Chapter-1

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1.1 The Background:

Language acquisition is one of the indications of development that human-spices have journeyed through since ages. Generally, linguistics study encompasses topics analyzing structures and sounds but such a motive may lead to the measurement of the development graph of a particular race or nation. On the other hand a comparative study of two phonological systems: English and Gujarati - means to find out striking similarities and distinctions contained in both the systems. Again, such a study would be, topically most appropriate as English and Gujarati belong to a common language family of the world i. e. the Indo-European language family.

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, English language is itself taking new forms. This, of course, has always been true; English has changed substantially in the five hundred years or so of its use, reflecting patterns of contact with other languages and the changing communication needs of people. Again, in many parts of the world, as English has been taken in the fabric of the social life, it has acquired a momentum and vitality of its own, developing in ways which reflect local culture and languages.

English is also used for more purposes than ever before. Everywhere it is at the leading edge of technological and scientific development, new thinking in economics and management, new literatures and entertainment genres. Nowhere is the effect of this expansion of English into new domains
seen more clearly than in communication. These give rise to new vocabularies, grammatical forms and ways of speaking and writing. Alan Cruttenden writes that a written form of English, based in the Latin alphabet, has existed for more than 1000 years and, though the pronunciation of English has been constantly changing during these times, few basic changes of spelling have been made since the fifteenth century. The result is that written English is often inadequate and misleading.¹

Presently, the language is at the moment in its global career. The number of people who speak English as a second language will exceed the number of native speakers. The implications of this are likely to be far reaching; the centre of authority regarding the language will shift from native speakers as they become minority stakeholders in global resources. Their literature and television may no longer provide the focal point of a global English language culture.

In this scenario, linguistics studies are getting more and more significant these days. Particularly the study of various aspects of communication is more prominent in linguistic studies. The craze for learning English for communicative purposes is also increasing. In addition, the degree of willingness on the part of learners to be effective and impressive in oral communication is very high.

Second language learning is always affected by the first language of the learners; particularly it is more affected in oral communication because the learner even when s/he communicates in the second language, s/he speaks through the phonology of the first language. Naturally the comparative study
of phonology of the first language, here Gujarati phonology, with English (British R. P.) phonology will provide a lot of insight for the fundamental aspect of oral communication.

1.2 Common Features of the Languages of the World:

B. A. Serebrennikov writes that it has been estimated that at present there are approximately 3500 different languages in the world. The phonetic make-up, grammatical structure and lexicon of these languages are extremely diverse. Nevertheless, certain common features can be discerned in all this immense diversity underlying the endless and fascinating idiosyncrasies of the world’s Languages.²

Sound types would appear to differ markedly from people to people, but they too can be represented as a combination of a small number of distinguishing features, which can be identified in all the world’s languages and, consequently, may be taken as universals. According to B. A. Serebrennikov the full complement of these features comprises certain dual oppositions: 1, Vowel-non-vowel 2, consonant - non-consonant 3, interrupted - non-interrupted 4, gluttonized - non-gluttonized 5, strident - non-strident 6, voiced- unvoiced 7, compact – diffuse, and so forth.³

Language studies in India since vedic times have a very sound tradition. Bhagwan Panini, the father of Indian linguistics, writes in the Astadhyayi about the fourteen sutas (equations) which are [produced out of vedic deity Rudra’s Damaru (musical instrument)] the basic sounds of all the languages.⁴
The Astadhyayi of Panini is the culmination of all the previous studies, most of which are now lost. S. K. Belvekar speaks of “nearly a dozen different schools of Sanskrit grammar, at least 300 known from quotations and more than a thousand separate treatise, original as well as explanatory” W. S. Allen also supports the statement by saying “Besides such a concourse, the thousand manuscripts of Priscian’s Latin grammar, the pride of our western tradition are but a drop in the grammatical system”

The Indian linguistic systems influence many other linguistic systems of the world. Buddhist monks carried the Indian linguistic scholarship to China. Even the eighth century Persian grammar by Sibawaih entitled as Al Kitab is said to be influenced by the Paninian system of classifying the speech sounds.

Heinrich Roth - a German missionary, who was the first European to compose a Sanskrit grammar, but owing to his untimely death in 1668 at Agra, his work could not be published. The first European grammar of Sanskrit by Panlinus a Sancto Barholomaeo was written in Latin and
published at Rome in 1970. In the field of Sanskrit learning, Germany remained a mediator between India and rest of Europe and America. Like the fruits of Renaissance and Humanism, the Sanskrit learning spread out westward to stimulate interest in linguistic investigations.

Similarly, around the same time comparative studies in linguistics were also taking place. A French missionary, Courdourc, made a comparative study of Sanskrit verbal forms with those in Greek, Latin and other related European languages. But his work could be published only after Sir William Jones’ *Phonetics in Ancient India*. The most important year serving as a landmark for the Indo – European family is 1786, when Sir William, addressed the Royal Asiatic Society thus:

“The Sanskrit language, whatever may be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure, more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar than could have been produced by accident; so strong that no philologer could examine the Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which perhaps, no longer exists. There is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic had the same origin with Sanskrit.”

As in the classification of language family, Indo – European is the leading one. Amarnath Jha quotes J. R. Firth acknowledging the impact of Sir William Jones’ contribution: “Without the Indian grammarians and
phoneticians whom he introduced and recommended to us, it is difficult to imagine our nineteenth – century school of phonetics.”

