word

The word is the next unit above the morpheme. It is a letter or a group of letters before and after which there are spaces. There are different perspectives from which a word can be classified. From the perspective of function, a word is either a content word or a grammatical word. Content words are those that belong to the classes of noun, pronoun verb, adjective and adverb; while grammatical words are articles, conjunctions, prepositions and others.

From the angle of structure, a word could belong to any of these types: simple, complex, or compound. A simple word has just one free morpheme (such as cat, dog, man). A complex word has both free and bound morphemes but the morphemes cannot be separated (such as went, men, sought). A compound word is made up of at least two free morphemes. There are three ways a compound word can be written:

a. Solid

backfire
network,
passbook

b. Hyphenated

love-letter
pain-killer
open-ended

c. Open

post office
senior common room
Master of Ceremonies

However, “there are no safe rules-of-thumb that will help in the choice between these three possibilities” (Quirk *et al*, 1972:1019). Akmajian *et al* (1990:25), echoing Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), claim that:

The conventions of writing compounds in English are simply inconsistent. The hyphen is used when a compound has been newly created or is not widely used; when a compound has gained a certain currency or permanence, it is often spelled closed up, without the hyphen. The word blackboard, when it was first created, was written black-board, a spelling found in texts from the first part of this century. The rule in English for spelling multiword compounds such as community center finance committee is not to write them as a single word. But it seems that British English favours the use of hyphen more than it does others (Quirk *et al*, 1972:1019). A word can be classified based on its function or its structure.

3.2.3 Group/Phrases

A **phrase** is a group of related words that has no subject and finite verb. A phrase can go with other forms of other verb like present participle going past participle-given.

A phrase has 3 parts; namely:

- i. Modifier
- ii. Head
- iii. Qualifier

Out of the 3, 2 are optional but one is obligatory, that is the head. The modifier refers to the entities that come before the head, while the qualifier comes after the head are sometimes called post.

Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is headed by a noun or pronoun. If a pronoun is the head, there will not be any modifier or qualifier, but if you have a noun as the head, there may be both modifier and qualifier example:

- i. The tall tree
M H
- ii. The cock in your room
M head qualifier
- iii. The car which he stole
M h q r

Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is made up of a lexical verb and its auxiliary

1. They have gone home.
2. She is reading.

Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase is a phrase headed by a preposition. It has 2 obligatory elements: preposition and a nominal phrase

- i. In your own interest
- ii. By the road
- iii. With God
- iv. For our friends

Functions of Prepositional Phrase

1. It could function as an adjective if it qualifies a noun
2. It could function as an adverb, if it modifies an action that is verb.
3. It could function as a complement of a linking verb.
 1. She is in your car. (complement)
 2. The man under that tree is angry. (adverb)
 3. He did it for you. (adverb)
 4. We will not sing with them. (adverb)

Gerundive Phrase

is a phrase headed by a gerund. It is also known as verbal noun, that is the 'ing' form of a verb used as a noun. It functions as an adjective.

1. Dancing is good.
2. Fighting is bad.
3. I like praying.

The following are gerundive phrases:

1. Fighting in class is bad.
2. I like sleeping during church service
3. Deceiving people is not good.

Adjectival Phrase

This is a phrase headed by an adjective. Its modifier is an intensive adverb, such as very, quite, much, so etc.

1. Very beautiful
2. Too bitter
3. Quite ugly

Adverbial Phrase

An adverbial phrase has an adverb as its head and another intensive adverb as its modifiers very carelessly.

1. She dresses very carefully.
2. She speaks quite impressively in town.

Infinitival Phrase

A phrase headed by an infinite verb is termed infinitival phrase. It functions as a noun a complement, or an adjective.

1. To be lucky is good(subject)
2. To be wealthy does not necessarily mean to be healthy (complement)
3. She is a lady to disgrace (it modifies 'the lady')

Participial Phrase

A participial phrase has either a present participle or a past participle form of a verb as its head. It functions only as an adjective. This is why it must be far from the subjects it modifies. It functions as a noun.

1. Having gone there twice, we can lead others there (it modifies 'we')

This can be reconstructed as

- We, having gone there twice, can lead others there.
2. Dejected by the news, the woman cried uncontrollably.
 3. Perplexed by what he heard, the boy went home sad.
 4. Reprimanded by the lecturer, the students stopped making noise.

Appositive Phrase

This is a noun phrase that is in apposition to another nominal entity, that is it presents the nominal entity in another form. It is similar to repetition, as an appositive phrase can be used in place of the nominal entity in the same construction.

1. Nigeria, the giant of Africa, is slumbering

2. Fr. Sasa, the rector, is away
3. Lion, the king of the jungle, is dangerous.
4. Henry, the footballer, is hardworking
5. Sodium chloride, common salt, has many functions.

3.2.4 The Clause

A clause is a group of related word that has a subject and finite verb.

There are 2 major types of clause:

- i. Main clause (alpha)
- ii. Subordinate clause (beta)

A main clause can stand on its own while a subordinate clause cannot stand on its own.

1. Unless you are neat, you cannot eat with me.
2. The boy cried because his father beat him.

We also have different types or classification of subordinate clause. This is based on the function it performs. This deals specifically with subordinate clauses.

Noun Clause

This is a subordinate clause that functions as a noun as underlined in the examples below:

1. What the man did to his wife is wrong.
2. That we cannot solve this problem is quite unthinkable.
3. Whose research work is the best cannot be ascertained.

Adjectival or Relative Clause

An adjectival clause is a subordinate clause that performs the function of an adjective. Examples are underlined below:

1. The driver who killed the dog has been arrested.
2. He has finished reading the book which his mother bought for him.
3. The man whose house was damaged is dead.

Adverbial Clause

An adverbial clause is a subordinate clause that performs the function of an adverb in a sentence. Adverbial clauses also have various types. It is based on the question they answer. Examples are:

Adverbial Clause of Time

It answers the question 'when?'

1. I saw him as he was going to the church.
2. The boy dropped the cup when he saw a big rat.

Adverbial Clause of Reason

It answers the question 'why?' For example:

1. He came to class because he had no option.
2. He passed because he worked hard.
3. He travelled because he was compelled to do so.

Adverbial Clause of Concession

This is a clause that gives a proposition which is opposite the one contained in the main clause. For example:

1. Although you are ready, you will not be attended to.
2. Even if you call me, I will not answer.

Adverbial Clause of Manner

This answers the question 'how?' For example:

1. He talks as if he knows everything.
2. He behaves as if he were God.

Adverbial Clause of Place

It answers the question 'where?' For example:

1. We met him where he was sleeping.
2. I saw it where you hid it.

Adverbial Clause of Condition

This answers the question 'under what condition?' For example:

1. Except you are serious, you will be dealt with.
2. Unless you repent of your sins, you will die.

3.2.5 The Sentence

Sentence A group of words that begins with a capital and ends with a full stop, and expresses a complete thought.

A **sentence** is a group of selected words that begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. This is a definition from the angle of writing or orthography. From the angle of meaning, a sentence can be defined as a group of related words that expresses a complete thought.

Types of Sentence

There are two parameters for classifying a sentence. These are

- A. Function, and
- B. Form / Structure

Classification Based on Function

Declarative Sentences

This is a sentence which makes a statement of fact. This sentence may either be true or false and may also be in the negative or positive.

- i. We are hungry.
- ii. She is not serious.
- iii. They are tired.
- iv. We love ladies.

Imperative Sentences

This is a sentence which makes a request or an entreaty. The subject is usually 'you' but it is often deleted since it is not understood.

- i. Get out.
- ii. Keep quiet.
- iii. Leave me alone.
- iv. Get ready to go.

Interrogative Sentence

This is a sentence that asks a question; the question could be wh-type or polar-type. The polar-type is also a yes or no question.

Wh-type

- i. Where is she now?
- ii. Where do I come in here?
- iii. How did you get here?
- iv. What have you done wrong?

Polar type

- i. Are you ready for the exam?
- ii. Does he know the right thing?
- iii. Is he the right person?
- iv. Will they help us?
- v. Can we rely on them?

Note however, that there are some expressions that look like questions but are not actually questions. We will consider two of them below.

Rhetorical Questions

This is a question asked only for dramatic or emphatic purposes.

Examples:

- i. Who does not want to enjoy life?
- ii. Where else can you find fulfilment except in God?

Mild Imperatives

This is a command that pretends to be a request and the request also pretends to be a question.

- i. Shall we pray?
- ii. Can you please pass the salt?

Classification Based on Structure/Form

Simple Sentence

This is made up of only a main clause and no subordinate clause.

- i. The man is ready.
- ii. Don't deceive others.

Compound Sentence

This sentence is made up of at least two main clauses and one subordinate clause. The clauses may be joined by a coordinating conjunction, colon, semi-colon, or comma.

- i. Watch and pray.
- ii. He read well but he did not pass.
- iii. Man proposes while God disposes.

Complex Sentence

This consists of a main clause and at least a subordinate clause.

- i. If you cheat in exams, I will penalise you.
- ii. Unless you repent, you shall perish.
- iii. The man had been buried, before they arrived

Compound-Complex Sentences

It comprises at least two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause.

- i. Come and see what the Lord has done.

