MEG – 04: ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE
ASSIGNMENT 2018 - 2019
(Based on Blocks (1 - 9)
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1 Write short notes on the following: 20

i Sociolinguistics and sociology of language
Answer-
Sociolinguistics is considered to be a young discipline as its actual growth started to take place with William Labov who is often regarded as « the founder of the discipline of variationist sociolinguistics   ».

Another name for sociolinguistics is micro-sociolinguistics. This should be borne in mind when examining the statement of Coulmas (1997, p.2) which states that « micro- sociolinguistics investigates how social structure influences the way people talk and how language varieties and patterns of use correlate with social attributes such as class, sex and age ». This means it is society that determines how to use language in an appropriate way; how to address certain people with different social variables (gender, ethnicity, social status, etc.), and what words and types of intonation and attitudes must be used to express 'request', 'order' and 'certainty'.

Let us take an example that investigates the appropriate usage of the words 'black' and 'nigger'. We all know that the latter is racist; but, only when it is used by non black people. In fact, it is allowed to be used exclusively by black men. In this case, it is the social variable of ethnicity that determines which word to be used by which people.

Broadly speaking, sociology of language focuses on language use as a whole and how those patterns of use relate an individual to their community or society. The study of language shift is one of the more typical concerns of researchers in this field. Sociolinguistics (in the Labovian tradition), on the other hand, focuses on the use of particular linguistic features or structures and how those patterns correlate with particular social categories. This is also known as variationist sociolinguistics, and it's important to point out that both sociology of language and variationist sociolinguistics fall under the broader field of 'Sociolinguistics'. Both approaches also rely primarily on quantitative research methods as well as survey data. Any Intro to Sociolinguistics textbook will provide a much more detailed description of the similarities and differences between the two.

ii. Language as an act of identity –

Language and identity is often so strong that a single feature of language use suffices to identify someone's membership in a given group. On the battlefield after their victory over the people of Ephraïm, the Gilead's applied a language-identity test to sort out friend and foe: All of the soldiers were asked to pronounce the word shibboleth; those who pronounced the first consonant as were friends, those who pronounced it [s] were enemies and therefore killed at once (Judges: XII. 6). Hence a single phonemic feature may be sufficient to include or exclude somebody from any social group. But any other more complex symbolic language item, for example, a given name, may fulfil the same function. In the nineties, during a discussion in French about identity with other French-speaking adolescents of her age, a schoolgirl said: "It's my first name that spoils everything. Nobody pays attention, and as soon as the teacher calls my name at the beginning of the year, Bang! those who don't know me say, 'what name is this?'And I have to say my mother is German." This girl's first name was a Germanic name (Varro, 1995).

These examples show how individual identity and social identity are mediated by language: Language features are the link which binds individual and social identities together. Language offers both the means of creating this link and that of expressing it. Such features imply the whole range of language use, from phonetic features to lexical units, syntactic structures, and personal names.

iii)The notion of a Speech Community
Answer-
A speech community is a group of people who share a set of linguistic norms and expectations regarding the use of language. It's a concept mostly associated with sociolinguistics and anthropological linguistics.

A typical speech community can be a small town, but sociolinguists such as William Labov claim that a large metropolitan area, for example New York City, can also be considered one single speech community.

Early definitions have tended to see speech communities as bounded and localized groups of people who live together and come to share the same linguistic norms because they belong to the same local community. It has also been assumed that within a community a homogeneous set of norms should exist. These assumptions have been challenged by later scholarship that has demonstrated that individuals generally participate in various speech communities simultaneously and at different times in their lives. Each speech community has different norms that they tend to share only partially. Communities may be de-localized and unbounded rather than local, and they often comprise different sub-communities with differing speech norms. With the recognition of the fact that speakers actively use language to construct and manipulate

social identities by signalling membership in particular speech communities, the idea of the bounded speech community with homogeneous speech norms has become largely abandoned for a model based on the speech community as a fluid community of practice.

A speech community comes to share a specific set of norms for language use through living and interacting together, and speech communities may therefore emerge among all groups that interact frequently and share certain norms and ideologies. Such groups can be villages, countries, political or professional communities, communities with shared interests, hobbies, or lifestyles, or even just groups of friends. Speech communities may share both particular sets of vocabulary and grammatical conventions, as well as speech styles and genres, and also norms for how and when to speak in particular ways.

iv)Types of Negation and its interaction with Scope
Answer-
In English Grammar, sentence negation is a type of negation that affects the meaning of an entire clause. Also known as sentential negation, clausal negation, and nexal negation. (In contrast, a negation that affects the meaning of just a single word or phrase is called constituent negation—also known as special negation and sub clausal negation.)