Many of the nineteenth – century philologists were well-versed in Sanskrit. Max Muller has very correctly stated that a comparative philologist without knowledge of Sanskrit is like an astronomer without knowledge of mathematics. Max Muller himself wrote Lectures on the Science of Language (1873), besides his other foremost works on Indological studies.

The historically oriented comparison in the 19th century led to the classification of language – both genealogical and typological. Adolf Von Schlegel initiated the typological classification in 1818. Inflexional languages were supposed to be superior to the analytical languages. The interest in genealogical classification also grew side by side. Robins rightly observes as these studies were partly as a result of the stimulus derived from the study of Sanskrit…. by western scholars and the demonstrator at the end of the eighteenth century of the indispensable connection of this language with Latin Greek and German.

Language studies continued in Europe up to the eighteenth century before there was any definite impact of Sanskrit studies on them. W. S. Allen indicates this as follows:

“In phonetics, we all too rarely look back beyond the great names of the nineteenth century – Henry Sweet, A. J. Ellis, Alexander Melville Bell – except occasionally to honor a few lonely and half forgotten figures of the immediately preceding centuries.”
So meager had been the contribution of the ancient and mediaeval European phoneticians that W. S. Allen continues to state:

“Generally speaking the expressions of ancient phonetic thought in the west have little to repay our attention or deserve our respect, whereas Indian sources as ancient or ever more ancient are infinitely more rewarding.” 12

Among the twentieth century linguists Ferdinand de Saussure, Leonard Bloomfield, J. R. Firth, Roman Jacobson and Rulon Wells also refer to some of the ancient Indian linguistic concepts. The affinity between Sanskrit and English languages is a matter of heritage. In fact, the Gujarati language has emerged out of Sanskrit. It would also be quite relevant and interesting to have some brief historical details of English and Gujarati languages and their phonologies.

1.3 History of Phonology:

In ancient India, the Sanskrit grammarian Panini (c. 520–460 BC) in his text of Sanskrit phonology, the ‘Shiva Sutras’, discusses something like the concepts of the phoneme, the morpheme and the root. The ‘Shiva Sutras’ describe a phonemic notational system in the fourteen initial lines of the Astadhyayi. The notational system introduces different clusters of phonemes that serve special roles in the morphology of Sanskrit, and are referred to throughout the text. Panini’s grammar of Sanskrit had a significant influence on Ferdinand de Saussure, the father of modern structuralism, who was a Professor of Sanskrit.
The Polish scholar Jan Baudouin de Courtenay, (together with his former student Mikołaj Kruszewski) coined the word ‘phoneme’ in 1876, and his work, though often unacknowledged, is considered to be the starting point of modern phonology. He worked not only on the theory of the phoneme but also on phonetic alternations (i.e., what is now called allophony and morphophonology). His influence on Ferdinand de Saussure was also significant.

Prince Nikolai Trubetzkoy’s posthumously published work, the Principles of Phonology (1939), is considered the foundation of the Prague School of phonology. Directly influenced by Baudouin de Courtenay, Trubetzkoy is considered the founder of morphophonology, though morphophonology was first recognized by Baudouin de Courtenay. Trubetzkoy split phonology into phonemics and archiphonemics; the former has had more influence than the latter. Another important figure in the Prague School was Roman Jakobson, who was one of the most prominent linguists of the twentieth century.

In 1968 Noam Chomsky and Morris Halle published The Sound Pattern of English, the basis for Generative Phonology. In this view, phonological representations are sequences of segments made up of distinctive features. These features were an expansion of earlier work by Roman Jakobson, Gunnar Fant, and Morris Halle. The features describe aspects of articulation and perception, are from a universally fixed set, and have the binary values + or -. There are at least two levels of representation: underlying representation and surface phonetic representation. Ordered phonological rules govern how
underlying representation is transformed into the actual pronunciation (the so-called surface form). An important consequence of the influence *The Sound Pattern of English* had on phonological theory was the downplaying of the syllable and the emphasis on segments. Furthermore, the Generativists folded morphophonology into phonology, which both solved and created problems.

Natural Phonology was a theory based on the publications of its proponent David Stampe in 1969. In this view, phonology is based on a set of universal phonological processes which interact with one another; the ones that are active and the ones that are suppressed are language-specific. Rather than acting on segments, phonological processes act on distinctive features within prosodic groups. Prosodic groups can be as small as a part of a syllable or as large as an entire utterance. Phonological processes are unordered with respect to each other and apply simultaneously (though the output of one process may be the input to another). The second-most prominent Natural Phonologist is Stampe's wife, Patricia Donegan; there are many Natural Phonologists in Europe, though also a few others in the U.S., such as Geoffrey Pullum. The principles of Natural Phonology were extended to morphology by Wolfgang U. Dressler, who founded Natural Morphology.

In 1976 John Goldsmith introduced autosegmental phonology. Phonological phenomena are no longer seen as operating on one linear sequence of segments, called phonemes or feature combinations, but rather as involving *some parallel sequences* of features which reside on multiple tiers. Autosegmental phonology later evolved into Feature Geometry, which
became the standard theory of representation for the theories of the organization of phonology as different as Lexical Phonology and Optimality Theory.

Government Phonology, which originated in the early 1980s as an attempt to unify theoretical notions of syntactic and phonological structures, is based on the notion that all languages necessarily follow a small set of principles and vary according to their selection of certain binary parameters. That is, all languages’ phonological structures are essentially the same, but there is restricted variation that accounts for differences in surface realizations. Principles are held to be inviolable, though parameters may sometimes come into conflict. Prominent figures include Jonathan Kaye, Jean Lowenstamm, Jean-Roger Vergnaud, Monik Charette, John Harris, and many others.

