

STUDY MATERIAL

SEMESTER V

Dear Students

The study material given below is in no way comprehensive or a substitute for the academic transactions that take place in the classroom. The issues discussed in the material are just signposts for you to chart out your academic goals by using other resources available in the college library. You can visit the department on any working day to seek the clarification of any doubts which may arise in your minds while perusing the material. The syllabus is also provided in Annexure A given at the end of this material.

LINGUISTICS

Unit I

- ❖ **LINGUISTICS**: The word ‘linguistics’ has been derived from Latin word ‘Lingua’ (tongue) and ‘istics’ (knowledge or science). Etymologically, therefore, Linguistics is scientific study of language. But it is not of one particular language but of human language in general. It studies language as a universal and recognizable part of human behaviour. It attempts to describe and analyse the language specifically language form, language meaning, and language in context.
- ❖ **Some of the definitions of linguistics are as under:**
 1. “Linguistics observes language in action as a means for determining how language has developed, how it functions today, and how it is currently evolving.” (G. Duffy)
 2. “Linguistics is concerned with the nature of human language, how it is learned and what part it plays in the life of the individual and the community.” (S. Pit Corder)

3. “Linguistics tries to answer two basic questions:

- a. What is language?
- b. How does language work.” (Jean Aitchison)

3. “The scientific study of human language is called linguistics” (Victoria A. Fromkin)

❖ **SCOPE OF LINGUISTICS:** Linguistics is the scientific study of languages and has a vast scope in understanding the development of humans in the domains of vocalization of communication, history, sociology, anthropology, psychology and other allied fields of study as subjects including the cognitive neural sciences. Microlinguistics includes phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Macrolinguistics includes sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, stylistics, discourse analysis, computational linguistics, cognitive linguistics, applied linguistics Historical linguistics studies how languages change over time with regard to pronunciation, syntax, and vocabulary. Applied linguistics is concerned with the pronunciation, syntax, and vocabulary. Applied linguistics is concerned with the teaching and learning of languages. A full understanding of various components of language and their relations with the rest of the world outside language, thus, would constitute the right scope of the linguistics.

❖ **BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS:** David Crystal has explained various types of linguistics, each type named after the branch of knowledge with which it is connected or on whose method and concepts it bases its conclusion.

- Anthropological Linguistics
- Applied Linguistics
- Biological Linguistics
- Clinical Linguistics.
- Computational Linguistics.
- Psycholinguistics.
- Educational Linguistics.
- Ethno linguistics.
- Geographical Linguistics.
- Mathematical Linguistics.
- Neurolinguistics.
- Philosophical Linguistics.
- Sociolinguistics.
- Statistical Linguistics.
- Theolinguistics.

❖ **ORIGIN OF HUMAN LANGUAGE:** No one knows exactly how language originated. And because of this, there is no dearth of speculations about the origins of human speech. Let us briefly consider some of these:

❖ **The Natural Sound Source Theory:** Another view of the origin of human speech is based on the concept of the natural sounds. The theory suggests that first words were imitations of the natural sounds which early men and women heard around them e.g: cuckoo, bang, hiss.

In 1861, historical linguist Max Muller published a list of speculative theories concerning the origins of spoken language:

- **Bow-wow.** The *bow-wow* or *cuckoo* theory, which Muller attributed to the German philosopher Johann Gottfried Herder, saw early words as imitations of the cries of beasts and birds.

- **Ding-dong.** Muller suggested what he called the *Ding-Dong* theory, which states that all things have a vibrating natural resonance, echoed somehow by man in his earliest words.
- **Yo-he-ho.** The *yo-he-ho* theory claims language emerged from collective rhythmic labor, the attempt to synchronize muscular effort resulting in sounds such as *heave* alternating with sounds such as *ho*.
- **Ta-ta.** This did not feature in Max Muller's list, having been proposed in 1930 by Sir Richard Paget. According to the *ta-ta* theory, humans made the earliest words by tongue movements that mimicked manual gestures, rendering them audible.
- **Pooh-pooh.** "Charles Darwin, 1871 in his, *The Descent of Man*, The *Pooh-Pooh* theory saw the first words as emotional interjections and exclamations triggered by pain, pleasure, surprise, etc.
- **The Divine Source Theory:** According to one view, God created Adam and “whatsoever Adam called every living creature that was the name thereof”. According to Hindu Tradition, language came from goddess Saraswati. Generally, every society has a divine story to tell about the origins of its language.