Sentence negation is commonly indicated in English by the negative particle not (or its reduced form, -nt).

Examples and Observations
Two Types of Sentence Negation "It is usual to distinguish between two types of non-affixal sentence negation in English: firstly, negation with not or -n't; and secondly, negation with the negative words never, neither, nobody, no, none, nor, nothing and nowhere. Tottie (1991), for example, terms the first type 'Not-negation' and the second type 'No-negation.' Quirk et al. (1985: 782) give a list of the negative words together with their corresponding non-assertive forms, pointing out that there are two negative equivalents for a positive sentence containing an assertive form: thus We've had some lunch has the two negative forms We haven't had any lunch and We've had no lunch (Quirk et al. 1985: 782). In the same way, these authors tell us, He sometimes visits us has the two negative forms He doesn't ever visit us and He never visits us."

(Jenny Cheshire, "English Negation From an Interactional Perspective." Negation in the History of English, ed. by Ingrid Tieken-Boon van Ostade, Gunnel Tottie, and Wim van der Wurff. Walter de Gruyter, 1998)
"I did not cry or yell or lie down on the pine floorboards and kick my feet." (Sarah Tomlinson, Good Girl: A Memoir. Gallery Books, 2015)
"It's not the case that I can't 'hold my own'; I can." (Morris Philipson, Secret Understandings. Simon & Schuster, 1983)

2 Why is language planning essential in any country? What are the factors which influence language planning? 20
Answer-

Language (i.e., code) planning is the deliberate effort to control, expand, and utilize language. Cooper's definition of language planning is: language planning refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their codes

Language planning is important to a country for several reasons. The first is that planning is important to insure that a language corpus can function in contemporary society in terms of terminology, or vocabulary, to meet present needs, e.g., technological, or scientific needs. Thus, Cooper describes corpus planning as intervention to make sure a language has the needed terminology to function in necessary capacities.

The second reason is to establish the status of a language within a country and in relation to other countries in the world, for instance, it establishes whether a country will have one national language or two and which those two might be. As an example, South Africa effected status planning by determining that both Afrikaans and English would be official languages.

The third reason language planning is important to a country is that language planning determines how language or languages will be acquired, or taught, in the national educational systems. Acquisition planning comprises acquisition of national, second, and foreign languages.

As we knew, language planning is the development of goals, objectives and strategies to change the way in which the speakers think of and use their language (Baker & Jones, 1998; Ignace, 1998). Language planning refers to various ways of influencing a language to raise its status and to modify its system and structure. Government, departments and agencies, academic committees, popular societies or individuals can carry out language planning. The resources and funds for language planning can be provided by individuals, Governments, third parties, or some combination (Baker & Jones, 1998).

Besides the purpose of reversing language shift and preventing language death, language planning refers to some other important purposes, which were recognized by many researchers. Language planning is to reform and revitalize a language, to modernize and standardize a language, to spread and strengthen the language communication, and to attain national unity and harmony (Asmah, 1994; Coronel-Molina, 1999; Kavanagh, 1999; Ignace, 1998 Nahir, 1984; Noss, 1994). Language planning can involve various types and levels taking advantage of various factors that have to be considered. Here are some typical factors that have great influence on the language planning.

One of those factors that influence language planning was a linguistic factor as in the Cham situation. Linguistic factors can be regarded as the status and characters of a language. It

means that the phonemes, morphemes, semantics and structures of the language have to be considered with the intention of developing the simpler and more appropriate. In the case of a language with a less appropriate writing system for day-to-day usage, it is imperative that language planning is done to reform this inappropriateness. The development of a language depends on the public preference and speakers' attitudes. They like easier, simpler and more convenient to use. Such considerations would inform the reasons, why an individual, a speech community, a nation prefer this language to the other. For instance, in Indonesia, Malay (Bahasa Melayu) was preferred to Japanese and Balinese, because it is less complicated than Japanese and others in terms of characters, though it is a minority language. Many individuals prefer to learn and use English to Chinese, for the former has simpler characters and writing systems than the latter, the more complicated one. The status of a language can also influence its preference as national language of a country. That is the reason why many multilingual countries in Africa would choose European languages or English as their official languages (Fishman, 1974; Tomitope, 2011).

factors which influence language planning - Political factors, essentially and constantly impact on language planning, are considerations that relate the general policy of a country to its language policy. As the main agent in the process of language planning, government usually utilizes language planning to achieve its covert or non-covert aims such as political stability and economic benefits, adjustment of language status and revival of endangered languages.