In a course at the LSA summer institute in 1991, Alan Prince and Paul Smolensky developed Optimality Theory — an overall architecture for phonology according to which languages choose a pronunciation of a word that best satisfies a list of constraints which is ordered by importance: a lower-ranked constraint can be violated when the violation is necessary in order to obey a higher-ranked constraint. The approach was soon extended to morphology by John McCarthy and Alan Prince, and has become the dominant trend in phonology. Though this usually goes unacknowledged, Optimality Theory was strongly influenced by Natural Phonology; both view phonology in terms of constraints on speakers and their production, though these constraints are formalized in very different ways.
Broadly speaking Government Phonology (or its descendant, strict-CV phonology) has a greater following in the United Kingdom, whereas Optimality Theory is predominant in North America.

1.4 Historical Background of Gujarati Phonology:

Gujarati is an official national and regional language of India. It is spoken by approximately 46 million people, making it the twenty-third most widely spoken language in the world today. In India, some 45.5 million people speak the language. Outside India, Gujarati is spoken by a quarter of a million people in Tanzania, 150,000 in Uganda, 100,000 in Pakistan, 50,000 in Kenya, and roughly 12,000 in Zambia. Smaller groups of Gujarati speakers are found in Australia, Bangladesh, Canada, Fiji, Malawi, Mauritius, Oman, Singapore, South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Zimbabwe. Gujarati was the native language of Mohandas K. Gandhi.¹³

Gujarati Language has initially been derived from ‘Apbhransh’ (Corrupt words) noted by Hemchandracharya. In Bhalan’s ‘Nalakhyan’ and Dashmskandh, Gujarati as a language was for the first time referred to as ‘Gurjar Bhasha’. But the reference of Gujarat as a region has been found from very ancient times. In many old literary works like Aaburas (1289) by Palhan, Prabhavakcharika (1334) by Prabhachandsuru, ‘Tribhuvandipakprabandh’ (second half of 15th century) by Jayshekhrsuri, ‘Kanhadeprabandh’ (1512) by Padmanabh and many others have referred to ‘Gujarat’ frequently. The famous Italian traveler Mareo Pollo (1254 – 1324) also noted ‘Gujarat’ in his
In short, it can be said that this region has been known as Gujarat since the time of King Mularajdev Solanki’s rein.

On the basis of Hemchandracharya’s ‘Apbhransh’, the language that has been developed after two to three hundred years, is known as ‘old western Rajasthani’ or known as ‘Old Gujarati Bhasha (language). This period is measured in between 1200 to 1500. According to Dr. Tessitori, old Gujarati and old Marawadi languages were so identical that they can be entitled as ‘old western Rajasthani’.

From ‘Apbhransh’ to the present modern Gujarati language the development has been categorized in different phases by different scholars. Given below is the development chart of Narsinhrav Divetiya.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Entitled</th>
<th>Time</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>Apbhransh</td>
<td>Up to 11th century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Middle Apbhransh</td>
<td>Up to 13th century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Old Western Rajasthani</td>
<td>From 1300 to 1550</td>
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<tr>
<td>Forth</td>
<td>Old Gujarati</td>
<td>1550 to 1650</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>Medieval Gujarati</td>
<td>1650 to 1750</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>Modern Gujarati</td>
<td>1750 onwards</td>
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As Gujarati has been derived from Sanskrit, some similar features can easily be traced out. In fact, this periodic featuristic change in Gujarati has been nicely summarized by Narsinhrav Divetiya. Here, only the phonologically distinguished characteristics of each phase are mentioned briefly:
Main characteristics of ‘Apbhransh’ are: ever presence of / r / in consonant clusters and rarely remains absent. Sometimes / k / is shifted to / g /.

Middle ‘Apbhransh’ is the phase of flaccid position between Hemchandracharya’s ‘Apbhransh’ and the emergence of old Gujarati. Bilhan describes this state of language as censurable.

In the old western Rajasthani phase, it is noticed that the second vowel of a diphthong remains silent and helps the first vowel to get more length. Nasalized sounds become slow and make the former vowel long one.

Diphthongs / әI / and / әu / remain unchanged during this phase. They got changed in the next phase.

During the period of old Gujarati, / әI / and / әu / diphthongs were shifted to monophthongs / e / and / ә /: / ɨ / turned to / u / or / ә / at the initial and middle position of a word while with palatals, vowels / ɨ /, / e /, and / ʝ /, / s / was shifted to / ʃ /.

Mediaeval Gujarati that begins with the gigantic literary personality of Premanand, remains quite near to modern Gujarati except for certain typical characteristics in syntactic area.

Gujarati is one of the important western Indian languages. Gujarati people have been transacting and trading with foreigners for the last 1700 years. Gujarati has the huge process of convergence with other languages, society and culture. No region can have all its indigenous cultural distinctions.
It should have been the result of convergence. Substratum and superstratum of language would be related vividly from region to region. Due to such factors, the last phase of modern Gujarati has its own individual features to its sister languages. Gujarati is a Central Zone Indo-Aryan language of the Indo-European language family. It is most closely related to Punjabi and Hindi.