- ii. Because the father died after a protracted illness and the mother was killed by armed, their children were sent to the orphanage.
- iii. Come and eat if you are hungry.
- iv. If you are serious, I will serve and protect you.

Exclamatory Sentence

This is a sentence which expresses the strong feeling of a person.

- i. How fortunate are we!
- ii. What a fortunate man he will be!

3.3 Structure

Structure

The composition of unit in terms of its functional elements and the relationship that exists between these elements.

Structure accounts for “the composition of a unit in terms of functional elements and for the relationships between these elements” (Morley, 1985: 9). A group has the structure (m) h (q). M stands for modifier, h for head and q for qualifier. Of these, only the head is obligatory, this means that a group must have a head, but it may not have either or both of m and q.

- 1) a nice | girl
m | h
- 2) the red | blouse | in your wardrobe
m | h | q

A clause has the structure SPCA

- S = subject
- P = predicator
- C = complement
- A = adjunct

The Subject is associated with the nominal group. The verbal group serves as the Predicator. The complement is associated with nominal group, the adjectival group, the adverbial group or the prepositional group.

- 1) The ball | has | red patches
S | P | C
- 2) Nobody | can go | home | now
S | P | C | A
- 3) Leave | this place
P | C



You will notice that the elements in a phrase are different from those of a clause. But you can find a clause in a phrase, particularly a relative clause in a noun phrase, because there is a concept called embedding or rankshifting. And a clause is essentially made up of at least a phrase.

3.4 System

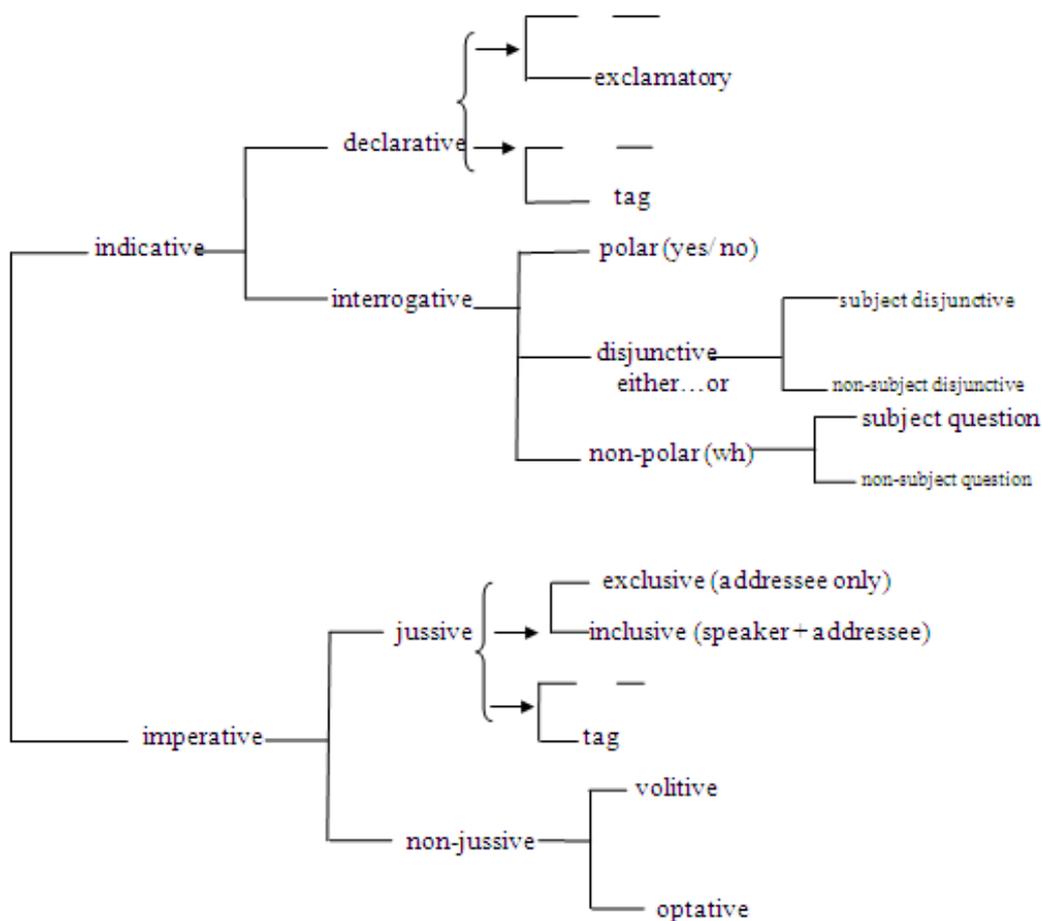
System The range of choices available within a

System accounts for the range of choices (classes) that are available within a unit. This range is called a set of terms. A system has these

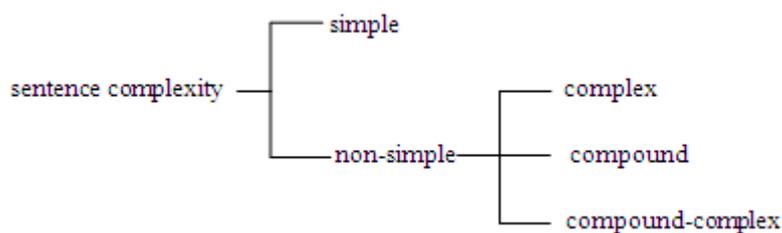
unit.

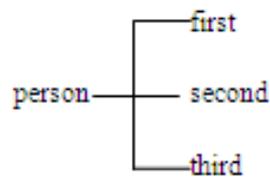
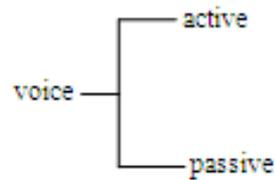
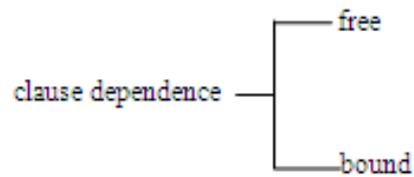
properties:

1. The list of term contained in it is finite
2. The options are all mutually exclusive. This means that if a new term is added, the meaning of at least one of the existing terms is affected (Morley, 1985: 17).



The mood system (Adapted from Huddleston (1981) cf Morley 1985)





Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we examined class and unit, two of the theoretical categories identified by Halliday. Our discussion extensively dwelt on three of the grammatical units: morpheme, word, group/phrase, clause and sentence. You also learnt how structure and system operate in English. Each unit has what makes it possible for it to belong to that unit.

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Study Session4

Scales

Introduction

We have devoted the previous Study Session to the theoretical categories identified by Halliday. We will now examine scales of grammatical analysis in Systemic Functional Grammar.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:
4.1 present the types of scales in English.

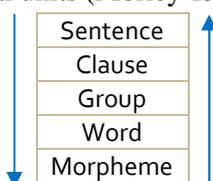
4.1 Types of Scale

The scales of grammatical analysis in Systemic Functional Grammar include the following:

- Scale of Rank
- Scale of Delicacy
- Scale of Exponence
- Scale of Depth

4.1.1 Scale of Rank

This scale accounts for the hierarchical relationship among the grammatical units (Morley 1985).



Each unit, except the morpheme, is made up of at least one of the unit of the rank below it. The sentence, however, does not form a part of any other higher grammatical unit, since it is the highest in the hierarchy. We have discussed each of these units under grammatical categories.

4.1.2 Scale of Delicacy

This scale determines the degree of detail in analysis. It is a rank-bound scale. For instance, in analysing the unit of clause, at the primary degree of delicacy, we talk of free/alpha and bound/beta clauses. If we move to the secondary degree of delicacy, we consider the degree of grammatical subordination that is distance from the alpha/free clause. What this means is that some bound/beta clauses are closer to the alpha/free clause than

