

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

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UNIVERSITAS MUHAMMADIYAH SIDOARJO

BUKU AJAR MATA KULIAH INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

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PREFACE

This book is written as the supplementary materials for teacher or student in Introduction to Linguistics subject. The materials consist of theories and practice of Introduction to Linguistics including language & linguistics, phonetics, phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, pragmatics, and discourse analysis. We also tried to enhance the students' critical thinking on the practice session; we name it Students Activities. From these activities, it is expected that the students are not only be able to comprehend the theoretical framework of introduction to linguistics, but also to improve students' ability to analyze language in the form of written or verbal.

Finally, we realize that there are many drawbacks in this book; therefore, we would be very grateful and welcome for any corrections, comments, and criticism from all readers for our improvement. Thank you!

Learning Objectives of Introduction to Linguistics

Course description : This course deals with language and certain languages and the ability to analyze language structure based on various views of language. Topics include linguistics as a scientific study of language, characteristics of language, phonological analysis, morphological analysis, syntactic analysis, semantic analysis, language change, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, transformational grammar, and functional grammar.

Standard of Competence : On successful completion of this course, students should be able to understand the scopes of Linguistics that will be beneficial in learning Linguistics

Basic Competence :

1. Students can understand the definition and scope of linguistics and language
2. Students can understand the definition and scope of phonetics
3. Students can understand the definition and scope of phonology
4. Students can understand the definition and scope of Morphology
5. Students can understand the definition and scope of Syntax

6. Students can understand the definition and and scope of Semantics
7. Students can understand the definition and scope of Pragmatic
8. Students can understandthe definition and scope of Discourse Analysis

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About the Author

Linguistics & Language

What is Linguistics?

Linguistics is a wide and vast spread world. It is defined as a scientific study of language: its structure, its use and the implications of both (structure and use). Linguists just deals with human language; how people communicate one another, what kinds of communication they are doing and the meaning being communicated. Moreover, how your brain processes information, how language can be coded (audio, visual, touch), how people make speech sounds and what sounds there are, how language change over times, how grammar works and what grammar is, how we code ideas into language, how language works socially, how humans acquire languages as children and adults, identifying and codifying the current meaning and the use of words are those included in the domain of linguistics. Specifically, there are only three essential aspects of linguistics, including language **form**, language **meaning**, and language **use** in discursive and communicative contexts. To get simplified idea of what is meant, consider the following example:

A good woman } **Hyphotesis:**
A beautiful flower Adjective always precede nouns

but against the hyphotesis, we could find the following acceptable sentences:

The woman is good. } Where the adjectives do not precede,
 The flower is } beautiful. but it modifies the nouns.

In addition, a careful study of the language would produce further samples, such as:

Love everlasting } Again, the position of adjective
 impossible } contradicts our original hypothesis.

With regard to English, the adjectives are use in two main ways:
 a) it can be put on before nouns (attributively) as in *a good woman*,
 and b) it can be used predictively, that is following a verb, as in *The woman is good.* Scope of Linguistics

Furthermore, linguistics has covered some elements of language and their functions which are classified into a number of sub-disciplines: Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Pragmatics, Lexicology, Discourse Analysis, Language Acquisition, and many others. In principle, each of these sub-disciplines is independent; giving many possible approaches to the subject matter of linguistics. In short, the scope of linguistics is anything you can conceive that involves human language.

What is Language?

Speculating the origin of language has been become a long tradition. Most of this does not apply principles of historical continuity and interrelation. WHY DOES LANGUAGE EXIST IN HUMAN BEINGS' LIFE? Language is an evolutionary phenomenon that is continually adapted for communicative purpose of its speakers. It exists because of the people's ability to learn languages in general and their practice in dealing with at least one particular language. Each language is actually adapted for the community which

speaks it, be this industrialised or not. That is why no *primitive* languages, but language seems to be as old as our species.

Language is *neutral* and should not be the object of value judgement. It consists largely of rules which determine its use. Knowledge of language refers to many abstract structures (i.e. sentence types or systematic units such as phonemes/morphemes). The organs of speech are biologically *secondary*, but their rise has led to a specialisation such as the flexibility of the tongue which distinguishes humans from higher primates. Characteristic of Language

Even though, some linguists vary in their definitions of language. They agreed, however, that language is a *system of vocal signs* with an internal structure and uses for the communicative needs of human being. Bear in mind that language also can be expressed in writing, with the result that it is not limited in time or space. The secondary function of language that is carrying a social message.

The correlation between signs and what is symbolised is *arbitrary*, but fixed by social convention. To make it clear, the definition of the language can be interpreted as follows:

1. *Language as a system* – it has own set of rules. A number of examples will clarify this point. The word “water” is “eau” in French, “uisce” in Gaelic. The choice of word is arbitrary, that is unpredictable, but speaker of French and Gaelic regularly use the form from their language to refer to H₂O which is water.

- In English, we say : I am hungry.
- In French : J’ai faim. (literally, I have hunger)
- In Gaelic: Tà ocraas orm. (literally, Be hunger on me)

There is no way in which we could say that one is more “natural” than either of the others. Languages are arbitrary in their selection and

combination of items, but systematic in that similar ideas are expressed in similar ways, thus:

- English : I am thirsty.
- French : *J'ai soif*. (literally, I have thirst)
- Gaelic : *Tà tart orm*. (literally, Be thirst on me)

And finally, there are no inferior languages. All languages appear to equally complex and all are adequate to the needs of their users.