Gujarati has many dialects i.e. Kathiyawadi, Sorathi, Surti, Charotari etc. but when the Gujarati phonological system is to be studied comparatively with the English phonological system then only standard systems have to be studied. In the present scenario of multilingual culture, it becomes necessary to study the continuous development mechanism of language. Dr. Bharati Modi firmly insists on thinking and working sincerely on the standardization of Gujarati. She criticizes that Gujarati people do not have ‘language Guard’ centers such as in France to protect and cultivate the language. She further says that very few states in India like Bengal, Kerala, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu are conscious and careful about their languages. She believes that very few people in Gujarat use Gujarati with standardization. However, in her opinion Ahemadabad, Mumbai, Rajkot and Bhavanagar are the centers where Gujarati is spoken very close to the standard educated dialect.18

Having discussed the various phases of Gujarati language, now certain important researches in the latest phase of Gujarati phonology can be systematically mentioned.
In 1914, Tessitori wrote an article “Notes on the Grammar of old western Rajasthani with special Reference to Adbhamsa and to Gujarati and Marwadi.” This important comparative study reveals three features of Gujarati phonology: 19

(i) /әI/ and /әu/ are shifted to pure vowels /e/ and /ɔː/.
(ii) In open syllable /I/ and /u/ are articulated as /ә/.
(iii) Elision of /h/ sound occurs between two vowels or after nasalized sound. Normally /h/ is not mentioned in the written script but can be heard.

In Narmad’s ‘Narmkosh’ (1873) the description of such [h] is also accepted. Even Dr. Dhruv mentioned [h] in his work Vagvyapar (1905). He considered [h] as a breath sound which is separated from its former and afterward vowels. 20

R. Turner immensely contributed to this school through his work Gujarati Phonology (1913). He made some very valuable judgments. They are: 21

(i) /f/ is heard as a bilabial fricative.
(ii) Bilabial semi-vowel /w/ is sometimes produced as labiodental fricative /u/.
(iii) Before Palatal consonants /e/ and /ɔː/ get changed to /æ/ and /o/; /æ/ and /o/ are always produced with length.
These are scientific and minute observations that have been given for the first time on Gujarati phonology.

Narsinhraov Divetiya delivered lectures on ‘Gujarati language and literature’ under the series of Wilson Philological lecture in 1915 – 16. The prestigious lecture series was published in a book-form in 1921. The chief features of the book have already been mentioned earlier in this chapter.

After a fissure of some years, Dr. Dave’s qualitative research work entitled as The Language of Gujarati was published in the journal of Gujarat Research society in 1947. His study was on articulatory phonetics.

In the second half of the twentieth century, the most reliable work done in this field is of Dr. Bhayani. In 1954, his work ‘Vagvyapar’ showed some fresh views which may remain controversial to the works of Divetiya. These observations can briefly be summarized as follows: 22

(i) /ə/ is the weakest vowel of Gujarati
(ii) Making phoneme separate is not the reason of short or long vowel in Gujarati.
(iii) After nasal consonants sometimes Gujarati speakers use their own class voiced consonants

Bloomfield’s structural linguistic theory had a strong impact during the period of 1930 – 60. Prabodh Pandit studied Gujarati phonology through this aspect. But very soon Noam Chomsky arrived with the new concept of acoustic study of phonology. He launched generative grammar which proved
revolutionary in the linguistic world. It seems Pandit's work was published during the transition period that created a fear to obsolete certain matter.\(^{23}\)

He contributed two very valuable works entitled as Nasalization, Aspiration and Murmur in Gujarati (1957) and another Gujarati Bhasanu Dhwaniswarup and Dhwani Parivartan. His book Current Issues in Linguistics is also notable. Pandit remained a point of reference for the next generation. Pandit's chief findings can briefly be mentioned as follows: \(^{24}\)

- /f/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}f\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}h\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}\theta\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}t\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}k\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}b\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}d\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}z\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}g\)/- are not phonemes (1957).

  In the next book he accepted all these as phonemes.

- When a vowel is produced with the sound /\(\text{\textasciitilde}h\)/, it becomes murmur vowel; and if a consonant is produced with /\(\text{\textasciitilde}h\)/, it becomes voiced affricate consonant.

  So /\(\text{\textasciitilde}h\)/ has two allophones: one [-] = murmur and second [\(\text{\textasciitilde}h\)][\(\text{\textasciitilde}n\)] = voiced.

- /e/, /æ/, and /\(\text{\textasciitilde}o\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}\alpha\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}l\)/, vowels are middle phonemes.

- /\(\text{\textasciitilde}e\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}a\)/: / are the sounds which can be nasalized and murmur.

- /m/, /n/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}n\)/ and nasal are four nasalized phonemes:

  The nasal has four allophones: /\(\text{\textasciitilde}n\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}n\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}e\)/, /\(\text{\textasciitilde}\alpha\)/.

Dr. Dave's Ph.D. dissertation studies in 'Gujarati Phonology and Phonetics' from Cornell University in 1967 is mostly in the fashion of Dr. Pandit. His Master Jorgensen Eli Fischer presented a very scientific study in 1967 entitled as Phonetic Analysis of Breathy Vowels in Gujarati. He studied for the first time the frequency, the intensity and the duration of Gujarati vowels. Dr. Modi says:
“Though he (Jorgensen) was not a Gujarati speaker, still he noted that all the Gujarati speakers do not produce murmur (Breathy Vowels) similarly.”

Dr. Vyas’s research came to light in 1978. He worked further in the prosodic phonology method of Firth, and treated murmurs as h-prosody. After Pandit’s indication towards murmur, even some more foreign philologists have been attracted in this direction. In 1982 Bickley published a remarkable work, entitled as Acoustic Analysis and Perception of Breathy vowels. From Munikh, a research organization of phonology, three Scientists (Langniser, Loders and Schiefer) presented their work entitled as the Acoustic study of Murmured and Tight Phonation in Gujarati Dialects.