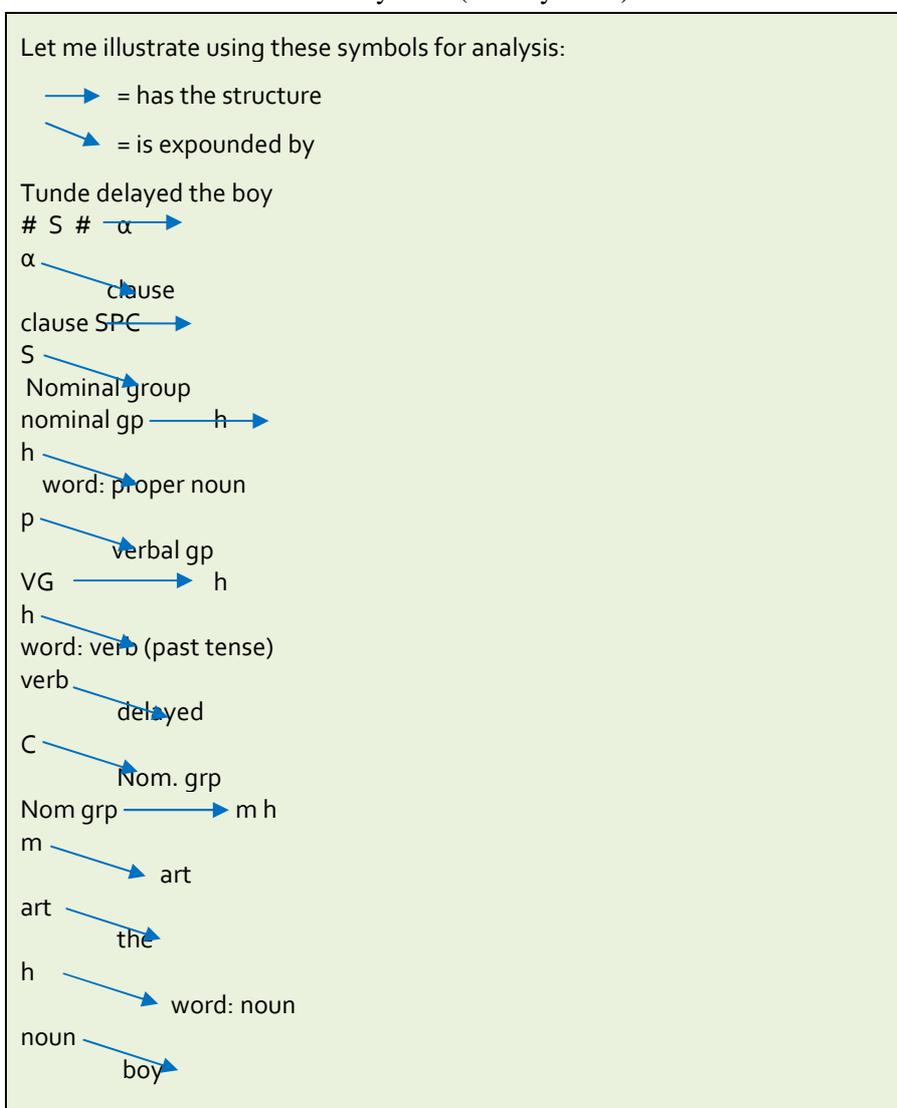
others. In this case, we talk of: alpha (α), beta (β), gamma (γ), delta (δ), epsilon (ϵ), and so on (Morley 1985). Let us consider these structures:

	free	bound
primary degree of delicacy:	α	β
	Adeola said	you should leave

	If the boy dances	before you talk
secondary degree of delicacy:	bound	bound
	γ	δ

4.1.3 Scale of Exponence

Exponence scale relates the categories to each other and to the data. In the analysis, the rank can be changed as necessary. This scale accounts for the formal nature of a unit of utterance grammatically and lexically. Its focus is not restricted to any rank (Morley 1985).



4.1.4 Scale of Depth

This scale is at times treated as the scale of delicacy. This is why some writers claim that Halliday's scale and category grammar has 4 theoretical categories and 3 scales. The scale of depth considers the degree of complexity of a stretch of language. You will remember that the Scale of Delicacy deals with the degree of detail of analysis. This scale focuses on the relationship between an element of structure and the point of origin in the structure or the top of the node (Morley 1985). A gamma clause, for instance, represents a stage of greater depth in structure than a beta clause.

Fig 4.1 Scale of depth of clause



Tip Box

- Delicacy deals with the degree of analysis of a stretch of language.
- Depth deals with the degree of complexity of a stretch of language.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In Study Session, we learnt that Systemic Functional Grammar uses 4 scales for analysis of language. Some scholars feel that there are just three scales because of the similarities between the scales of delicacy and depth. However, the difference between these two scales was highlighted in this Study Session

Study Session5

Transformational Generative Grammar

Introduction

In this Study Session, we will focus on Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG).



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 5.1 *explain* the basic assumptions of TGG.
- 5.2 *outline* phrase structures.
- 5.3 *analyse* sentences using PS rule.

5.1 Some Basic Assumptions of TGG

Transformational Generative Grammar began with the seminal work of Chomsky titled *Syntactic Structures* (1957). It is further expounded in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965). The basic assumption of the grammar is that from a finite set of rules, we can generate an infinite number of structures. The grammar also claims that grammatical analysis should be based on the intuitive knowledge of an ideal native speaker. TGG distinguishes between **competence** and **performance**. Competence is described as the knowledge which an ideal native speaker has of his/her language. Conversely, performance is the actual use of that knowledge. Performance is not reliable in grammatical analysis because it could be affected by the following:

1. Stage fright
2. Memory loss
3. Distraction of attention.

TGG equally identifies 2 important levels:

1. Deep structure (DS)
2. Surface structure (SS)

The DS is the level of combination. Here, the lexicon and the PS rules combine to form structures. It is after transformations have applied on these that the SS is got. This is the phonetic form of what DS and transformations have produced. You could now see that TGG is highly mentalistic. It deals with the mental processes involved in the derivation of structures.

TGG distinguishes between **Acceptability** and **Grammaticality**. A structure may be grammatical but not acceptable and vice-versa. A

sentence is grammatical if it conforms to the rules of the grammar of a given language. It is acceptable if the users of the language take it to be meaningful. Chomsky gives this classical example to illustrate this:

Colourless green ideas sleep furiously.

This sentence is grammatical, in that it follows the rules of English grammar, but it is unacceptable as it violates some rules, such as selectional restriction. However, figuratively, it is meaningful.

5.2 Phrase Structure (PS) Rules

There are rules that account for the components of each phrase. Transformational Generative Grammar has rules for each phrase. Notice that each phrase derives its name from the head word in it.

5.2.1 Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is headed by a noun

NP \longrightarrow (Det) (Adj) N (S') (PP)
Pro

Let's illustrate with these structures

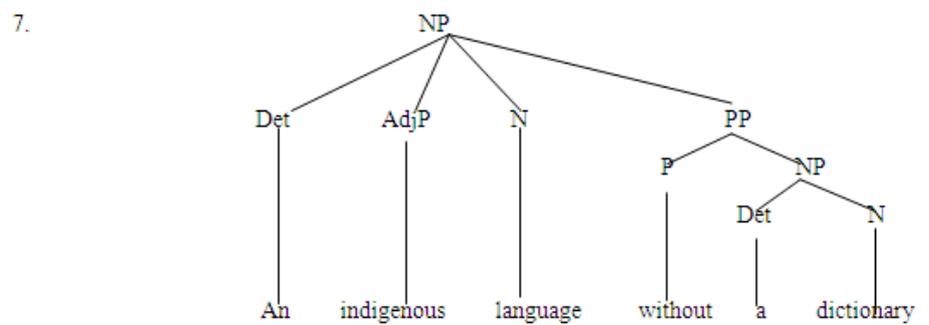
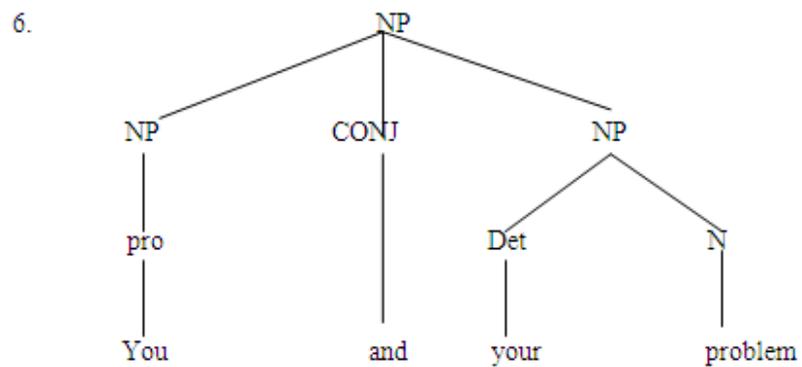
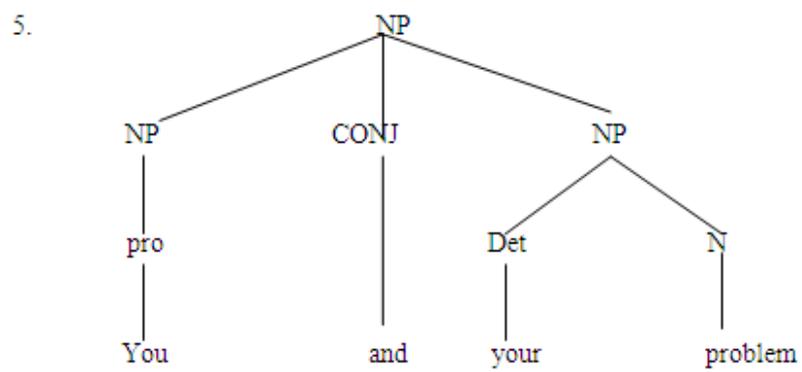
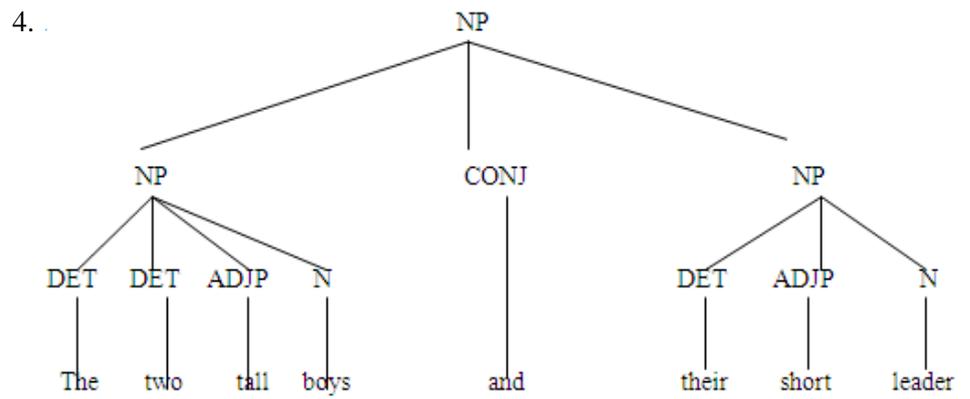
1. The lazy teacher
2. A very strong warning
3. This unserious and fake prophet
4. The two tall boys and their short leader
5. You and your problem
6. The book on your table
7. An indigenous language without a dictionary
8. Kunle and Femi
9. The musician who duped us

