

MODULE 1

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**UNIT 1 LANGUAGE: NATURE, ORIGINS AND
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

It is commonly known that studies in phonetics and phonology are based on natural languages. Therefore, since language may be seen as the subject of phonetics and phonology, it would appear that a good knowledge about language will be a necessary background for an understanding of phonetics and phonology, especially at the introductory stage. Also, since language is expressed through mediums, it is important to understand the particular medium that concerns us in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what language is;
- discuss aspects of its origin;
- distinguish between natural and non human languages;
- identify language mediums; and
- state how they are organised.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Language: Meaning and Origin

The simplest way to explain the term language is probably to say that it is a means of communication. Such communication may take place between individuals, groups and nations. Through language, people are able to live together to interact and to express their thoughts and feelings. The entire world bubbles and remains alive as a result of language. The world is, in a way, held together because people learn or acquire each others' languages thereby maintaining constant interaction and relationship. To use a modern expression associated with wireless communication, language helps mankind to "stay connected!" Try to imagine how difficult life would be in the world, if there were no languages and mankind had to use gestures or other nonverbal expressions only for communication.

It is, however, almost disappointing that in spite of the communicative and social roles of language, nobody knows precisely how it originated. The matter has remained a speculation. One such speculation is the *Divine Source*. According to this source, God created Adam ... and gave him the ability to speak ... and whatsoever Adam called every living creature that was the name thereof (Genesis 2:19). There are other speculations such as the *natural sounds source* and the *oral-gesture source*, Yule (1996: 1-5). We have not gone beyond this point because the issue of language origin is not of a primary concern for us in this course. But it is good to have a hint about it, as done, so that those who are interested in finding out more about the topic can read up in other sources. For now, it is enough to say that all the speculations lead to one direction: uncertainty about the origin of language.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. How does language enable us to "stay connected?"
2. State, very briefly, what you have learned about the origin of language.

3.2 Language: Technical Definitions

Even though the origin of language is not yet known, quite a few scholars have provided technical definitions. The definitions are useful because they tend to bring out the main features of language. Three of such definitions and their sources are cited below:

- (i) Sapir (1921: 18) sees language as:
...a purely human and non instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols.
- (ii) Gimson (1980: 4-5) describes language as:
...a system of conventional symbols used for communication by a whole community, the pattern of conventions covers a system of significant sound units, the inflection and the arrangement of words and the association of meaning with words.
- (iii) Hall (1968: 158) says that language is:
...the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols.

From the above definitions, we can see that some features are common to all languages. The first of these features is that language is arbitrary and conventional. This means that there is generally no necessary connection between a word and what it stands for. For instance, the word *school* has no necessary link between the name and what it stands for. If English people or those who provided their various sources of borrowing had used the word *farm* to describe “an institution where learning (of all sorts) takes place”, then by agreement and convention every speaker of English would have used the word in that way. Here, we notice that even onomatopoeic words ... words whose pronunciations suggest their meanings such as *clean*, *sneeze*, *flush* ... are still subject to the arbitrary and conventional reference.

Secondly, we observe from the definitions that language is non instinctive. This means that it is an acquired or learned behaviour. A child born into a society acquires the language of its environment, and does so effortlessly. Do you remember how you acquired your first language? You hardly can! This is because the process of acquisition is normally without any really conscious effort, hence the description *effortlessly*! If the same child goes on to learn another language – a language different from the one he has acquired – he learns with some amount of effort and determination. The degree of success will depend upon a large number of factors, the most important being perhaps, the child’s innate ability at language learning, the quality of the person he takes as his model and the suitability of the environment for learning. You can see that while you acquired your first language effortlessly, you are still struggling to learn the English language, which is a second language in Nigeria.