In the last decade of the 20th century, the research works of Bharati Modi, P. J. Mistry and Babu Suthar should be considered as the most authentic and scientific. Modi’s Ph.D. dissertation titled as Some Problems of Gujarati Phonology contributed significantly to Gujarati phonology. Her articles on “Laryngeal Dimensions in Gujarati phonology” (1989), “Voice Quality and Moulding of Phonologies: Substantial Evidence” (1991), “The Phonetics and Phonology of Mid-vowels” (1994) etc. are very important. Her book Standardization of Gujarati (1995) throws much light in the field. Similarly Mistry’s works on Gujarati Phonology can be seen on the website of International Phonetics Association. His articles ‘Gujarati’ and ‘Gujarati Phonology’ have been published in the volumes like International Encyclopedia of Linguistics and An Encyclopedia of the World’s Major Languages, Past and Present. Babu Suthar’s works are also noticeable. His
1.5 Historical Background of English Phonology:

1.5.1 Phonological Studies in Britain:

Although linguistic science has been making rapid and spectacular progress in the 21st century, it is to be noted that speech and language have always been the subject of serious study. Extensive accounts of the pronunciation of Greek and Latin were written two thousand years ago, and in India, at about the same time, there appeared detailed phonological analysis of Sanskrit, which reveal remarkable affinity with the modern ways of thought. W.S. Allen writes in ‘Phonetics in Ancient India: “These early Phoneticians speak in fact to the twentieth century rather than to the middle Ages or even to the mid-nineteenth century…”26

In Britain, too, printed works containing information of a phonetic kind extend back to at least four hundred years, Cruttenden mentions in Gimson’s pronunciation of English:

“It is true that the very earliest writers in England rarely had as their main interest a purely phonetic investigation; and the descriptive accounts which they provided are less rigorous and satisfactory by modern standards than those of the Indian grammarians. But by the seventeenth century, we find a considerable body of published work
which is already entirely phonetic in character and which contains observations and theories still adhered to today.”

Thus, the real work in the field of phonetics in English began in the seventeenth century.

1.5.2 Palsgrave and Salesbury:

The works on the sounds of English and those of another language were very rare in the initial stage. Among some of the first writers whose works were concerned with the subject are John Palsgrave and William Salesbury. John Palsgrave's French grammar ‘Lesclarissement de la langue Françoise’ (1530) includes a section which deals with the pronunciation of French, like any book of modern grammar. In order to explain the values of the French sounds, Palsgrave compares them with English.

Another important writer of the same age concerned with pronunciation is William Salesbury, a Welshman. His book Dictionary in English and Welshe (1547) contains comments on the sounds of English. Sound values are indicated by means of the method of Transliteration in Welsh or English.

1.5.3 Spelling Reformers: Smith, Hart, Gil

Even four hundred years before the activities of Bernard Shaw and the Simplified Spelling Society, men were aware of the need to bring some order in English spelling. During the four centuries that have elapsed since these early efforts, pronunciation has continued to evolve without any radical changes of spelling, with the result that today discrepancies between sound
and spelling are greater than they have ever been. It can, however, be said
that for more than two hundred years our spelling forms, inconsistent though
they may be as far as sound symbolization is concerned, have been
standardized.

Among the early spelling reformers related to the investigation of
sound, three names deserve mention in particular - Thomas Smith, John Hart
and Alexander Gil. Thomas Smith has made many pertinent phonetic
comments on such matters as the aspiration of English plosives and the
syllabic nature of /n/ and /l/ as well as providing correct descriptions of the
articulation of consonants in his De Recta et Emendata Linguæ Anglicæ
scriptione (1568). Just then John Hart’s orthographic was published in 1569.
Hart has reported and proposed a revised spelling system. He also describes
the organs of speech; defines vowels and consonants (distinguishing between
front and back vowels and between voiced and voiceless consonants) and
notes the aspiration of voiceless plosives. Out of the numerous seventeenth-
century orthopedists, only Alexander Gill’s Logonomia Angelica (1619, 1621)
can be compared with Hart on the Phonetic level though his observations lack
the objectivity of Hart’s work.28

1.5.4 The Seventeenth century:

Wallis, Wilkins and Cooper – a group of writers interested in speech
and language are the true precursors of modern scientific phoneticians,
because of their preoccupation with the detailed analysis of speech activity,
the comparative study of the sounds of various languages, the classification of
sound types, and the establishments of systematic relationship between the English sounds.

John Wallis and Bishop Wilkins were among the founder members of the ‘Royal Society’, and, indeed, Isaac Newton, the greatest of the early members of the society, was interested in phonetic analysis and has left notes of his own linguistic observations. Newton considered language as a proper object of attention for the new scientific age. The new seventeenth century phonetic view of speech and pronunciation was thus being set against a framework of the universal nature and characteristics of language.

John Wallis, primarily a mathematician earned fame as a phonetician after the publication of his work *Grammatical Language Anglicanae*; first published in 1653. Wallis intended his book to help foreigners to learn English more easily. He admits in his preface that he is not the first to undertake such a task but claims that he does not seek to fit English into a Latin mould, as most of his predecessors had done, but rather to examine the sounds of English as constituting a system in its own right.

In 1668 Wilkins published *Essay towards a Real Character and a Philosophical Language*. This work of 454 pages with a dictionary appended is of much wider scope than that of Wallis. The work aims at no less than the creation of universal language, expressed by means of ‘marks’, which should signify things, and not words. Acknowledging his debt to his contemporary Wallis, he says that it seems to me, with greatest accurateness and subtlety to have considered the philosophy of articulated sounds. He claims that the
thirty four letters which he proposes for his alphabets are sufficient to express all those articulate sounds which are commonly known and used in these parts of the world.