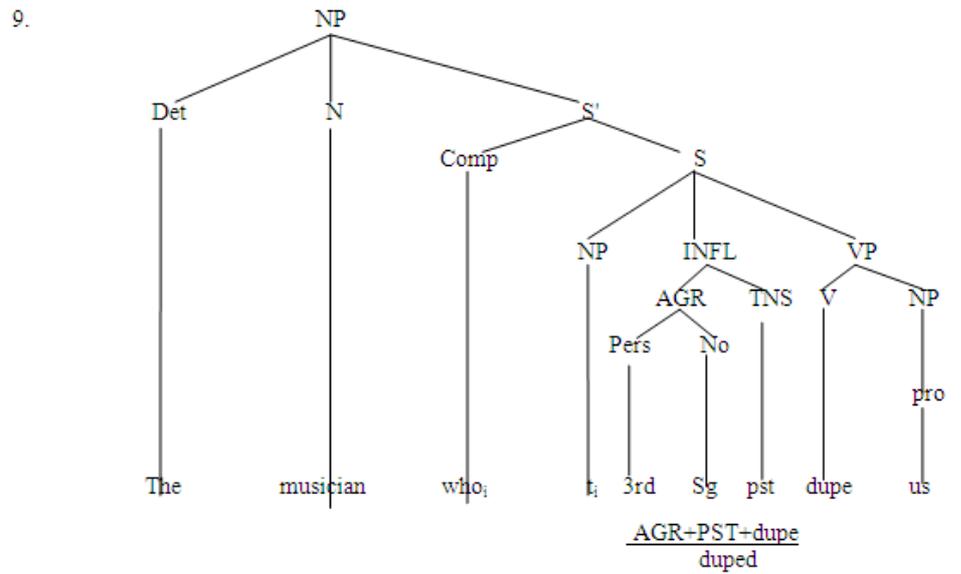
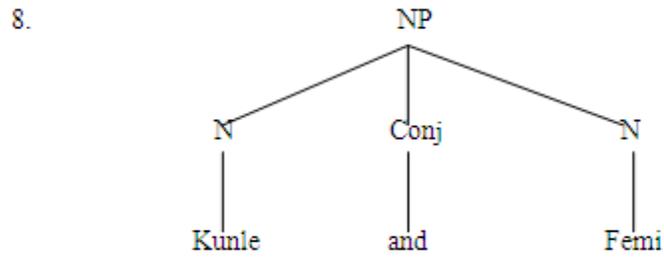
You can use bracketing, labelled brackets and phrase markers or tree diagrams to analyse any structure. You will still arrive at the same result. The difference between bracketing and labelled bracket is that whole the latter indicate the category in bracket, the former does not. Let us use labelled bracket to analyse structures 1-3 above, and phrase markers for the rest.

1. $\left[\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{The} \\ \text{Det} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Lazy} \\ \text{AdjP} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{teacher} \\ \text{N} \end{array} \right] \right]$

2. $\left[\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{A} \\ \text{Det} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \right] \left[\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{very} \\ \text{Adj} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{strong} \\ \text{Adj} \end{array} \right] \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{warning} \\ \text{N} \end{array} \right] \right]$

3. $\left[\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{This} \\ \text{Det} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \right] \left[\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{unserious} \\ \text{Adj} \end{array} \right] \text{and} \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{fake} \\ \text{Adj} \end{array} \right] \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{prophet} \\ \text{N} \end{array} \right] \right]$

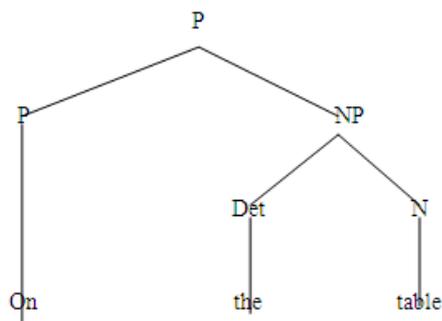




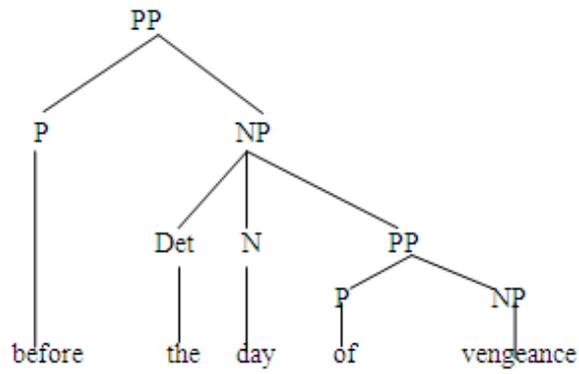
5.2.2 Prepositional Phrase

P → P NP

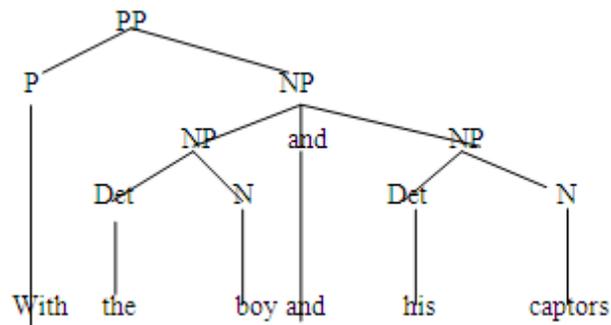
1. on the table



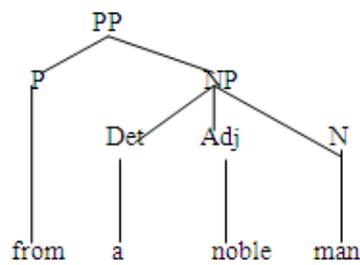
2. before the day of vengeance



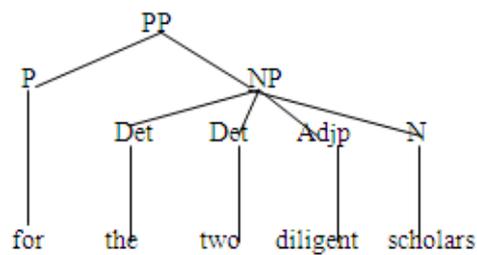
3. with the boy and his captors



4. from a noble man



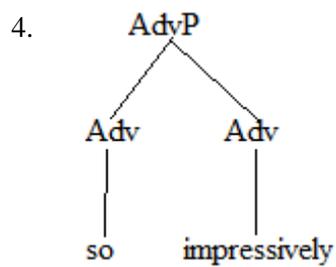
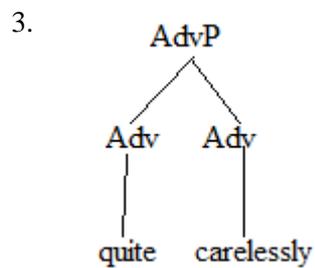
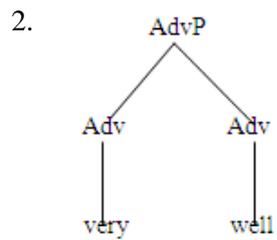
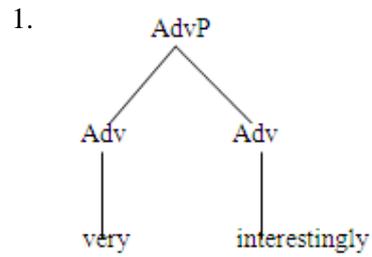
5. for the two diligent scholars

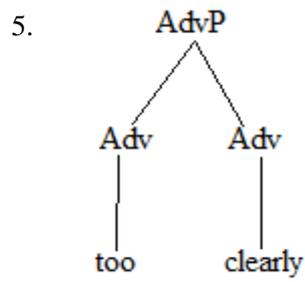


5.2.3 Adverbial Phrase

AdvP → Deg Adv Adv

1. very interesting
2. very well
3. quite carelessly
4. so impressively
5. too clearly

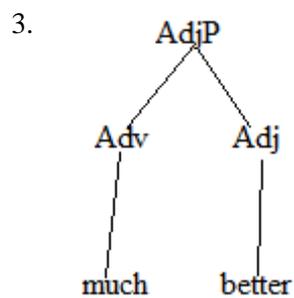
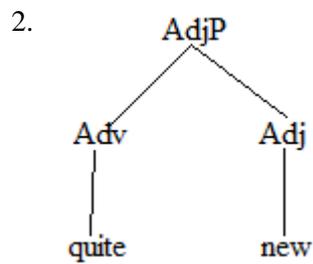
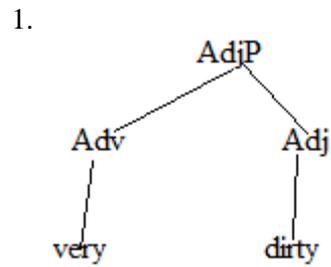