Thirdly, all the definitions show that language is essentially used among human beings. However, since it is commonly known that birds, animals

and even machines have their own language, we can say that the three explications relate to “natural” languages i.e. languages used by human beings – languages into which human beings are born. The other languages may be said to be “artificial” or “nonhuman.” Such include animal and machine language. There are also artificial languages crafted from existing natural language(s). These include Esperanto which was crafted in the late 19th century for international communication and the Nigerian Wazobia: “Wa-zo-bia” coined from the word meaning come in the three languages spoken by the larger ethnic groups in Nigeria (Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo) in an attempt to solve the problem of a lingua franca in Nigeria. It is important to note that artificial languages are not generally known to succeed, particularly when compared to natural languages which are culturally transmitted, and hence their chances of continuity are assured.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. Briefly explain the traits which unite all natural languages.
2. Briefly distinguish between natural and other forms of language.

3.3 Language: Its Mediums

A further highlight from the three explications of language in the last section is that languages are realised through symbols which are either oral-auditory (spoken) or graphic (written). This means that languages are made up of symbols which are either spoken or written. The majority of attempts to explain language state that it is made up of phonic, vocal, oral-auditory conventional symbols. The majority of sources on language indicate that speech is prior to writing. This means that practically all natural languages are usually first spoken and later written, if necessary. This explains why it is true that there are many languages in the world which are not written whereas all are spoken. This is what is often described as the “primacy of speech.” Sapir (1949: 1) summarises this primacy of speech thus:

Language is primarily a system of phonetic symbols for the expression of communicable thought and feeling. In other words, the symbols of language are differentiated products of the vocal behaviour ...

From the above, we have seen that natural languages are expressed through speech or through writing. These are the two main language mediums. Spoken language consists of sounds – organised sounds – which result from the action of the speech organs. The organised sound is perceived via hearing. For this reason, the spoken medium is often called the aural medium. This is so because it is the sense of hearing that is utilised to perceive spoken language. The written language is

produced by use of symbols that can be visually recognised by the reader, and is referred to as the visual medium. The written language is also used by the visually impaired in the form of the braille and similar systems. This consists of symbols that are identified through the sense of 'touch'. It is referred to as the *tactile medium* because the sense of touch is utilised. It is important to note that a medium is itself not language but a means through which language can be comprehended. This means that language is expressed through mediums. We shall return to the spoken and the written mediums in detail in the next unit.

A common feature of the mediums is that they serve as a link between the sender of a message and the receiver of it. What is normally perceived which affects the communication is the outcome of the activity which may be sounds or shapes. It is important to note that a language signal can be transferred from one medium to another. Thus, it is possible to write down what has been spoken and to read aloud what has been written.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have learned that human or natural languages can be distinguished by the features that are common to them. The features make it possible for languages to have organised sound systems and structure which is what you will learn in this course.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has shown that human language differs from artificial or non human language in that it has identifiable sounds and symbols that are organised. Three mediums through which human language is expressed were discussed: the aural, the visual, and the tactile. The relevance of the features of human language as the basis for description of sound systems (phonetics) and structure (phonology) is the focus of this course.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

In about 2 pages, discuss the following topic and submit your answer to your tutor for assessment:

“The things I now know about language”.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Eka, D. & Udofot, I. (1996). *Aspects of Spoken Language*. Calabar: BON Universal Ltd.
- Gimson, A.C. (1980). *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English*. London: Edward Arnold.
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- Sapir, E. (1991). *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
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UNIT 2 MAJOR COMPONENTS OF LANGUAGE

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Major Components: Sounds and Letters
 - 3.2 Major Components: Speech and Writing
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

A study of the major components of language may be approached through a consideration of the following: (i) levels of language such as phonology, phonetics, syntax, semantics; (ii) sounds and letters; (iii) speech and writing.

In order to have a balanced discussion, it is also important to consider overlaps between speech and writing. We refer to this here as mixed medium. A consideration of levels is important here also, but only two levels are discussed – phonetics and phonology being the key levels in this course.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the major components of language;
- distinguish between sounds and letters;
- differentiate between speech and writing; and
- establish the relationship, other than differences between speech and writing.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Major Components: Sounds and Letters

One simple way to explain the term *sound* is to see it as a unit of speech which is produced by the human speech organs. In a way, it is the most important component of language being the most frequently used in all languages including unwritten ones. Sound is usually heard. Here, we

can compare sound to noise which is also usually heard but whereas noise is a distraction and is also often meaningless, sound is an organised realisation from a natural language. The International Phonetics Alphabet (IPA) comprises the symbols that are used to represent sounds.