Most scholars today consider all such theories not so much wrong—they occasionally offer peripheral insights—as comically naïve and irrelevant. The problem with these theories is that they are so narrowly mechanistic. They assume that once our ancestors had stumbled upon the appropriate ingenious *mechanism* for linking sounds with meanings, language automatically evolved and changed.

❖ **PROPERTIES/FEATURES OF HUMAN LANGUAGE:**

There are six unique features of human language and are following:

- a) **DISPLACEMENT:** The property of displacement allows the users of language to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment. It is this property that allows human beings, unlike any other creature, to create fiction and to describe possible future worlds.

- b) ARBITRARINESS: There is an arbitrary relationship between the linguistic signs and the objects they are used to indicate. Thus, these linguistic symbols do not in any way "fit" the objects they denote.
- c) PRODUCTIVITY (Creativity or Open-endedness): This is a feature of all languages that novel utterances are continually being created. It is an aspect of language which is linked to the fact that the potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite.
- d) DISCRETENESS : The sounds used in language are meaningfully distinct, i.e., each sound in the language is treated as discrete. Human beings have a very discrete view of the sounds of language and wherever a pronunciation falls within the physically possible range of sounds, it will be interpreted as linguistically specific and meaningfully distinct sound.
- e) DUALITY (Double Articulation): Language is organized at two levels or layers simultaneously. At one level, there are distinct sounds and at another level, there is distinct meaning. For example, we can produce individual sounds like *p*, *n*, and *i*. Individually, these discrete forms do not have any intrinsic meaning. However, if we combine them into *pin* then we have produced a combination of sounds which have a different meaning than the meaning of the combination *nip*.
- f) CULTURAL TRANSMISSION: Language is acquired in a culture with other speakers and not from parental genes. This property of human is cultural transmission wherein a language is passed on from one generation to the next within a cultural setting. Human beings are not born speaking a specific language even though it has been argued that they are born with an innate predisposition to acquire language.

UNIT II

- ❖ SOCIOLINGUISTICS: The term, 'Sociolinguistics' appears to have been used initially by T.C.Hudson in 1939. Later it was used independently in 1952 by

Haver Curie. Sociolinguistics studies focus on language in society for examining the relationship between language use and the social world. It is an empirical discipline which views language as the systematic use of language by the language users in a society as opposed to Chomsky's innate 'language'.

❖ **COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE:** in 1968, Dell Hymes proposed the concept of Communicative Competence. It is the ability to produce and understand the sentences which are appropriate to the contexts in which they occur.

❖ **SPEECH COMMUNITY:** According to Leonard Bloomfield it is the group of people who use the same set of speech signals.

According to Gumperz (1968) "any human aggregate characterised by regular and frequent interaction by means of shared body of verbal signs". He emphasised on interface communication, the existence of shared norms and regular contact.

❖ **LANGUAGE VARIATION:** Variation is a characteristic of language there is more than one way of saying the same thing. Speakers may vary pronunciation (accent), word choice (lexicon), or morphology and syntax (sometimes called "grammar"). Language variation is a core concept in sociolinguistics.

❖ **Lexical variation:** “ HAPPEN SHE WERE WEARING A MASK ” The use of happen here meaning 'perhaps' or 'maybe' is an example of lexical variation — differences in vocabulary. It probably locates the speaker somewhere in an area centred on the Pennines: Yorkshire or Lancashire or adjacent areas of the East Midlands. The popular image of dialect speech tends to focus almost exclusively on dialect vocabulary and although there was at one time greater regional variation in vocabulary across the UK, there remains a great deal of lexical diversity.

❖ **Phonological variation:** “ HAPPEN SHE WERE WEARING A MASK ” The pronunciation of the word *mask* here could be very revealing. A well-known difference in British accents is the distinction between speakers in the north and

south. Those in the north generally pronounce words such as *bath*, *grass* and *dance* with a short vowel — rather like the vowel in the word *cat*. Those in the south use a long vowel, rather like the sound you make when the doctor examines your throat. So you can immediately deduce something about a person who pronounces *baths* to rhyme with *maths* or *pass* to rhyme with *mass*.