Christopher Cooper is considered by many to be the greatest English phonetician of the century. His work on English pronunciation Grammatical Linguae Anglicanae was first published in 1685. An English edition of the same work titled The English Teacher, or the Discovery of the Art of Teaching and Learning the English Tongue appeared in 1687. Christopher Cooper's aim was to describe and give rules for the pronunciation of English for gentlemen, ladies, merchants, tradesmen, school and strangers, rather than to devise a logical system into which the sounds of English and other languages might be fitted. The books contain two parts: the first deals with description of speech sounds and the second part gives rules for the relation of spelling and pronunciation in different contexts.

1.5.5 The Eighteenth Century:

The main achievement of the century is to attempt successfully to fix the spelling and pronunciation of the language. Dictionaries had been published in the seventeenth century, but the works having the main stabilizing and standardizing influence on the language were to be the dictionaries of Samuel Johnson (1775), Thomas Sheridan (1780), and John Walker (1791). Sheridan and Walker were particularly focused on the standardization of pronunciation.
John Walker, whose dictionary is called by the Dictionary of National Biography as ‘the statute book of English Orthoepy’, exerted a great influence on the teaching of English not only in Britain but also in America. In addition, he paid considerable attention in his work to the analysis of intonation, treated perfunctorily by earlier writers.

About the same time Joshua Steele published his Prosodia Rationalis (1775-9). He described a system of notation capable of expressing pitch changes, stress and rate of delivery.

1.5.6 The Nineteenth Century:

In the nineteenth century the traditional British preoccupation with phonetic notation and the simplification of English spelling continued. Isaac Pitman (1813 – 97) gave a system of shorthand which is so widely used even today. Alexander J. Ellis (1814 - 90) described the difficulties of spelling particularly focusing on English children and foreigners. They were supported by the phonographic society and published a journal named ‘Fonetic Jurnal.’ In 1867, Alexander Melville Bill, the father of Alexander Graham Bell (the inventor of the telephone) published his book titled as Visible Speech.

Although, in referring to these writers, emphasis has been laid on their contribution to the development of phonetic transcription; their published work covers every aspect of speech activity. Bell’s works focuses mainly on elocution and the descriptions of articulatory processes. But Ellis and Sweet applied the techniques of phonetics analysis both to the description of contemporary pronunciation and also to the whole field of historical
phonological investigation. Ellis’s – chief contribution is his massive work on Early English Pronunciation, published in five volumes between 1869 and 1889. In these volumes Ellis traces the history of English pronunciation and at the same time analyses the descriptive phonetic studies of contemporary dialects.

Henry Sweet, another great philologist applied stringent phonetic techniques to all his work, so that, whether it is a question of phonetic theory or the history of English or the description of a language such as Welsh or Danish, his basic approach and the majority of his conclusions remain valid today. He belongs as much to the twentieth century as to the nineteenth, and his influence is clearly to be seen in the works of Daniel Jones, who dominated British phonetics in the first half of the twentieth century.

1.6 Role of International Phonetics Association (IPA):

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is a system of phonetic notation based on the Latin alphabet, devised by the International Phonetic Association as a standardized representation of the sounds of spoken language. The IPA is used by linguists, speech pathologists and therapists, foreign language teachers and students, singers, actors, lexicographers, and translators.

The IPA is designed to represent only those qualities of speech that are distinctive in spoken language: phonemes, intonation, and the separation of words and syllables. To represent additional qualities of speech such as
tooth-gnashing, lisping, and sounds made with a cleft palate, an extended set of symbols called the Extensions to the IPA is used.

Occasionally symbols are added, removed, or modified by the International Phonetic Association. As of 2008, there are 107 distinct letters, 52 diacritics, and 4 prosody marks in the IPA proper.

In 1886, a group of French and British language teachers, led by the French linguist Paul Passy, formed what would come to be known (from 1897 onwards) as the International Phonetic Association (in French, l’Association phonétique internationale). The original alphabet was based on a spelling reform for English known as the Romic alphabet, but in order to make it usable for other languages, the values of the symbols were allowed to vary from language to language. For example, the sound [ʃ] (sh in shoe) was originally represented with the letter <c> in English, but with the letter <x> in French. However, in 1888, the alphabet was revised so as to be uniform across languages, thus providing the base for all future revisions. Since its creation, the IPA has undergone a number of revisions. After major revisions and expansions in 1900 and 1932, the IPA remained unchanged until the IPA Kiel Convention in 1989. A minor revision took place in 1993, with the addition of four mid-central vowels and the removal of symbols for voiceless implosives. The alphabet was last revised in May 2005, with the addition of a symbol for the labiodental flap. Apart from the addition and removal of symbols, changes to the IPA have consisted largely in renaming symbols and categories, and modifying typefaces.
Extensions of the alphabet are relatively recent; "Extensions to the IPA" was created in 1990 and officially adopted by the International Clinical Phonetics and Linguistics Association in 1994.

1.7 Received Pronunciation:

Received Pronunciation (RP) is a form of pronunciation of the English language (specifically British English) which has long been perceived as uniquely prestigious amongst British accents. About two percent of Britons speak with the RP accent in its pure form.

The reference of the term-RP can also be found in H. C. Wyld's A Short History of English (1914) and in Daniel Jones's An Outline of English Phonetics, although the latter stated that he only used the term "for want of a better" term. According to Fowler's Modern English Usage (1965), the term is "the Received Pronunciation". The word received conveys its original meaning of accepted or approved – as in "received wisdom".