One of the factors that influence language planning is linguistic factor.

Linguistic factors can be regarded as those that are needed to be considered on the part of a language in relation to other languages. It relates to the status and characters of a language as well as similarities between languages. Such considerations would inform why a speech community, a country for instance, would prefer language like English to language like Chinese. The former has simpler characters as opposed to the complicated characters of the latter. In Indonesia, for instance, Malay was preferred to Japanese as a national language because it is less complicated in terms of characters, though it is a minority language. The status that a language presently enjoys can also influence its preference as national language of a country. This is why many multilingual countries in Africa would choose an European language. In terms of similarities and dissimilarities between languages, it is the case that languages with common origin do share some similarities and vice versa. If a language lacks adequate lexicon for day-to-day usage, it is imperative that language planning is done so as to rectify this anomaly. In terms of its status, this has to do with the level of development as well as literary tradition. The structure, lexis and grammar of the language have to be considered too. Differences and similarities between languages are important in language planning. For example in Nigeria, the chance of choosing either Yoruba or Igbo as a national language among the major languages is high, because of visible similarities between the two languages.

Political factors are considerations that relate the general policy of a country to its language policy. It is not a gain saying that the Government is the Chief-actor in the process of language

planning. Government uses language planning to achieve its other aims such as political stability and economical benefits from other nation(s). Government also provides funds for implementing any language policy. In maintaining political stability in Nigeria, the Government has always avoided choosing any indigenous language as the official language in order to prevent geopolitical conflicts. Thus, the highest status any indigenous language has enjoyed is the status of a national language. The three major Nigeria languages recognized as the national language are: Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba. As an illustration, it was for political-economic reasons that General Sani Abacha imposed French on the Nigerians during his military regime. He single-handedly recognized French as an official language just because France supported his oppressive ruling while the United States and the Commonwealth of nations opposed it. Also in the time of apartheid in South Africa, the policy which promoted segregation was supported by the language policy adopted. Such language planning helped in undermining the language of the South African. Moreover, it is the responsibility of the (Nigerian) Government to fund the implementation of language planning, particularly the policy on the use of mother tongue in teaching school children in the lower primary level. The failure or success of meeting this responsibility or otherwise is one major way in which politics influences language planning. A language could also be planned for political reasons. The Government, Quasi Governmental institutions and even individuals can undertake language planning so as to give the speakers of that language a spirit of togetherness and enable them to use their numerical strength to gain political power. The political factor is a very crucial one in language planning because the existing political structure determines the direction to be taken in language planning in any given society. Politics and language planning can't be separated. The strong effect of political factor on language planning can be elucidated with the case of bilingual education or minority language education. That is, the State national policy on education is determining the language of instruction in the school. Socio-demographic factor relates to the numbers of speakers of the languages and their geographical distribution. The actors in language planning usually consider not only the majority language but also the minority languages. Thus, ethno linguistic consideration made Tanzania chose a minority language as a national language.

The society and its geographical distributions in which language planning have to be carried out is a contributing factor that influences language planning. This has to do with the physical structure of the society in terms of its population, the number of spoken languages, its speakers and also their geographical boundaries.

3 How is inflectional morphology different from derivational morphology? Discuss, give examples. 20
Answer-
Inflectional morphology –
In English morphology, an inflectional morpheme is a suffix that's added to a word (a noun, verb, adjective or an adverb) to assign a particular grammatical property to that word, such as its tense, number, possession, or comparison. Inflectional morphemes in English include the

bound morphemes -s (or -es); 's (or s'); -ed; -en; -er; -est; and -ing. These suffixes may even do double- or triple-duty.

For example, - s can note possession (in conjunction with an apostrophe in the proper place), can make count nouns plural, or can put a verb in the third-person singular tense. The suffix -ed can make past participles or past-tense verbs.