- **Grammatical/Syntactical variation:** “ HAPPEN SHE WERE WEARING A MASK ”, Grammar is the structure of a language or dialect. It describes the way individual words change their form, such as when *play* becomes *played*, to indicate an event in past time. It also refers to the way words are combined to form phrases or sentences. The construction *she were wearing a mask* might sound unusual to some ears, but in some dialects in northern England and the Midlands, many speakers indicate the past tense of ‘to be’ by saying *I were*, *you were*, *he, she* and *it were*, *we were* and *they were*. This means the verb is unmarked for person, while speakers of Standard English differentiate by using *I was* and *he, she* and *it was*. Some dialects, perhaps particularly those in the South East of England, favour a similarly unmarked version using the singular form of the verb *I was*, *you was*, *he, she* and *it was*, *we was* and *they was*.

❖ **IDIOLECT** : An idiolect is defined as "the language use typical of an individual person". An individual's idiolect may be affected by contact with various regional or social dialects, professional registers, and in the case of multilingual, various languages.

❖ **ISOGLOSS**: The lines marking the boundaries between the two regions which differ with respect to some linguistic feature, e.g.: a lexical item or the pronunciation of a particular word.

❖ **REGISTER**: Registers are stylistic functional varieties of language or a dialect. According to R.M.W. Dixon, Registers are those “varieties of language which

correspond to different situation, different speakers and listeners, or readers and writers and so on.”

❖ **JARGON:** Words and expressions used in a particular profession or by a particular group of people, which are difficult for other people to understand – often used to show disapproval. It refers to language used by personnel in a particular field, or language used to represent specific terms within a field to those with a particular interest.

❖ **SLANG:** Slang consists of a lexicon of non-standard words and phrases in a given language. Use of these words and phrases is typically associated with the subversion of a standard variety (such as Standard English) and is likely to be interpreted by listeners as implying particular attitudes on the part of the speaker. In some contexts, a speaker's selection of slang words or phrases may convey prestige, indicating group membership or distinguishing group members from those who are not a part of the group.

„Bethany K. Dumas and Jonathan Lighter argue that an expression should be considered "true slang" if it meets at least two of the following criteria:

- It lowers, if temporarily, "the dignity of formal or serious speech or writing"; in other words, it is likely to be considered in those contexts a "glaring misuse of register".
- Its use implies that the user is familiar with whatever is referred to, or with a group of people who *are* familiar with it and use the term.
- "It's a taboo term in ordinary discourse with people of a higher social status or greater responsibility."
- It replaces "a well-known conventional synonym". This is done primarily to avoid discomfort caused by the conventional synonym or discomfort or annoyance caused by having to elaborate further.

❖ **PIDGIN:** It is a contact language developed by speakers of mutually unintelligible language who are brought together by economic or social reasons.

Pidgins are the new variety created out of the two or more existing ones by restriction and simplification. It is also called as Trade Language as the driving force to communicate with other community is often trade. However, Pidgins do not have any native speakers like other language.

❖ **CREOLE:** Creole is a Pidgin that has acquired native speakers. That is, Creole is the language spoken by children of pidgin speakers. It is a second generation pidgin. Creoles are just ordinary language except in their origin. They arise through the process of creolisation and they are prone to lose their identity by decreolisation. creole language consists of a spectrum of varieties based upon social, Political and economic factors:

- Basilect
- Acrolect
- Mesolect

❖ **BILINGUALISM:** It refers to the ability to use two languages at the functional or fluent level.

Bilingualism refers to “a native – like control of two languages” (Leonard Bloomfield).

Bilingualism is “the practice of using two languages simultaneously” (Uriel Weinreich).

❖ **MULTILINGUALISM:** Multilingualism is the use of two or more languages, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers. Multilingual speakers outnumber monolingual speakers in the world's population. Multilingualism is becoming a social phenomenon governed by the needs of globalization and cultural openness. Owing to the ease of access to information facilitated by the Internet, individuals' exposure to multiple languages is becoming increasingly frequent, thereby promoting a need to acquire additional languages. People who speak several languages are also called polyglots.