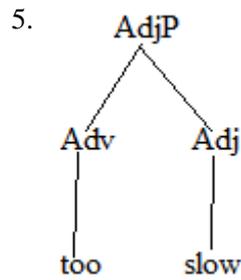
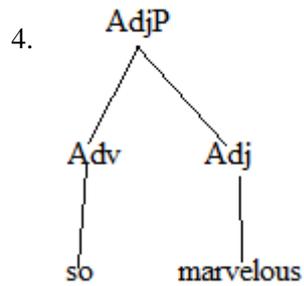


5.2.4 Adjectival Phrase

AdjP Adv Adj

1. very dirty
2. quite new
3. much better
4. so marvelous
5. too slow





5.3 Sentence

Below is the PS rule for sentence:

S	→	NP	INFL	VP
INFL	→	AGR	TNS	(M) (ASP) (PASS)
AGR	→		Pers	No
PerS	→	1st	2nd	3rd
M	→	can	will	should, etc
ASP	→	Prog	Perf	
Prog	→	be	ing	
Perf	→	have	en	
Pass	→	be	en	

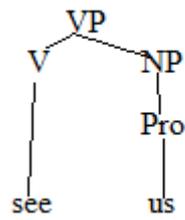
Since we have discussed NP in the previous section, let me now go to VP.

5.3.1 Verb Phrase

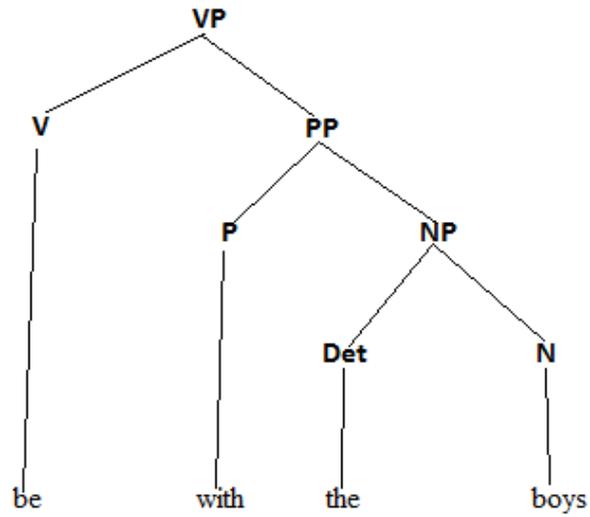
VP → V (NP) (PP) (AdvP) (AdjP) (S¹)

1. Dele saw us
2. She is with the boys
3. He did it well
4. We are ready
5. You said that she was humble

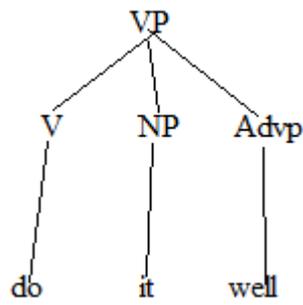
1.



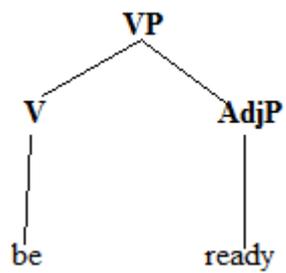
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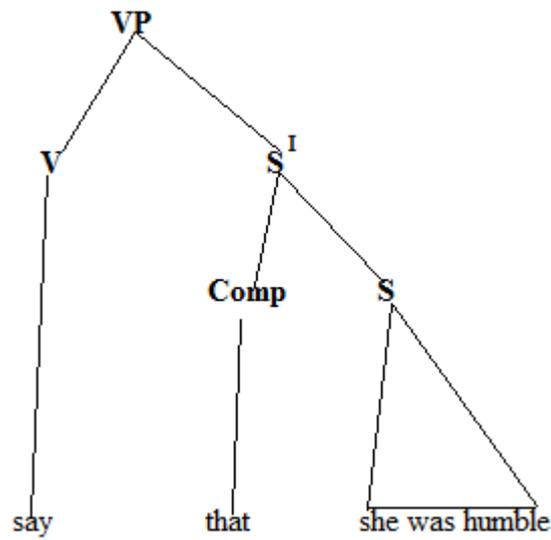
3.



4.

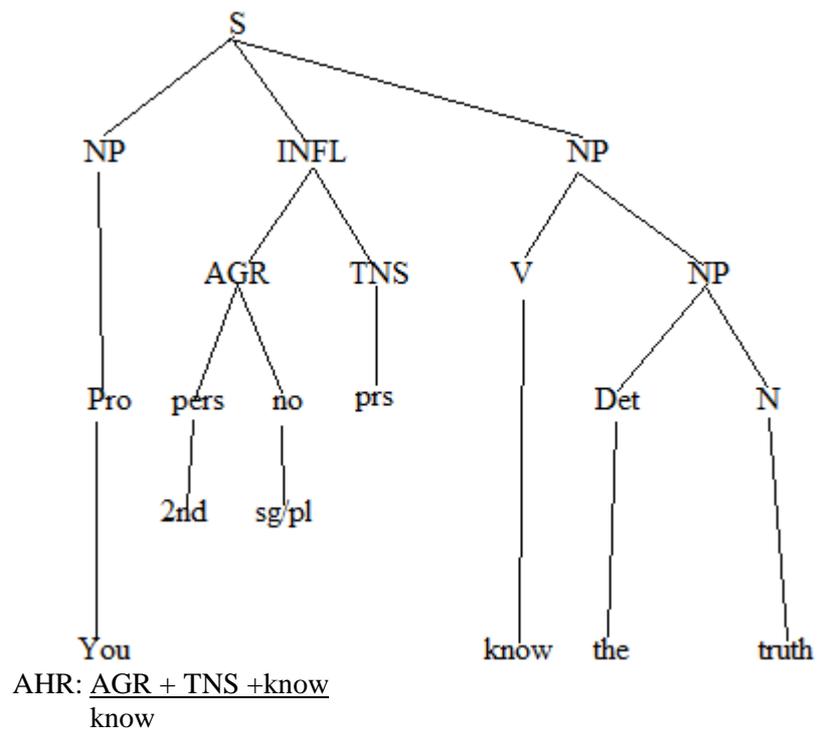


5.



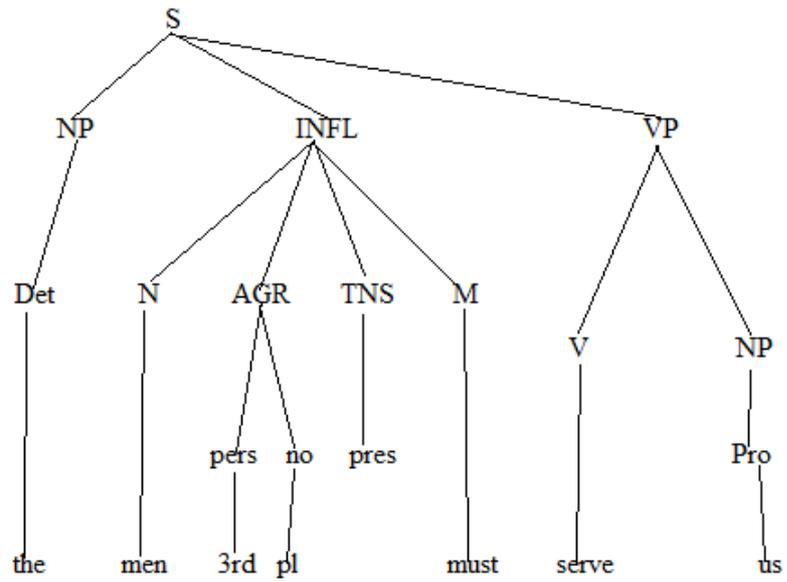
1. You know the truth.
2. The men must serve us.
3. That man has beaten the lady.
4. Moses is reading the letter now.
5. The boy in your group should come to us

1.



Surface Structure(SS): You know the truth

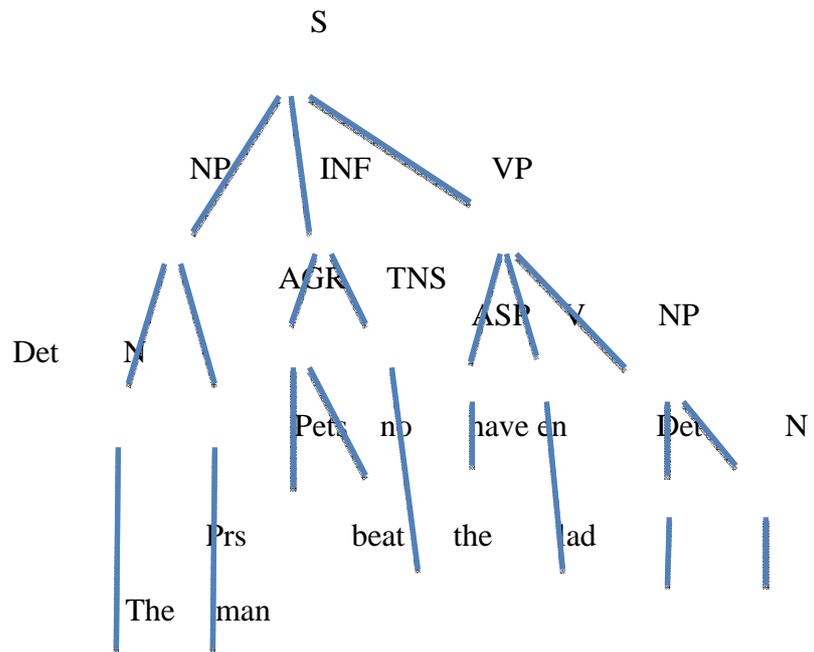
2.