Kristin Denham and Anne Lobeck, authors of "Linguistics for Everyone," explain why there's overlap: "This lack of distinction in form dates back to the Middle English period (1100–1500 CE), when the more complex inflectional affixes found in Old English were slowly dropping out of the language."

Inflection is the systematic relation between words' morphosyntactic content and their morphological form; as such, the phenomenon of inflection raises fundamental questions about the nature of morphology itself and about its interfaces. Within the domain of morphology proper, it is essential to establish how (or whether) inflection differs from other kinds of morphology and to identify the ways in which morphosyntactic content can be encoded morphologically. A number of different approaches to modeling inflectional morphology have been proposed; these tend to cluster into two main groups, those that are morpheme-based and those that are lexeme-based. Morpheme-based theories tend to treat inflectional morphology as fundamentally concatenative; they tend to represent an inflected word's morphosyntactic content as a compositional summing of its morphemes' content; they tend to attribute an inflected word's internal structure to syntactic principles; and they tend to minimize the theoretical significance of inflectional paradigms. Lexeme-based theories, by contrast, tend to accord concatenative and nonconcatenative morphology essentially equal status as marks of inflection; they tend to represent an inflected word's morphosyntactic content as a property set intrinsically associated with that word's paradigm cell; they tend to assume that an inflected word's internal morphology is neither accessible to nor defined by syntactic principles; and they tend to treat inflection as the morphological realization of a paradigm's cells. Four important issues for approaches of either sort are the nature of nonconcatenative morphology, the incidence of extended exponence, the underdetermination of a word's morphosyntactic content by its inflectional form, and the nature of word forms' internal structure. The structure of a word's inventory of inflected forms—its paradigm—is the locus of considerable cross-linguistic variation. In particular, the canonical relation of content to form in an inflectional paradigm is subject to a wide array of deviations, including inflection-class distinctions, morphomic properties, defectiveness, deponency, metaconjugation, and syncretism; these deviations pose important challenges for understanding the interfaces of inflectional morphology, and a theory's resolution of these challenges depends squarely on whether that theory is morpheme-based or lexeme-based.

***Derivational morphology** is a type of word formation that creates new lexemes, either by changing syntactic category or by adding substantial new meaning (or both) to a free or bound*

base. Derivation may be contrasted with inflection on the one hand or with compounding on the other. The distinctions between derivation and inflection and between derivation and compounding, however, are not always clear-cut. New words may be derived by a variety of formal means including affixation, reduplication, internal modification of various sorts, subtraction, and conversion. Affixation is best attested cross-linguistically, especially prefixation and suffixation. Reduplication is also widely found, with various internal changes like ablaut and root and pattern derivation less common. Derived words may fit into a number of semantic categories. For nouns, event and result, personal and participant, collective and abstract noun are frequent. For verbs, causative and applicative categories are well-attested, as are relational and qualitative derivations for adjectives. Languages frequently also have ways of deriving negatives, relational words, and evaluatives. Most languages have derivation of some sort, although there are languages that rely more heavily on compounding than on derivation to build their lexical stock. A number of topics have dominated the theoretical literature on derivation, including productivity (the extent to which new words can be created with a given affix or morphological process), the principles that determine the ordering of affixes, and the place of derivational morphology with respect to other components of the grammar.

Derivational morphology Early on in their creation of words for the categories of things, attributes, states, and events around them, the Grammies realized that there were often pairs of concepts that were associated by a particular abstract relation. For example, given a scalar attribute like the one designated by the word wide, there is the happen event involving a change of state in some object in the direction of that attribute and also the do_to event involving an agent who causes such a change of state. These three related concepts are exemplified in the following English sentences.

wide road The road widens at this point. The workers are widening the road.Note the English uses, the same verb, widen, for both the happen and the do_to events, intransitive widen for the first, transitive widen for the second. Further, the Grammies saw that each of these abstract relations applied to many pairs of concepts. For example, the same relations that relate to the meaning of wide to the meaning of intransitive widen relate meaning of dark to the meaning of darken and the meaning of dead to the meaning of die.
We have seen several examples of how languages capitalize on generalizations such as this to save Speakers and Learners the trouble of learning separate words for each of the concepts they might want to refer to. For example, we saw how adjective + noun phrases avoided the use of a separate word for each combination of attribute dimension value and thing category. With the word red, a speaker could say red apple, red pear, red rock, and red sky, instead of learning a separate word for each of these. Because red can combined with any noun whose meaning is compatible with redness, the pattern red + noun is a productive one in English. In fact the pattern adjective + noun is a productive one, as we've seen.