❖ **CODE MIXING:** Code mixing is the change of one language to another

Within the same utterance. This refers to the linguistic behaviour of bilingual speaker who imports words or phrases from language B to language A.

❖ **CODE SWITCHING:** It refers to linguistic behaviour of a bilingual speaker who subconsciously shifts from speaking one variety to another variety, usually in response to factors associated with the social situation. Three types of Code Switching are identified:

- a) Situational Code Switching
- b) Conventional Code Switching
- c) Metaphorical Code switching.

❖ **LANGUAGE CHANGE:** Language change is variation over time in a language's phonetic, morphological, semantic, syntactic, and other features. It is studied by historical linguistics and evolutionary linguistics.

▪ **CAUSES FOR LANGUAGE CHANGE :**

- **The principle of least effort:** tends to result in phonetic reduction of speech forms. See vowel reduction, cluster reduction, lenition, and elision. After some time a change may become widely accepted (it becomes a regular sound change) and may end up treated as a standard. For instance: *going to* ['gou.ɪŋ.tu] → *gonna* ['gɒnə] or ['gʌnə], with examples of both vowel reduction [ʊ] → [ə] and elision [nt] → [n], [ou.ɪ] → [ʌ].

□ **Analogy:** reducing word forms by likening different forms of the word to the root.

□ **Language contact:** borrowing of words and constructions from other languages.

□ **Geographic separation:** when people move away from each other, their language will diverge, at least for the vocabulary, due to different experiences

□ **Cultural environment:** Groups of speakers will reflect new places, situations, and objects in their language, whether they encounter different people there or not.

□ Migration/Movement: Speakers will change and create languages, such as pidgins and creoles.

□ Imperfect learning: According to one view, children regularly learn the adult forms imperfectly, and the changed forms then turn into a new standard. Alternatively, imperfect learning occurs regularly in one part of society, such as an immigrant group, where the minority language forms a substratum, and the changed forms can ultimately influence majority usage.

□ Social prestige: Language may not only change towards a prestigious accent, but also away from one with negative prestige, as in the case of rhoticity of Received Pronunciation such movements can go back and forward.

- TYPES OF LANGUAGE CHANGE: Language change may be very broadly divide into two categories EXTERNAL and INTERNAL change. Borrowings in all its forms are instances of external change. Changes that do not come about through borrowing may be called instances of internal change. Some forms of internal changes are ADDITION and LOSS OF SOUNDS AND LEXICAL ITEMS, COINAGES AND EXTENTIONS. In order have a judicious and comprehensive account of language change, it would be better to deal with it level-wise. In that case, language change may be studied under the following heads:

- a) Sound change
- b) Lexical and Grammatical change
- c) Semantic Change

UNIT III

Some Important Distinctions

1.Prescriptive & Descriptive Study

Prescriptive linguistic study aims to lay down rules for “correct and standard” behavior in using language. (earlier studies of language “grammar”) e.g. It has been a long time since we saw each other last time.--- correct and

standard

Descriptive linguistic study aims to describe and analyze the language people actually use. e.g.

- ① Long time no see. --- people actually use
- ② Haven't seen you for ages. --- people actually use
- ③ It has been a long time since I saw you last time. --- people actually use

2. Diachronic & Synchronic study

A **synchronic study** is the description of a language at some point of time in history. A dictionary is compiled to record the language changes within certain time, say, in ten or fifteen or twenty years. This is a synchronic study of language

. Diachronic & Synchronic study

A **diachronic study** is the description of a language as it changes through time.

Compare the language changes at the present with those in different times in history. This is a diachronic study of language.

A **synchronic study** seems to enjoy priority over a diachronic one, and most linguistic studies are of this type.

4. Langue & Parole

The distinction is drawn by, the father of modern linguistics, the Swiss linguist F. de Saussure in the early 20th century.

- **Langue** refers to the abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community. Langue is abstract. e.g.

It has been a long time since I saw you last time--- all the members know the rule.

- **Parole** refers to the realization of langue in the actual use. Parole is concrete. e.g.