AHR: AGR + TNS + must
must

SS: The men must serve us

3.

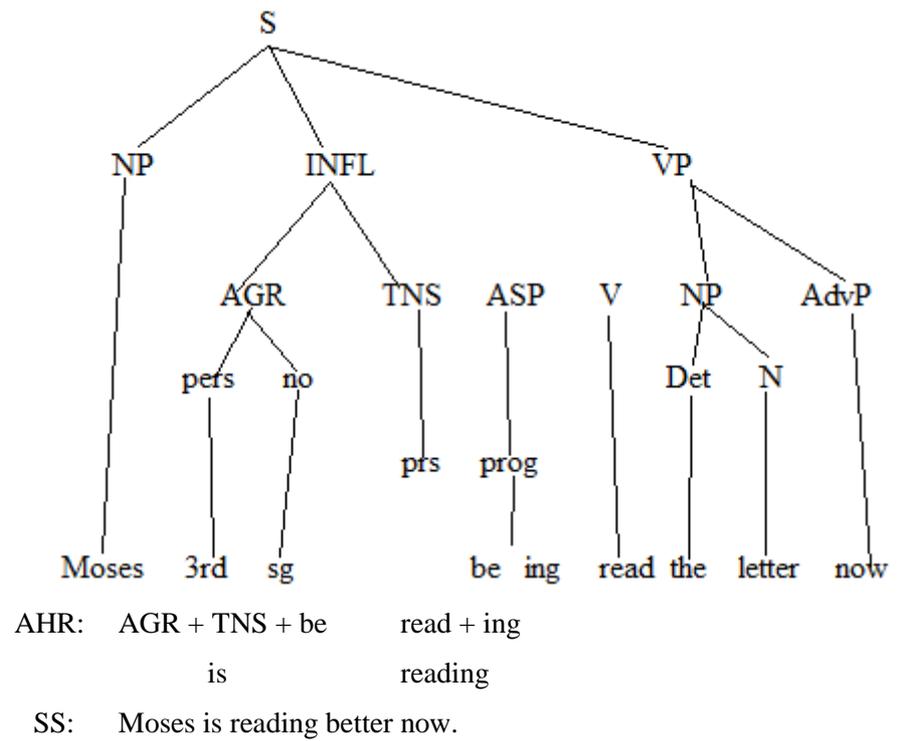


AHR: AGR + TNS + have
has

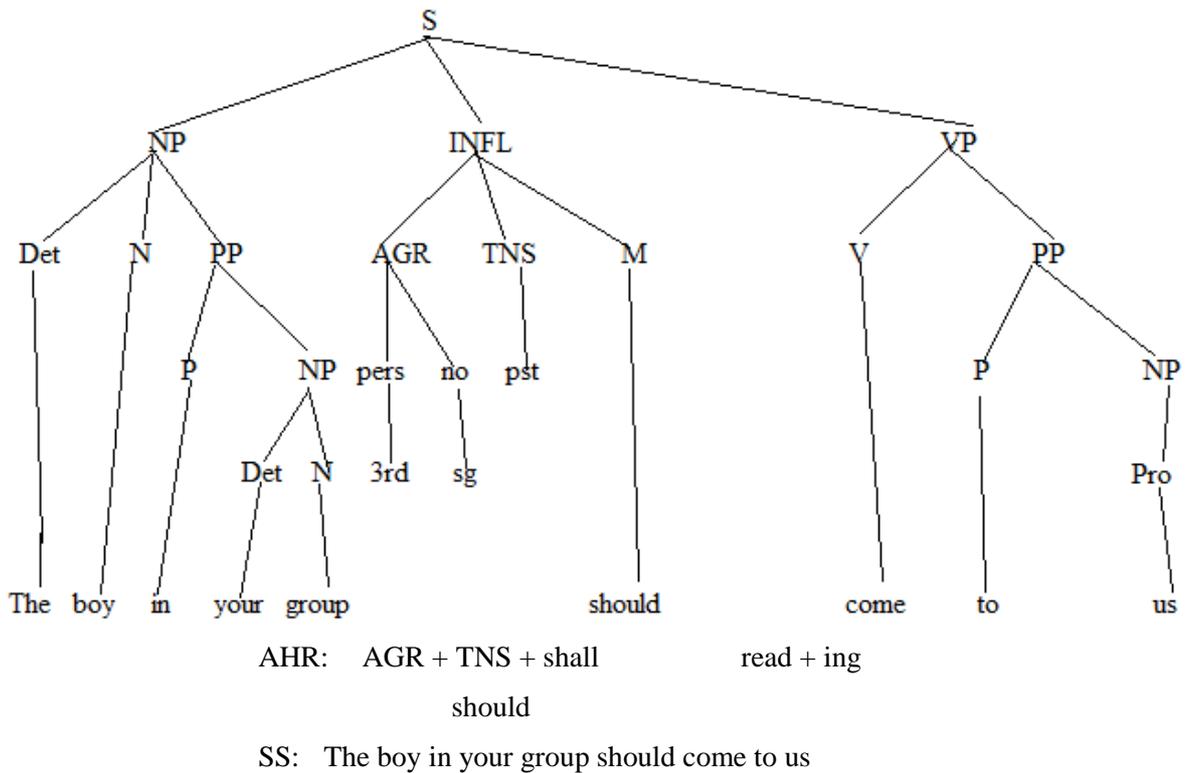
beat + en
beaten

SS: That man has beaten the lady.

4.



5.



Study Session Summary



Summary

This Study Session focused on the historical background of TGG. We also learnt some basic tenets of this grammar. A great portion of the Study Session was devoted to syntactic analysis, with particular emphasis on phrases.

In this Study Session, we examined how tree diagrams are used for syntactic analysis. Note that what we discussed here is the elementary form of analysis in TGG. The grammar has undergone series of development. The current model of the grammar is The Minimalist Program. So you need to study further to know the stages that this grammar has gone through.

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Study Session 6

Stylistics

Introduction

This Study Session, we will introduce to you an important aspect of linguistic analysis, stylistics. It is an important discipline that you will find useful as you study language further. Since this course is introductory, we will only be interested in the major concepts that will help you in attempting stylistic analysis.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 6.1 *define* and use correctly the term “stylistics”.
- 6.2 *perform* stylistic analysis.
- 6.3 *enumerate* approaches to style.

6.1 Concept of Stylistics

Stylistics is the branch of linguistics concerned with the study of style in spoken and written text. It also involves other higher and lower units. It is “the analysis of distinctive expression in language and the description of its purpose and effect” (Verdonk, 2002: 3-4). Style is concerned with constituent occurrences in the text. This means that it is not identification of items in a text rather, what will qualify as the style should be recurring patterns in a text. A stylistic analysis covers all the traditional levels of linguistics from the perspective of any descriptive linguistics. In essence, it is a descriptive enterprise.

There are two broad senses of conceiving style: the evaluative and the descriptive. The former sees style in a critical way, focusing on the features that make a person stand out. It focuses on a degree of excellence. The latter sense lacks this judgmental approach. It merely describes those distinctive features of the text/author. Both senses, however, see style as the conscious or unconscious choices made from alternatives available in a language. Remember the theoretical category of system in Halliday’s scale and category.



Note

Evaluative conception of style focuses on uniqueness the degree of excellence of a style while descriptive conception of style merely describes distinctive features of text.

6.2 Levels of Stylistic Analysis

Stylistic analysis can be done at the following levels:

1. Phonetic/Graphetic
2. Phonological/Graphological
3. Grammatical
4. Lexical
5. Semantic

These are explained as follows:

6.2.1 Phonetic/Graphetic

This relates to the actual substance, that is the raw material of language. Phonetics deals with the spoken text, while graphetics relates to the written text. Ideophones and onomatopoeia particularly are relevant here. Type-size or colours, though non-linguistic, may show the semantic structure of the text.

6.2.2 Phonological/Graphological

While phonetics/graphetics deals with the basic phonic/graphic substance of language, phonology/graphology deals with the organisation of phonic/graphic substance of a given language. Graphological consideration will include capitalisation, spacing, distinctive use of punctuation, lettering size and type. Phonological consideration will include patterns of stress, rhythm, intonation and pitch.

6.2.3 Grammatical

This involves studying the organisation of phonology/graphology. Here morphological and syntactic features of the text are considered.

6.2.4 Lexical

This refers to the study of vocabulary, including idiomatic expressions and single words. It concerns why some choices are made in relation to the subject matter

6.2.5 Semantic

This studies the meaning of stretches of language longer than single lexical items.