For example, the symbol /i:/ represents the vowel sounds in the following words bee /bi:/ tea /ti:/, and theme /θi:m/. So, while the point remains that sounds are normally heard, it is equally true that they can be represented in writing. The number of sounds that exist in a language is determined by the difference the sounds make in meaning. For instance, the English vowels /ɔ, ε, υ, ɪ / make a difference in meaning in the following words: /pɔt/ /pɛt/, /pυt/, and /pɪt/.

Sometimes the word ‘sound’ is confused with the word ‘syllable’. Such confusion should be avoided. A syllable is made up of sounds and is considered to be the minimum speech unit. A syllable, as we shall see, below is sometimes the size of a word or the size of a sound. For instance, the word bat /bæt/ has one syllable which is one word; our /avə/ has one syllable which is pronounced as one sound (especially, if viewed as a triphthong; otherwise, it consists of two syllables made up of /av + ə/) and Dav- /deiv-/ in the word David is one syllable. We have gone into these explanations and illustrations to ensure that you understand the use of the word ‘sound’.

Ordinarily, however, when we write in a language, we make use of letters of the alphabet. Letters are normally seen while, in comparison, sounds are normally heard. However, sounds and letters are related in that letters are the symbols with which sounds are represented on paper. Despite the above distinction, it is interesting to note that sounds and letters sometimes are of equal value. This happens in languages which are spoken the way the words are written. The majority of African and Nigerian languages are of this group. Can you cite examples from your language? For the English language, one to one sound-letter correspondence is an exception rather than the rule. For example, while the alphabets ‘k, g, p, b, m, n, t,’ etc correspond to the sounds they represent in words like

king [kɪŋ]
go [gəʊ]
pot [pɔt]
bomb [bɒm]
man [mæn]
name [neɪm]
type [taɪp]

but, the letter alphabet 'a' is used to represent different vowel sounds in English:

late [ei] [leit]
farther [a:] [fa:ðə]
man [æ] [mæn]
again [ə] [əgein]

Similarly, the consonant sound /f/ is represented by the different letter alphabets:

f as in fine [fain]
ff as in off [ɔ:f]
fe as in life [laif]
ph as in physics [fɪziks]
gh as in cough [kʌf]

The letter 'c' of the English alphabet is pronounced as [s] in the words: city and cite, [sɪtɪ] and [sait] while the same sound is [k] in the words cup and cow: [kʌp] and [kau].

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Briefly distinguish between sounds and letters in natural language.

3.2 Major Components: Speech and Writing

Spoken and written language display many important differences. The most obvious of the differences is that speech uses the medium of phonic units produced by movements of the vocal organs while writing uses the medium of graphic units, with symbols.

Apart from these physical differences there are other differences:

1. In speech, the focus is on clarity; therefore we tend to use simple words. This saves the listener the trouble of having to look up meanings of words from a dictionary. In writing, emphasis is on appropriateness of usage. Even when an appropriate difficult or technical word is used in writing, the reader has every opportunity to confirm its meaning usage from a dictionary.
2. In speech, there seems to be always a greater degree of repetition and the use of softeners such as 'you see, you know, what I mean is....' than in writing. This is because in speech, one does not have an enormous amount of time to think out new facts or illustrations especially if the speech is impromptu (delivered without previous preparation). In writing, the writer has the

- opportunity to choose between alternatives, thereby avoiding repetition.
3. Speech is made of sounds and is produced for the ears. Writing is made up of symbols and is produced for the eyes.
 4. Speech is time-bound and dynamic. It is often in a situation of interaction between the speaker and his audience. Writing is space-bound and static. Your audience may be separated from you in space and in time.
 5. Meaning in speech can be made clear through such extra linguistic cues like facial expression, gestures or applauding. Writing does not easily lend itself to these or other extra linguistic cues. In writing therefore, there is need to clearly state what you mean very graphically to make your communication intentions self-evident

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Briefly distinguish between speech and writing. Which of these is of greater concern for you in this course?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we can conclude that sounds and letters as well as speech and writing are very important components of natural language. However, we have also seen that there are illustrative cases in which both sounds and letters have the same linguistic value and that speech and writing sometimes overlap.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we learned about the nature of sounds as well as letters as components of natural languages. We also learned about the differences between them as well as the exceptions to the general occurrences.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss in detail, the view that sounds and letters as well as speech and writing are not always different in natural languages.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Abercrombie, D. (1975). *Elements of General Phonetics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
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- Eka, D. & Udofot, I. (1996). *Aspects of Spoken Language*. Calabar: BON Universal Ltd.