The Grammies saw that similar advantages could be gained by being systematic about how they created new words from old words on the basis of the abstract relations they'd discovered.

That is, they realized that this was another place where language could make things easier for Learners and Speakers by being productive. For each of the abstract relations, they needed a morpheme to combine with a word, or a lexical root, to form the new word. This process is called derivation.

Derivation is common in the modern languages of the world. For example, many of them have productive ways of relating adjectives to change-of-state verbs. In English the verb is derived from the adjective by adding the suffix -en to the adjective. Examples are weaken, shorten, lighten, blacken, sharpen, soften, and loosen. Notice that this process is only somewhat productive; it doesn't apply to long (verb: lengthen), big (verb: grow), or thin (verb: thin). If we learned a new adjective, say, zub, we might not feel completely confident in making into a verb zubben. In some other languages, such as Amharic, it is usually the adjective that is derived from the verb. For example from the verb root drk' meaning 'get dry', the adjective dIrk' 'dry' is derived.

Another possibility, common in English, is for the two forms to be identical. For example, as we have seen, widen can describe a change in the width of something or a causing of such a change. In the last chapter, we treated these two meanings as two different syntax-semantics mappings. In any case, we have no basis for seeing one of them as derived from the other. Another example is provided by the relatively productive pattern in English by which a noun for an instrument can also be used as a verb designating the use of such an instrument. Examples are hammer, saw, chisel, pin, and nail. Though historically the nouns came first, again we can treat the nouns and verbs simply as related meanings of a single word.

When there is derivational morphology, a Speaker or Hearer of the language must know not only what the grammatical morpheme is and how it combines with the lexical morpheme but also the grammatical convention for how the meaning of the more complex word is derived from the meanings of the two components. Let's consider another English example, the addition of -er to a verb to produce an noun. The compositional convention would say something like this: the meaning of the complex word is a person who acts (routinely or one occasion) as the agent of the category of event (action) which the verb designates. Thus a teacher is a person who acts as the agent of a teaching event. The diagram below illustrates the relationships.
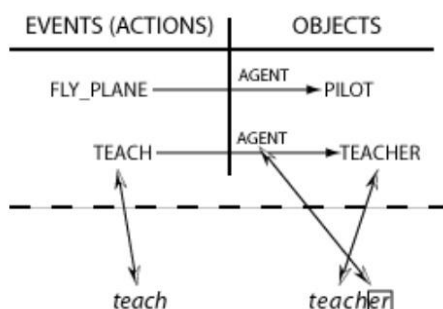
Like the derivation of verbs from adjectives (or adjectives from verbs) the agent noun derivation of one sort or another is quite common in the world's languages. But languages also different considerably in how much they make use of derivational morphology. Languages with rich morphology may allow a very wide range of new words to be derived from a single lexical root. In a sense these languages are making generalization that are not made in other languages, which must rely on separate, unrelated words or whole phrases to convey the different meanings. In the next I'll describe some of the possibilities for derivational morphology on Lingala verbs Like other languages in the Bantu family, Lingala allows a number of different verbs to be derived from a single verb root.

4 What is the difference between the Generativists and Structuralist? In what way have the Generative insights into language contributed to linguistic theory?
Answer-

Generativists - *At the very latest by the end of the sixties, generative grammarians began to concern themselves with the nature of language change. Their basic attitude was that change involved rules which change in an entire system. Take for example the Germanic sound shift again. The generativists maintain that this consisted of a rule change, namely [+continuant] > [-continuant] for all voiceless stops. This type of interpretation has at least two advantages: 1) it shows that the change was a relatively small step (and thus more plausible as small changes are more likely than large ones) and 2) it covers a whole range of segments — plosives — stressing at the same time the common features between them.*

Another instance of a sound change which can be described very elegantly within a generative framework is the development of Auslautverhärtung in German. This is seen as simple rule addition: all obstruents (plosives and fricatives, but not sonorants) change from [+voiced] to [-voiced] in syllable-final position.