Received Pronunciation may be referred to as the Queen's (or King's) English, on the grounds that it is spoken by the monarch; however, that term is more often used to refer to correctly written Standard British English, as in the Queen's English Society. It is also sometimes referred to as BBC English, because it was traditionally used by the BBC, yet nowadays these notions are slightly misleading. Queen Elizabeth II uses one specific form of English, while BBC presenters and staff are no longer bound by one type of accent. There have also long been certain words that have had more than one RP pronunciation, such as again, either, and moor. It is sometimes also referred
to as Oxford English, because it was the common speech of Oxford University. Secondly the production of dictionaries gave Oxford University prestige in matters of language.

RP is an accent (a form of pronunciation), not a dialect (a form of vocabulary and grammar). It may show a great deal about the social and educational background of a person who uses English. A person using the RP will typically speak Standard English although the reverse is not necessarily true (e.g. the standard language may be spoken by one in a regional accent, such as a Yorkshire accent; but it is very unlikely that one speaking in RP would use it to speak Scots or Geordie).

In recent decades, many people have asserted the value of other regional and class accents. Many members (particularly the younger) of the groups that traditionally used Received Pronunciation have, to varying degrees, begun to use it less. Many regional accents are now heard on the BBC.

RP is often believed to be based on Southern accents, but in fact it has much in common with the dialects of the south-east Midlands: Northamptonshire, Bedfordshire and Huntingdonshire. Migration to London in the 14th and 15th centuries was mostly from the counties directly north of London rather than those directly south. There are differences both within and among the three counties mentioned, but a conglomeration emerged in London, and also mixed with some elements of Essex and Middlesex speech.
By the end of the 15th century, "Standard English" was established in the City of London.

Researchers generally distinguish between three different forms of RP: Conservative, General, and Advanced. Conservative RP refers to a traditional accent associated with older speakers with certain social backgrounds; General RP is often considered neutral regarding age, occupation, or lifestyle of the speaker; and Advanced RP refers to speech of a younger generation of British speakers.

The modern style of RP is the usual accent taught to non-native speakers learning British English. Non-RP Britons abroad may modify their pronunciation to something closer to Received Pronunciation in order to be understood better by people who themselves learned RP in school. They may also modify their vocabulary and grammar to be closer to Standard English, for the same reason. RP is used as the standard for English in most books on general phonology and phonetics and is represented in the pronunciation schemes of most dictionaries.

1.8 Internationalization of English:

The concept of ‘global village and globalization’ cheers up the common man of the new defined world. Even the new world order has to redefine itself taking into cognizance mass consumerism, mass communication, mass tourism etc. in multicultural setting. There is thus, as Pramod Talgeri remarks a need for viewing things in wider perspective:
“This internationalization of culture is reflected today in the English language. No other language dominates world policies, world science, world trade, and world media and world literature like English does today. It is a language spoken across boundaries, across culture and across religions. It is spoken with élan among the cognoscenti as well as used by the lay persons. It is this characteristic of English language that lends it to change and variations. The question is not whether we in India need the English language – it is no longer relevant but to what degree we should acquire and master it.”

English has been over these decades recontextualised in the Indian public culture, which shows a distinct process of attitudinal change and thereby a paradigm shift in the perception of English. Interestingly though, one fails to realize that during the last twenty years the linguistic centre of English has moved away from England. Its hegemony has now spread. That means, its uses and spread is in the hands of its users. This has given rise to several varieties of English in the world. In this sense, the renowned scholar Braj Kachru rightly speaks of ‘World Englishes’.

Talgeri says that pluricentricity of English has led to pluralistic incorporations of other cultural and literary traditions: Africans, South – East, Asian, and South Asian etc. He further quotes Kacharu to support this matter as: “...And the result is that English, as we have seen, is no more an exponent of only the Judeo – Christian traditions and western concepts of literary creativity”. The usage of English is varied and there is a hierarchy of users. The phenomenal spread of the language makes it an extremely
indispensable tool. Dr. Gokhale in his article “Indian English as a vehicle of Indian literature in English” writes about accepting English as one language of India. He asserts:

“We in India have a colonial legacy of the language. It has undeniably strong roots and we can safely call it one of the Indian languages. Like the other non native varieties of English, Indian English, too, has its intrinsic lexical, syntactic, semantic and phonological features that mark it out as a distinct variety of English. The cultural ethos of India is also distinctly blended in the language and is seen in various hues in the fairly successful and internationally recognized Indian writing in English.”

It seems that in the present scenario, English is no longer a geographically restricted language and it is increasingly difficult to map areas where English is not used as a link language at least to some extent. Dr. Gokhale firmly believes that we should accept and validate the variety of English as he says that English is no longer a homogeneous language. We need to reckon the different manifestations and incarnations of English in different sociocultural contexts. He quotes Sinclair saying that “English is no longer the exclusive province of the native speaker” and finally Kacharu in a similar way remarks that in the international context it is more realistic to consider a spectrum of English which varies widely, ranging from standard native varieties to standard non native varieties. Furthermore, as there exists Australian English, Canadian English, Scottish English etc., similarly the concept of Indian English is now
accepted all over the world. R. K. Bansal, the philologist studied and
gave the expression “Indian English” from the phonological aspect. Dr.
Gokhole refers to this term (Indian English) thus:

“In Indian English is a cover – term used to designate a large
number of closely related regional, social and occupational
varieties of English. Indian English is usually considered to
be a variety of English shaped according to interference.
That is Indian English is characterized by a transfer of
linguistic patterns from different Indian languages which
are the first languages of different Indians. These sub –
varieties are usually referred to as Bengali English, Panjabi
English, Tamil English, Marathi English etc.”