Competence & Performance

- This distinction is drawn by the American linguist N. Chomsky in the late 1950's.
- **Competence** is the ideal user's knowledge of the rules of his language.
- **Performance** is the actual realization of his knowledge in linguistic communication.

WORD FORMATION PROCESS

- **Major Word Formation Processes**

AFFIXATION

- Process of forming words by adding affixes to morphemes
- English uses only prefixes and suffixes
 - SING+ER=SINGER
 - UN+REAL=UNREAL

COMPOUNDING

- Process that forms new words from two or more independent words
- Examples of words formed by the compounding process:

■ GIRL+FRIEND=GIRLFRIEND

■ TEXT+BOOK=TEXTBOOK

REDUPLICATION

■ Process of forming new words either by doubling an entire word (total reduplication) or part of a word (partial reduplication)

■ English makes use of reduplication very sporadically

■ Total reduplication is extremely rare!

■ HUMPTY-DUMPTY

■ HOCUS-POCUS

SUPPLETION

■ A relationship between forms of a word wherein one form cannot be phonologically or morphologically derived from the other (this process is rare).

■ AM VS WAS

■ GO VS WENT

MINOR WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

Acronym

■ Words that are formed from the initials of several words.

■ RAM= Random Access Memory

■ CD= Compact Disc

BLENDING

- Process of creating a new word by combining the parts of two different words, usually the beginning of one word and the end of another.

- Moror + Hotel =Motel

- Camera+ Recorder= Camcorder

CLIPPING

- Process of creating new words by shortening parts of a longer word
 - Doctor= Doc
 - Dormitory = Dorm

UNIT IV

❖ **EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE:** The English language as it is spoken today has risen from the dialects spoken, by the Germanic tribes who invaded England. The evolution of English in the 1500 years of its existence has been an unbroken one. Within the development however it is possible to recognise three main periods – from 450 to 1150 is the Old English Period, from 1150-1500 The Middle English period, the language since 1500-1700 is called Early Modern English. The language after 1700 is called Modern English

DIALECTS OF OLD ENGLISH: Old English was not entirely uniform language. Not only where the earliest written texts different but the language differed somewhat from one locality to another. In all, we identify four dialects in Old English: NORTHUMBRIAN, MERCIAN, WEST SAXON and KENTISH. Of these Northumbrian and Mercian were spoken in the region

spoken north of the Thames and inhabited by the Angles. They possess certain features in common and are sometimes collectively known as Anglian. Little is known of Kentish which was the dialect of the Jutes in the South East. The only dialect in which there is an extensive collection of texts is West Saxon which was the dialect of the Jutes in the South West. Nearly all of Old English Literature still preserved today is in this dialect. With the ascendancy of the West Saxon Kingdom, the West Saxon dialect attained something of the position of a literary standard. The Norman Conquest however cut short this moment and when in the late Middle English period a Standard English one again began to develop. It was on the basis of new dialect, East Midland, which in turn was a descendent of Old Mercian.

THE DIALECTS OF MIDDLE ENGLISH: Middle English was a period of momentous changes. One striking characteristic of Middle English was its great variety, not only in the spoken forms of the language but also in written literature. In the absence of the standard medium, the writers naturally wrote in the dialects of that part of the country to which they belong. The language differed from county to county and sometimes between different parts of the same county. The features of a given dialect didn't cover the whole territory, some extended into adjoining districts or may be were characteristics of another dialect as well. Consequently it is rather difficult to mark dialectal divisions or dialectal boundaries. It is however customary to distinguish four principle dialects of Middle English: NORTHERN, EAST MIDLAND, WEST MIDLAND and SOUTHERN. Generally speaking the Northern dialect extends as far South as the Humber; East and West Midland together covered the area between the Humber and the Thames; and Southern occupied the districts South of the Thames including the West Saxon and Kentish districts of Old English. The peculiarities that distinguish these dialects were partly matters of pronunciation, partly of vocabulary and partly of inflection. Dialectal differences were more between the

Northern and Southern division; the Midland dialects often occupied an intermediate position tending towards one or the other in those districts line nearer to the adjacent dialects.