6.3 Application of Stylistics

Stylistics is useful in carrying out a number linguistic function, as discussed below.

6.3.1 Statistical Linguistics/Stylo-Stylistics/Stylometrics

Stylometrics is a field investigates the differences between samples or texts and the properties which such have in common. This is an effort

toward identifying linguistic universals, what Chomsky calls Universal Grammar. It may involve count of word (any linguistic item) frequency. In essence, it uses a small number of carefully selected textual features to search for these in large body of text. Stylo-stylistical investigation is carried out in three major areas:

Formal Characteristics

That is those features that do not relate directly to meaning; such as word class, source of vocabulary, and the length of words, sentences or lines.

Characteristics that Relate Directly to Meaning

Examples are those sizes of diversity of an author's vocabulary.

Detailed Study of Single Words or Small Set of Words

This approach concentrates on cases involving choosing among alternatives. These selections must be regular to be of stylistic relevance.

6.3.2 Authorship Identification

Stylistics is useful in resolving cases of disputed or unknown authorship. If the authorship of a text is in contest, the frequency and distribution of a small number of linguistic items can be made and compared with the corresponding features in the text context.

6.3.3 Forensic Language

Forensic linguistics involves using linguistic tools to detect criminal. By studying style, one can differentiate between normal language usage of an accused person and the statements made under duress. Stylisticians can notice the style of a person to support or debunk incriminating utterances heard on a tape recording.

6.4 Approaches to Style

6.4.1 Style as Choice

This approach sees style as the choices made by an individual. There are many possibilities in language. If an individual then chooses a particular pattern rather than the others, such constitutes his /her style. For instances if somebody selects the indicative mood rather than the imperative mood to express a particular idea, we take that to mean his style. This choice is based on purpose and context. Context could be linguistic or non-linguistic. The former means the surrounding feature of language inside a text. These include typography, sounds, words, phrases, and clauses and sentences. The latter refers to features outside the text which influence the language and style of the text (Verdonk, 2002: 3-4). Warburg (1959: 50), cited in Enkvist (1964: 19), claims that:

Good style, it seems to me, consists in choosing the appropriate symbolisation of the experience you wish to convey, from among a number of words whose meaning-area is roughly, but only roughly, the same (by saying cat, for example, rather than pussy)

6.4.2 Style as Personality or Individual

This approach sees style as revealing an individual. In other words, each person has in mind that an individual is a product of many influences. In the light of this, what is regarded as somebody's style is not entirely his/hers. Some of the ideas belong to the community that has produced him/her. Style is "some or the entire feature of the language of one person" Crystal and Davy (1969:9). In this connection we talk about Soyinka's style, Achebe's style and so on. This refers to a person's linguistic idiosyncrasies.



Tip

The aggregate feature of the language of an individual is the style of that individual.

6.4.3 Style as Deviation

Style here is regarded as an individual's deviation from the norm of a language. The deviation could be at any level of linguistic analysis. The aggregate of this constitute the style of such a person. It often features at the orthographical level e.g. 9ice for nice; Tuface, for Two Face. Deviation is a form of foregrounding, making something to stand out. This involves breaking the norms of the standard language (Malmkjaer and Carter 2002:513).

6.4.4 Style as a Temporal Phenomenon

Each age has a particular way of using language. The writers of that age tend to use language in similar ways. The style of writers at such an age will reflect certain similarities. This gives rise to expressions like Elizabethan drama, Victorian writing. In short, the period in which someone writes influences and reflects his/her style. According to Spencer (1964: xi): 'A writer's style may be regarded as an individual and creative utilization of the resources of language which his period, chosen dialect, his genre and his purpose within it offer him.'

6.4.5 Style as Situation

The situation in which a person finds himself/herself determines his style. This means that style varies according to situation. For instance, the way language is used at wedding is different from how it is used during burial. There are also some stereotypic uses of language, such as the language of law.

The goal of stylistics is succinctly captured by Crystal and Davy (1969: 10-11) thus:

"the aim of stylistics is to analyse language habits with the main purpose of identifying from the general mass of linguistic features...as used on every conceivable occasion, those features which are restricted to certain kinds of social context; to explain, where possible, why such features have been used, as opposed to other alternatives; and to classify these

features into categories based upon a view of their function in the social context. By “features” here, we mean any bit of speech or writing which a person can single out from the general flow of language and discuss- a particular word, part of a word, sequence of words, or way of uttering a word”



Note

In doing stylistic analysis, the linguistic features need to be related to context. It is then that the relevance of these items can be seen



Discussion Activity

There are many approaches to style, which one do you find most interesting?

Post your reasons on Study Session Six forum page on course website.

Study Session Summary



Summary

This Study Session has been devoted to the discussion of style. We learnt that Style, in a restricted sense, means the effectiveness of a mode of expression. Another sense in which style is conceived is its use as literary language.

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Study Session 7

Meaning

Introduction

Scholars have approached the study of meaning from different perspectives because meaning is difficult to define. This has produced different types of meaning. It is important for you to be familiar with types of meaning to better appreciate language and human communication. Therefore in this Study Session, we will explore the major types of meaning.



Learning Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 7.1 *classify* expressions according to their meanings.
- 7.2 *discuss* at least eight theories of meaning.

7.1 Meaning Types



Tip

There are different types of meaning. Meaning is usually dependent on context.

7.1.1 Denotative/Conceptual Meaning

This is the plain of word. It is also the general meaning, literal meaning or dictionary meaning of a word.

7.1.2 Connotative Meaning

This is the meaning people associate with a word. The culture and emotions of individuals reflects in this meaning. What a word means to one person may be different from what it means to another person.

7.1.3 Collocative Meaning

The environment in which a word occurs influences its meaning. The kind of meaning a word/ expression gets by virtue of its association with other words/ expression is termed collocative meaning. There are some words that naturally go together, such as high building not high man, in terms of length. However in figurative usage, there could be deliberate miscollocation to achieve some effects.

7.1.4 Reflected Meaning

This is the kind of meaning got when one sense of word rubs off on another sense. This may be a product of frequency or strength of association. According to Ogunsiji 2000, reflected meaning arises when one of the meanings of a word is directly associated with it and the users of the language tend to forget other meanings of the word. An example is the association of the word 'ejaculation' with only sexual intercourse, whereas it also means sudden shout.

7.1.5 Affective Meaning

This has to do with attitude to a word. Depending on the way an expression, particularly spoken form, is used, different meanings can be derived.

7.1.6 Thematic Meaning

This has to do with the organization of the message in terms of how it is ordered to show the theme and the rheme. The theme is the GIVEN, while the RHEME is the NEW meaning.

7.1.7 Sentence Meaning

This is the meaning a sentence can have on its own. This is also called propositional meaning. There are different types of sentence based on meaning. You should not mix these with the types considered under syntax.

7.1.8 Analytic Sentence

This is a sentence that is necessarily true as a result of the senses of the component words in it. An analytic sentence can be broken down into its components.

Examples

1. All goats are animals.
2. All boys are humans.

The meaning of each of the sentences above is amalgamation of the component words.

7.1.9 Synthetic Sentence

This is a sentence which may be either true or false, depending on the senses of the words.

Examples

- i. Ayoke is from Ikire.
- ii. The boy is nice.

The first sentence may be true or false, as there is nothing in the senses of Ayoke and Ikire that make the sentences necessarily true or false. Therefore, the truth/falsity of a synthetic sentence depends on the state of affairs. The same applies to the second sentence.

7.1.10 Contradictory Sentence

This is a sentence that is necessarily false owing to the senses of the component words.

- i. That table is a man.
- ii. The tree is an animal.

7.1.11 Utterance Meaning

An utterance meaning is any stretch of talk by one person before and after which there is silence on the part of that person. It is not necessarily a sentence. It could be a word, a phrase, a simple sentence or a complex sentence. The meaning of the entire utterance is known as utterance meaning.

7.1.12 Contextual Meaning

This is the meaning of a sentence or word when it is found in context. The linguistic context refers to the linguistic items before and after it. Contextual meaning can also mean the occasion in which a particular utterance is used. It could be linguistic or non-linguistic. This type of meaning is also known as the functional value of the utterance. Out of context, the following expressions may be meaningless:

1. He butchered the lady.
2. This box will kill you.

But with the provision of appropriate context, they become meaningful. Essentially, language becomes meaningful only in context (the context of situation of situation involving participants, actions etc).

7.1.13 Social Meaning

This is the kind of meaning produced from the use of language to express social meaning, such as endearment, enthusiasm, praise, politeness, friendliness, solidarity and so on. On the negative side, it includes the use of language for insult, criticism, irony, hostility. The society of the interlocutors is important here. This is because what is positive in a culture may be negative in another.

7.1.14 Pragmatic/Interpersonal Meaning

This involves the meaning derived from interaction among people in conversation. It considers speaker's meaning and hearer's meaning. A lot of contextual considerations come in here.

7.1.15 Emotive Meaning

This has to do with the use of language to show emotion. There could be ironical use of language.

7.1.16 Cultural Meaning

In a language spoken by people from different cultures, a word may have different meaning. An example is English spoken in different continents. The cultures involved colour the meanings of words.