UNIT 3 DEFINING PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
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 - 3.1 Defining Phonetics and Phonology
- 4.0 Conclusion
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The dual function of language makes it possible for one to study human language at any linguistic level. In the language hierarchy, ‘Phonetics’ comes first and it is followed by ‘Phonology’. Phonetics constitutes the study of the smallest unit of speech and it provides the raw materials for phonology to build on. As such, without phonetics there would be no phonology. The aim of this unit is to help you understand the basics of linguistic study, especially as it relates to phonetic/phonological study.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define Phonetics and Phonology;
- explain the relationship between Phonetics and Phonology;
- distinguish Phonetics from Phonology;
- identify the different aspects of Phonetics and Phonology; and
- explain their functions in natural language.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Defining Phonetics and Phonology

3.1.1 Phonetics

Phonetics is concerned with the study of the sounds of natural languages...languages into which human beings are born. You are able to recognise the difference and distinguish between sounds of the English language. The approach to phonetics is scientific in the sense that its analysis of the subject matter is accurate and verifiable. You will also be able to identify the restrictions in the occurrence of English

consonants and vowels. For example, the string of consonants *zbf is not permitted in English, but [str-] is, as in [streit].

Phonetics is the study of production of sounds as produced by the organs of speech. It deals with the analysis of the sounds of languages in terms of articulation, transmission and perception. Phonetics seeks to identify sounds that constitute speech units which are distinct from all other possible human sounds.

There are three major branches in the study of phonetics, namely acoustic Phonetics, articulatory phonetics, and auditory phonetics.

Acoustic Phonetics

This deals with the transmission of speech sounds through the air (sound waves). Different instruments are used to measure the characteristics of these sound waves.

Articulatory Phonetics

Articulatory phonetics is the study of how speech sounds are produced. Sounds are classified according to the place of articulation in terms of the organs of speech used in their production (bilabial, alveolar, palatal), and according to manner of articulation in terms of the how airflow from the lungs is obstructed in their production e.g. stops, fricatives, affricates etc.

Auditory Phonetics

Hearing, or audition, is one of the traditional five senses, and refers to the ability to detect sounds. In human beings hearing is performed traditionally by the ears which also perform a function of maintaining balance. A common rule of thumb used to describe human hearing is that human hearing is sensitive in the range of sound wave or frequency of 20 decibel or Hertz to 20 kHz. Auditory phonetics studies how the human hearing organ perceives sound.

The above statement implies that phonetics is approached by first determining the basic sounds (vowels and consonants) of natural languages. In a phonetic study, square brackets [] or two slanting strokes // are used to enclose phonetics symbols. For instance to indicate the consonant sounds of the following English words: boy, saw, too, square brackets are used by convention:

[b] as in boy: [bɔɪ]

[s] as in saw: [sɔ:]

[t] as in too: [tu:]

Phonemes, which are the distinguished sounds, constitute the basic unit of study in Phonetics.

3.2 Phonology

Phonology, on the other hand deals with the organisation, grouping, patterning and distribution of the basic sounds of natural languages (vowels and consonants). It studies the restrictions and regular patterns of sound combinations. The syllable is the basic unit of study. Symbols which are used to indicate the pronunciation of sounds, syllables or words are written within slanting lines / /, sometimes called slashes or oblique slashes following phonological convention.

When the differences in sound combinations are as a result of non segmental phenomena like tone, intonation, rhythm and accentuation, it is referred to as suprasegmental phonology. For example, when the first syllable in the word import is stressed, it constitutes a difference in meaning in that it functions as a noun, but as a verb if the stress is on the second syllable.