THE RISE OF STANDARD ENGLISH: out of this variety of local dialects there emerged toward the end of the fourteenth century a written language that in the course 15th century won general recognition and has since become the recognised standard in both speech and writing. It was the East Midland type of speech particularly the dialect of the metropolis London that became the basis for the formation of this standard. Several causes contribute to this result. In the first place the Midland dialect of English occupied a middle position between the extreme divergence of the North and the South. Secondly, the East Midland district was the largest and the most populous of the major dialectal areas. The third factor was the presence of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge in this region. But far the most influential factor in the rise of Standard English was the importance of London as the Capital of England. It was the social, commercial, Political, Intellectual and religious centre of England and witnessed a study exchange of Ideas and idioms. By the 15th Century London, London Speech was accepted as standards in writing though considerable diversity still existed in the spoken dialects.

MODERN ENGLISH: The survey of English Language in Modern Era gets complicated not only because of the addition of an International Angle, but also because of the radical Changes in Vocabulary, meaning, Pronunciation and Grammar under pressure from different factors. Chief among these is the tremendous growth of science which has added a new range of words to the English Vocabulary. The influences of films, broadcasting, automobile, computers, the two World Wars have been an intensive as it has been extensive. However, it is to wide spread penetration of the language of the various parts of the former British Empire as well as in United States that attracts the most attention. Differences of culture, locale and utility have produced different

varieties of English in different parts of the world, which are distinct from the language of England. In many areas English has become a second language, used alongside one or more local language for public purposes, communication, entertainment, etc. In India, e.g.; English is a one of the official languages along with Hindi and 18 recognised national languages. A distinction is usually made between English as a second language and English as a foreign language. A German or a Norwegian learning English learns it as a foreign language uses it for communication with h foreigners and rarely with their own countrymen. An Indian however learns English as a second language and uses it to communicate with other Indians. The distinction between the second and the foreign language is not sharp and the distinction gets fuzzy in most cases.

Varieties of English

(SEE PDF file titled A GUIDE TO THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH)

ANNEXURE “A”(SYLLABUS)

(DSE-II) Semester V

Linguistics

(Credits:Theory-04, Practicals-02)

Objectives:

- To familiarize the students with the origin and development of language with special reference to English
- To introduce the students to various levels of linguistic analysis Phonology, morphology, Syntax and Semantics

- To provide a brief historical survey of the development of Modern Linguistics
- To sensitize the students to the application of Linguistics in different areas

Unit I

- Linguistics: Scope; Branches;
- Origin of human language.
- Properties of human language

Unit II

- Socio-linguistics: Communicative competence; Speech Community; language variation (lexical, phonological and syntactic); idiolect, dialect and its types; Isogloss; register; jargon; slang; pidgin; Creole;
- bilingualism; multilingualism code-mixing; code switching. Language change.

UNIT III

- Key concepts :-Langue & Parole; Competence vs Performance; Sign vs symbol; Diachronic vs synchronic Approaches; Syntagmatic vs Paradigmatic relationships
- Levels of linguistic analysis • Phonetics- Phonology-- Phonemes and allophones • Morphology –morphemes and allomorphs • Word formation-inflection and derivation—word-building processes

Unit IV

- History and development of English language.
- Varieties of English: British (R.P); American(NAM) and Indian

Practicals:

- Intensive training in the identification of use of different dialects in literary works
- Identification of slang words from popular magazines
- Exercises in word formation
- Morphological analysis of English words.
- Identification of Lexical differences between different varieties of English

Project/Field Study:

Students shall study the phonological, lexical and syntactic differences that exist in the rural and urban varieties of English in Kashmir. The institute shall arrange the visit of the students to different rural areas for the collection of required data.

Suggested Readings:

1. Syal, Pushpinder, and DV. Jindal. An Introduction To Linguistics: Language, Grammar and Semantics. (Eastern Economy Edition) New Delhi: PHI, 2007.
2. Lyon, John. Language and Linguistics- An Introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999.
3. Yule, George. The Study of Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.
4. Crystal, David, Linguistics. Harmondsworth : Penguin, 1998.
5. Verma, SK, and N Krishna Swamy. Modern Linguistics: An Introduction. New Delhi: OUP, 1998.
6. Hall, Christopher. J. An Introduction to Language and Linguistics. Viva Continuum Edition, 2008.
7. Gimson, A.C, and Edward Arnold. An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.