Generative grammar strives to account for many instances of language change. For this it developed the idea of markedness. A marked element in a language is one which is statistically rare in the languages of the world. Examples of marked elements are the fricatives [θ] and [ð] in English or the front rounded vowels in German, [y] and [ø]. Consider the latter to begin with. These arose due to a rule addition in Germanic phonology: all back vowels became front vowels — [-front] > [+front] — when they were followed by a high front vowel, e.g. *sconi > schön. This covers all cases (/y/, /ø/ and /ɛ/) and incidentally explains why forms such as Buch : Böcher cannot occur in German.

Not only that, generative grammar can also account for the later loss of umlaut in English. Given that front rounded vowels are marked, there is a natural tendency for them to disappear in the world's languages. Thus in the course of Middle English these vowels were lost, developing to their non- rounded counterparts by the simple change of a feature [+rounded] to [-rounded].

Yet another point should be made here: markedness can explain the occurrence of certain sounds in child language acquisition: marked elements turn up very much later in a child's developing language. Thus voiced final stops and fricatives in English only arise after their voiceless counterparts in keeping with the marked nature of these segments; this also gives a

reason for their development in adult language in the history of German (and of the Slavic languages as well).

Structural Grammar:-
A grammar intended to explain the working of language in terms of the functions of its components and their relationships to each other without reference to meaning.

Structural grammar excludes semantics (construction of meaning) while analyzing individual phonological units of sounds (phonemes), the construction of words (morphemes and inflections), and syntax (function and relationship between sentence parts).

Structural grammar grows from Saussure's work in langue versus parole and diachronic language versus synchronic language. Therefore structural grammar analyzes concrete synchronic expressions of parole in order to find the abstract diachronic universalities of langue. That is to say, it analyzes individuals' concrete expressions of language at a fixed time (not over extended time) in order to understand the abstract (general, societally manifested) fundamentals of language that are constant over time.

Generative Grammar: A grammar intended to explain the universal qualities of language in terms of rules that underlie all grammatically possible sentences in any language and in all language with a distinction made between universal deep structure and individual surface structure.

Generative grammar began by exclusively analyzing syntax (function and relationship between sentence parts) though the field expanded to include analysis of phonology and semantics (phonemes and the construction of meaning). There is some overlap of generative grammar with structural grammar and some divergence.

Generative grammar grows from the work of Noam Chomsky and is founded upon the proposition that a deep cognitive structure generates a syntactic base of all language and it consists of rules governing phrase structure that are implemented in transforming elemental rules into complex expressions. That is to say, there are naturally occurring cognitive rules for phrase formation that are naturally applied in the construction of complex expressions of sentences as language expressions. The transformations are expressed on the surface social structure as actual language. Various languages have the same deep structure, it is postulated, while each has a different surface structure expression.

5 Read the following poem and answer the questions that follow:

i) Pick out the verbs that describe what the father's hand do. 2

Answer- *Fix, make,mend*

ii)What do you usually fix? What is fixed in line 3? What does this tell us about the father? 3
Answer-
Moth's wings are fixed in third line. His father can make machines by mending the fuse.

iii)What usually 'goes dark' (line 6)? What do you think the speaker means when she says 'the world goes dark'? How can the father 'mend the fuse'? 3
Answer-
 Usually the world goes dark.

iv)'can make light swim and walls jump in around me again' (lines 7-8). What do you think this sentence means? What does it tell us about the father in the poem? 3
Answer-
It means that after handling or curing the fuse, the lights or electricity again flows around the city and the darkness collapsed. The whole city or world now lit up with electricity, just because of the father's determination. Father is a very determined and hardworking person and is best in his field.

v What does the speaker mean when she says 'I can see my mother's face again' (line 9)? What do you think has happened to the mother? 3
Answer- *The world goes dark, because of the electricity cut, so when the father handled the fuse, the author is able to see his mother's face again, which went dark and invisible in the darkness.*

vi Many capital letters and full stops have not been used. What is the effect of leaving them out the poem? 2
Answer-
There were so much capital latter and full stops used, which makes it a continuous poem and the flow of the poem remains continuous throughout. The continuous flow makes it more interesting and makes the author to involve in it, to be in it completely

vii What kind of a person is the father in the poem? Write a short passage on him. How does his daughter feel about him?
Answer-

The father is the very dedicated and hardworking person. He is very strong as he can fixhe moth's wings. He loves his daughter and he cared about her very much as he can fix the things of her toys, which makes her happy. He is a very hardworking, caring and strong man.
His daughter loves him so much. As for her, her father is a superhero and very strong. He don't want anything to hunt him or his hands, as she loves very much.