Briefly speaking, the present study aims at comparing English
phonology with Gujarati phonology to categorize and modify Gujarati English
as a better variety. It can be firmly assumed that Gujarati phonology has quite
a fertile range of sounds that make their speakers internationally intelligible.

1.9 Chapterization:

Phonology, as described on the website of International Phonetics
Alphabets, (from the Greek: φωνή, phōnē, "voice, sound" and λόγος, lógos,
"word, speech, subject of discussion") is the systematic use of sound to
encode meaning in any spoken human language, or the field of linguistics
studying this use. Just as a language has syntax and vocabulary, it also has
phonology in the sense of a sound system. When describing the formal area
of study, the term typically describes linguistic analysis either beneath the
word (e.g., syllable, onset and rime, phoneme, articulatory gesture,
articulatory feature, etc.) or to units at all levels of language that are thought to structure sound for conveying linguistic meaning. It is viewed as the subfield of linguistics that deals with the sound systems of languages. Whereas phonetics is about the physical production, acoustic transmission and perception of the sounds of speech while phonology describes the way sounds function within a given language or across languages to encode meaning. The term 'phonology' was used in the linguistics of a greater part of the 20th century as a cover term uniting phonemics and phonetics. Current phonology can interface with disciplines such as psycholinguistics and speech perception, resulting in specific areas like articulatory or laboratory phonology.36

In the first chapter, a diachronic and synchronic study of Gujarati and English phonological systems will be elaborately described. The root and role of phonology and its various theories will also be mentioned briefly. Important works of eminent philologists of both the languages will also be examined. Internalization of English and the concept of ‘Indian English’ in the present scenario will be discussed quoting contemporary experts. Finally, the major objectives and hypothesis are mentioned.

In the second chapter, the vowel systems of English and Gujarati will be studied comparatively. Phonological study is generally categorized in two divisions: segment and suprasegment. In the segment, vowel and consonant systems are incorporated. To study the articulation of vowels is itself a very minute and challenging task because the articulation of a vowel means that the air passes through without any friction or obstacles. So, here the tongue
does not touch any part of the mouth, the lips remain separate and teeth are the passive articulators in the production of vowels. Pure vowels and diphthongs will be studied one by one. It can be said, English phonology has more number of pure vowels and diphthongs in comparison to Gujarati phonology. Some pure vowels are produced with a considerable difference while some pure vowels and some diphthongs are not at all produced in each other phonological systems. It will be studied that instead of pronouncing diphthong meaning two monophthongs in a single syllable, the second monophthong of a diphthong gets shifted to a semi-vowel /v/ or /j/ in Gujarati phonology. This will also be verified during this study.

In the third chapter, a comparative study of English and Gujarati consonant systems will be discussed. Here every consonant will be studied and compared by categorizing them in different ways; articulation of manner, articulation of place and whether they are voiced or voiceless. All the possible variations like consonant clusters, aspiration of some consonants, their initial, middle and final positions will also be compared and studied in this chapter. It seems that Gujarati phonology has more number of consonants than English phonology. There are some consonants in both the phonological systems that can be articulated quite similarly while there are some consonants in English, which cannot be articulated in Gujarati phonology, vice versa some sounds of Gujarati phonology cannot be produced in English phonology.

In the fourth chapter, the suprasegmental aspects of both the phonological systems will be studied comparatively. Syllable structure and syllable division and stress patterns of English and Gujarati phonology
systems will be specifically selected for the comparative study. Syllable is defined as a minimal unit of sounds or phonemes. It means each syllable contains at least two sounds. Here the orthographies of both the languages play an important role. That is why some striking features have been found out. It is said that the beauty of English lies in the usage of stress- unstressed pattern. To put stress on a particular syllable of a word and to put stresses on particular words of a sentence makes the speaker effective and understandable in the usage of English language. In the standard English dictionaries like Oxford and Cambridge, the words are given with proper pronunciation with primary and secondary stresses. It means English phonology has determined set-patterns of stress. In Gujarati phonology, normally the first syllable takes the stress; it is shifted according to the importance of the words. Gujarati phonology may not have, as it seems, that much well studied and set-patterns of stress. All these variations will be studied in this chapter.

In the last concluding chapter, the hypothesis will be elaborately justified on the basis of the comparative study done throughout the thesis. Here the hypotheses of the present study are mentioned in brief.

- English and Gujarati phonology have noticeable similarities which could assist in attaining intelligible standards in English communication.
- English and Gujarati phonology have clear distinctive features which create hindrances in articulating intelligible standards in English communication.
English communication is generally done through Gujarati phonology by the native speakers of Gujarat. They do not use English phonology while communicating in English.

If remedial guidance is provided for the improvement of English communication, the standards of intelligible English are possible to locate in native speakers in Gujarat.

1.10 Methodology:

The present study adopts the comparative methodology for research purpose. The phonological systems of English (British R. P.) and Gujarati will be studied on the basis of findings and works of eminent scholars. David Odden also accepts the pattern in his book *Introducing Phonology*. He writes saying that if we look into the central question of phonology in greater depth, we will find that the boundaries between the disciplines of phonetics and phonology are not entirely clear-cut. As research in both these fields has progressed, it has become apparent that a better understanding of many issues in phonology requires that you bring phonetics into consideration, just as a phonological analysis is a prerequisite for any phonetic study of language.  

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