In phonology, distinctive features of phonemes are determined and used to describe, compare and contrast phonemes. The distinctive features of a phoneme refer to the group or bundle of features which differentiate a phoneme from other phonemes. The features are derived from the parameters for classification of sounds. Consonants are classified according to the parameters of place and manner of articulation, and voicing. Vowels are classified according to the parameters of tongue height, rounding of the lips, and length of production.

Below is the distinctive feature chart for consonants and vowels in English:

For example, /i:/ and /u:/ are distinctive in English because of the bundle of features that mark each sound out as shown below:

/i:/

+ High
- Low
- Back
- Round

/u:/

+ High
- Low
+ Back
+ Round

Phonological analysis is also concerned how sound patterns are conditioned in the context of other sounds. For example, plural formation occurs in English by adding a suffix '-s' to a noun root

morpheme. The suffix, ‘-s’ has three variants known as allomorphs /-s/, /-z/ and /ɪz/ and their occurrence is conditioned by a phonological rule.

3.3 Phonetics and Phonology

The relationship between phonetics and phonology is such that human speech is subject matter. However, Phonetics is the starting point while phonology takes off from where phonetics ends. The example of aspiration in English will illustrate this relationship. Through phonetic analysis, the consonant /p/ is a distinct speech sound in English in terms of the parameters of classification, place and manner of articulation. Through phonological analysis, /p/ is a distinct phoneme because it constitutes a difference in meaning when in combination with other sounds in a syllable. Also, /p/ is produced with a puff air when it occurs in word initial position and before a vowel as in people [pi:p^h]. This production of /p/ is a variant called an allomorph. It is aspirated and represented as [p^h]. The second /p/ in people does not meet the conditions of occurrence and so is not aspirated. Note however, that the aspirated [p^h] is not a distinct sound nor is it a distinct phoneme of English. In other words, its occurrence does not constitute a difference in meaning.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Phonetics is the starting pointing in any language as it deals with how sounds are produced (articulated), send across (transmitted) and perceived (reception). In other words, phonetics accounts for how human beings generate speech sounds, the physical properties of the sounds and how they are received by the hearers while focuses on speech sounds as well, but in a different way. It deals with how the sounds of a language are identified, classified and organised to function in that language.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have discussed the concepts phonetics and phonology. The study of human speech begins with phonetic analysis and is followed by phonological analysis. Phonetics has to do with the physical realisation of sounds as produced by the organs of speech. Phonological analysis takes off where Phonetic analysis ends.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Define Phonetics and discuss its various components.
- ii. What is Phonology?
- iii. Explain the relationship between phonetics and phonology.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Adetugbo, A. (1993). *English Phonetics: A Course Text*. Nigeria: University of Lagos Press.

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UNIT 4 INTERFACE BETWEEN PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

CONTENTS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Interface between phonetics and phonology refers to the relationship between the two levels of language studies. One of the characteristics or designed features of human language is its duality. This feature makes it possible for one to study human language from any of its stratum. Every language can be studied from the level of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Each language level is related to each other and the level of relationship depends on how beneficial is one level to the other. It is this level of relationship we want to find out between Phonetics and Phonology in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- establish the relationship between phonetics and phonology as levels in language study;
- argue out the extent of the relationship;
- explain whether the relationship is mutual;
- translate whether the relationship extends to other levels as well; and
- express the essence of this relationship in language study.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Interface between Phonetics and Phonology

The dual nature of human languages makes it possible for languages to be broken down into various units so that it is possible to be learnt. Language can be studied at different linguistic levels such as the

phonetics (sounds), phonology (structuring of sounds), morphology (words), syntax (sentence) and semantics (meaning), pragmatics (level larger than meaning). In linguistics the study of sounds is in phonetics and phonology. The words are studied in morphology while sentences are studied under syntax. All these help in the development of the complex nature of human languages.

Phonetics and phonology are closely related that they can hardly be separated. However, they are studied at different levels of linguistic analysis, because they constitute different levels of language structure. As earlier said, the dual nature of human language makes this a reality.