7.2 Theories of Meaning

Semantics is the branch of linguistics that studies meaning. But meaning itself is difficult to define. This difficulty has led to different theories of meaning. The major ones are discussed below.

7.2.1 Ideational Theory of Meaning

This theory sees the meaning of a word as the idea that gives rise to an expression and that which it gives rise to. One of the limitations of this theory is the possibility of lack of correspondence between the idea that the speaker has and that of the hearer. It is also possible for a word to have more than one idea. This theory is also suitable for only concrete objects. It is also limited to only words, whereas meaning extends beyond words. Besides it is rather too mentalistic.

7.2.2 Image Theory of Meaning

The image theory of meaning is somehow similar to the theory of meaning. It contends that the meaning of a word is the image that it calls forth in the hearer's/speaker's mind. Like I argued above, a word may call forth more than one image in the hearer's/speaker's mind; in such situation which one will be taken to be the meaning of the word? Besides a word may produce an image in the mind of the speaker and produce a different one in the mind of the hearer. How then do we reconcile these? Also, the theory does not cater for grammatical words and units above and below the word.

7.2.3 Behavioural Theory of Meaning

This theory sees the meaning of a linguistic form as the situation surrounding its uttering and the response it produces in the hearer. In other words, it sees meaning as involving stimulus and response.

This implies that a stimulus produces a response and response serves as a stimulus to a final action taken by the hearer. Thus the meaning of a linguistic form is the situation which precedes the performance of a given utterance and the behaviour of the participants in response to it. (Ogunsiji 2000). A weakness of this theory is its oversimplification of human behaviour. What of if the hearer's response is contrary to what the speaker expects? The theory is also cumbersome. We have to keep investigating behaviour before determining the meaning of an utterance. The behaviourist view of meaning as

stimuli —————> words —————> responses

Meaning can be divided solely by studying the situation of speech use- the stimulus (S) which led someone to speak (r), and the response (R) which resulted from this speech (s)

S - - - - - r - - - - - s - - - - - R

(Crystal 1987: 101)

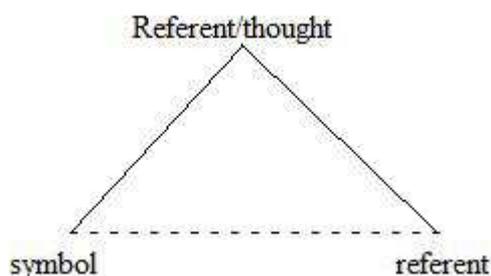
Bloomfield (1933) illustrates this with Jill and Jack; Jill is hungry and he sees an apple (S) ‘She asks Jack to get it for her (r); this linguistic stimulus (S) leads to Jack getting the apple (R) (Crystal 1987:101). There are some problems with this theory. Bloomfield’s argument that one can tell what the meaning r - - - - s must be just by observing the events that accompanied it, has some problems. For instance, there are some events (like expression of feelings) that are not clearly visible. There is also the problem of predictability of the other person.

7.2.4 Contextual Theory of Meaning

This theory claims that it is the context that determines the meaning of a word, as a word may mean different things in different contexts. There are linguistic and extra linguistic contexts. All of these have to be considered before arriving at the meaning of an expression. But it should be stressed that there is a limit to which the grammar of a language can be extended to capture context (Ogunsiji 2000).

7.2.5 Signification/Semiotic Theory

Language is a semiotic signs just like picture photograph Ogden and Richards (1923) propose a semiotic triangle. The link between the signifier and the signified is arbitrary. It is not direct; it is negotiated by reference.



Ogden and Richards (1923: 99) cf. Crystal 1987: 101

7.2.6 Field Theory of Meaning

This theory focuses on the meaning of words and the organisation of vocabulary. It claims that there is a mutual relation among word. Words belong to semantic/lexical relation field. This is linked with the concept of register.

Examples

Cooking: roast, fry, boil, heat, perboil.

Government: local, state, federal, execution, legislature

7.2.7 Componential Theory

This theory focuses on the semantic properties of words. It helps in knowing the words that collocate, + stands for the feature which a word possesses, while – stands for the feature it does not possess. The basic assumption is that there are some basic meaning components that make up the meanings of more complex terms Malmkjaer K. (2002: 462)

Examples

MAN

+ MALE
+ ADULT
- YOUNG
+ ANIMATE
+ HUMAN

COW

+ MALE
+ ADULT
- YOUNG
+ RUMINANT
- HUMAN
+ ANIMATE

CHILD

+ MALE
+ FEMALE
- ADULT
+ YOUNG
+ ANIMATE
+ HUMAN

PIG

+ MALE
+ FEMALE
+ ADULT
- YOUNG
- RUMINANT
- HUMAN
+ ANIMATE

7.2.8 Truth Condition Theory

The truth condition theory claims that to account for the meaning of a sentence is to specify the condition under which such a sentence will be true or false of the situation or state of the particular world which it claims to describe. Therefore, one knows the condition under which it will be true/false. A major criticism of this approach is the difficulty of identifying ‘concepts’. Besides, some words do not have neat visual images. There could also be different images (Crystal 1987: 101).

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt that there are different types of meaning, depending on the perspectives we adopt. . However, there could be some overlap. The context in which an expression is used will help you to determine the label you give to an expression. You also learnt the different theories that have emerged in the study of meaning.

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Study Session 8

Sense Relations

Introduction

In this Study Session, we will discuss concepts like synonymy, hyponymy, and polysemy among others. This will help you to better understand the relationship that exists among words.



Learning Outcomes

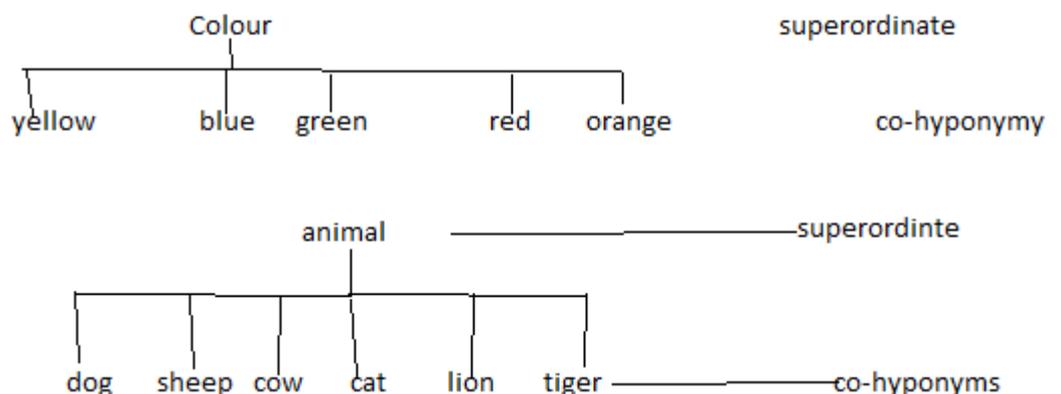
When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 15.1 itemise some sense relations
- 15.2 exemplify these sense relations

8.1 Hyponymy

Hyponymy The relationship between a specific word and a general word when the specific word is included within the general word

Hyponymy It is the meaning relation of inclusion. A more specific term is included in a more general term. It involves a kind of implication, for example if X is a gown; it implies that it is a dress. But the converse does not hold. The subsumed items are called subordinates or co-hyponyms.



If ambiguity pertains to both the spoken and the written form of a term, it is called **homonymy**, for example bank. If it pertains to the spoken form only, it is **homophony**, for example read and red. If it is only in terms of writing, it is called **homography**, for example lead.

8.2 Synonymy

This is meaning relation of similarity of meaning. However, no two words are exact synonyms. So, care must be taken when using synonyms.

Examples:

Easy: simple

Negotiate: bargain



Tip

Words are synonymous if there are similarities in their meanings.

8.3 Antonym

An **antonym** is a word that has a meaning opposite that of another word. This is relation of oppositeness of meaning.

Gradable antonyms: These are antonyms that could be expressed in degrees

Big Small

Good Bad

Neat Dirty

Very Big

Quite Neat

So Dirty

Too Bad

8.3.1 Non-Gradable Antonyms

These are also called complementary terms. These do not permit degrees of contrast:

Single Married

Male Female

Inferior Superior

8.3.2 Converse Terms

These involve two-way contrasts which are interdependent

Buy Sell

Brother Sister

8.3.3 Incompatibility

This involves sets of lexemes which are mutually exclusive of members of the same superordinate category.

Monday and Tuesday

Saxophone and Trumpet

Mango and cashew

8.4 Ambiguity

This is a situation in which one expression has different or many senses/interpretations. There are three or many major types.

8.4.1 Lexical Ambiguity

This results from ambiguity of a single word. The ambiguity may arise from polysemy or homonymy. Polysemy may be a product of semantic shift, for example horn, used to refer to that part of animal found on the head, and musical instrument. It could also be a product of specialisation of meaning in a social environment; paper meaning newspaper, scholarly writing, travel document. Homogomy refers to a situation in which a word spelt or pronounced like another word but has different meaning.

Examples

rice food item

rise to stand up

can container

can be able

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed some sense relations that exist among words. Some of them are synonym, antonym, and hyponymy and so on. Unless for stylistic purposes, avoid ambiguity.

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