Phonetics as a level of language study deals with the physical realisation of sounds as produced by the organs of speech. It deals with the study and analysis of the speech sounds of languages in terms of articulation, transmission and perception. Thus, phonetics has three major components, which are acoustic phonetics (the physics or instrumental production of sounds), articulatory phonetics (production of sounds with the speech organs), and auditory phonetics (perception of sounds with the ears). Details deriving from these branches (of phonetics) facilitate the development of writing systems, that is, orthographies. Without phonetics, it will be extremely difficult to study phonology as it produces the basic raw materials or building blocks for phonology to build on.

Human beings produce a whole lot of sounds ranging from the non-linguistics (belching, grunting, and hissing) to the linguistics (consonants and vowels). Out of all the sounds produced some of them are not linguistically relevant. So, phonetics deals with the production of the relevant and the irrelevant sounds in languages.

These sounds in phonetics do not belong to any particular language, they are universal sounds. Phonetics basically deals with all possible sounds by human beings, the useful and the useless sounds. Human beings can produce even the novelty sounds, which nobody had ever produced or heard.

These phonetic and non-phonetic segments which are universal sounds constitute the raw material for phonology to build on. Without some output from phonetics there will be no input for phonology. It is where phonetics leaves off that phonology starts and it's enough to say that there is no any phonology if there was no phonetics.

Phonology is a branch of linguistics that deals with useful sounds of a specific language. It studies the ways sounds of a language are organised into systems. At the phonetics level a wide range of sounds, which are

not linguistics, are produced; only a very small number of these sounds are contrastive or significant. It is these significant speech sounds that phonology is concerned about.

Adetugbo (1992:103) shows that, “phonology takes phonetic facts...but goes further to study speech sounds as constituting a system in any language” among the possible sounds capable of being produced by human beings, only a minute number of them can be combined to bring about meaningful utterances in a language. Atolagbe (2000:11) defines phonology as the sound system of a language, the speech sounds that are combined into meaningful and acceptable patterns for communication purposes, in a specific language.

Phonology is particular to a language. several languages may share the same or similar sound segments, but structure these sounds differently to suit the system of that language for example English and Yoruba have the sound /p/. This sound is structured differently by each language based on phonological rule of that language (grammar is basically rule governed). Thus, we have Yoruba Phonology, Igbo Phonology, Hausa Phonology and English Phonology.

After phonetics has produced the useful and the useless sounds it stops its work. It is here that phonology comes in to pick and select the sounds and the non-sounds from the phonetic sound repertoire. Remember, we have said that ‘phonology is specific to a particular language’. No two languages share the same rules in their organisation of sounds. So, each language after selecting the sounds, the sounds that are useful to it now leaves and structures these sounds and non-sounds to suit the rules of that language. It builds on the raw material produced at the phonetic level.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Phonetics is the science of language that deals with the study and analysis of the speech sounds of languages in terms of articulation, transmission and perception, while phonology is a branch of linguistics that deals with useful sounds of a specific language. It studies the ways sounds of a language are organised into systems. The two are closely related in that without one the other cannot exist. They are used in language development, mostly in the development of a language orthography, transcription and establishment of contrastive units in languages.

5.0 SUMMARY

Interface between phonetics and phonology refers to the relationship between the two levels of language studies. There is a very close relationship between Phonetics and Phonology. Phonetics is the minimum level in language in the hierarchy of language analysis. It is general in that no language can lay claims to it. It contains the useful and the useless sounds of languages. It is these useful and useless sounds of the language that constitute the raw materials in which phonology needs to build on. Thus, phonology is a branch of linguistics that deals with useful sounds of a specific language. It studies the ways sounds of a language are organised into systems.

The relationship between phonetic and phonology is that in the hierarchy of language studies, phonetics comes first and it is followed by phonology. Secondly, phonetics produces the raw materials which phonology builds on. Without phonetics there will be no phonology, phonology cannot be studied without phonetics.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Phonetics produces the raw material in which phonology builds with. Discuss.
- ii. In your opinion, can phonetics be studied without phonology?
- iii. What is the level of relationship between Phonetics and Phonology?
- iv. Phonetics is general while phonology is specific. Discuss these claims with corpus of data.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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