2. *Language is sign of vocal sounds* - It has meaning that relates to every single aspects of human's life who use it.
3. *Language is system of sounds* - with no knowledge about the written language, people might be able to speak language. It is caused basic of language is a sound.
4. *Language-in-use* – language is also influenced by contextual things. Some people said that language depends on community agreement. Marker, for example, is an inked thing to write in whiteboard and when it translate to Indonesia, most of Indonesian speaker agree to call it *spidol*.
5. *Language is productive* - Even though the system of language features is limited, but it can be used unlimitedly. For example, in English there are 4 types of sentences; interrogative, declarative, imperative and exclamative sentences, however based on these types, we able to make billion sentences.
6. *Language is unique* - Each language has a broad range of systems. English has 50 words to describe kinds of leaves which cannot be explained in other languages.
7. *Language is universal*. Adjective modify nouns; *young man, angry mom*, and so on.

8. *Language has several variations.* Any social group has minimum one language that only known by themselves.

There is a significant distinction between the act of uttering language – *parole/performance* – and the system of a language which can be seen as the abstract ability of the single speaker to speak his native language – *competence* – and the communal linguistic knowledge which defines a speech community – *langue*.

9. *Language is social identity.* A social identity which unite what is call and show a nation.

10. *Language has a function.* It depends on these factors: who, what, with whom, about who, where, how, what for, when and what language is spoken.

Language and Medium

A language is an abstraction. All normal children of all races learn to speak the language of their community, so speech has often been seen as the important medium of language. The abstract system which is language can also be expressed in writing. Speech and writing are

both necessary in a technologically advanced society. relationship between language its medium is figured as follows:

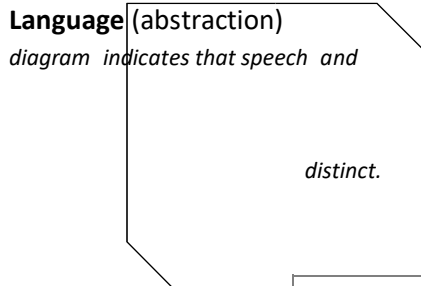
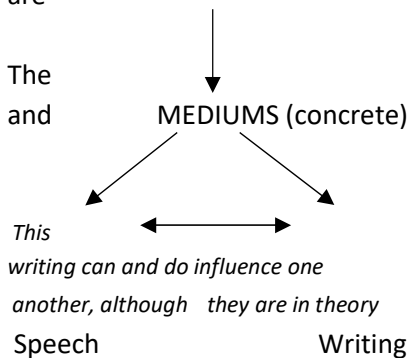


diagram indicates that speech and


Consider the main difference between speech and writing, the two main mediums in which language is expressed:

Speech	Writing
Composed of sounds	Composed of letters/signs
Addressee present	Adressee absent
Transitory	Relatively permanent
Immediate feedback	Feedback delayed
Spontaneous	Not spontaneous
Associative	Logical
Produced effortlessly – no tools required	Produced with effort – tools required

Such a list is adequate enough to indicate that both speech and writing are different mediums. We do not have to speak a language in to read and write it. Therefore, to have mastery of a language means being able to produce an infinite number of the language, and being able to decipher the infinity of language patterns produced by other users of the language. it is a two-way process involving both **production** and **reception**.

On the other hand, language competence involves the association of the meaning (and sometimes sounds) with a sign, a visual symbol. Thus, our study of language will involve us in an appraisal of all of the following levels of language:

Linguistics Levels

Object of study	Name of field	Size of unit
All human sounds	PHONETICS	Smallest
Classified sounds	PHONOLOGY	

Words, forms	MORPHOLOGY	
Sentences, clauses	SYNTAX	
Meaning	SEMANTICS	
Language use	PRAGMATICS	
Complex language use	DISCOURSE	Largest

When we have examined these levels, we acquire the necessary tools to study languages in general (linguistics), the variety in language and the uses to which people put language (sociolinguistics), the ways in which people teach and learn language (applied linguistics), and the value of linguistics in understanding the human mind (psycholinguistics).

CHAPTER 2

PHONETICS

Language as the only mean of communication used by human has long been integrated with an aural concept, which is familiarly known as sound. In a concise concept, one ought to be able in producing sound before generating a simple communication by utilizing a particular language. By understanding this theory, the study of human body's physiology became inseparable part of sound involvement within the domain of linguistics, by which entitled as **Phonetics**. Such subtle difference is often confusing for most learners. The term itself is a derivation from a Greek word of φωνή, which roughly translated into phone = *sound/voice*. Along with Phonology, both are classified as the branch of broader linguistics discipline. As language requires a written alphabet, English has widely known to use Latin alphabet for centuries. Nonetheless, Latin does not always compatible with other languages, and its orthographies (conventional spelling system of a language) aren't always suitable sources of pronunciation, since Latin has also been absorbed by other languages as well.

As for the example, try to type "X" (without quotation mark) in Google Translate; then try to translate the letter from, say, English to Albania. Obviously you won't see any difference in term of translation there, but the point is to highlight the differences in each alphabetical pronunciation. Then, try to listen to its pronunciation by clicking the loudspeaker icon. The /x/ letter, which is originated from Latin, has various pronunciation. It is pronounced [gz] in English, [dʒ] in Albanian, even varying [ʃ] in Portuguese, and many more.

Such example portrays the image on how singular alphabet may leads to different pronunciations in various languages. Surprisingly, a phonetic alphabet can also represents many unlike alphabets. For

instance, vowel letter [ə], might represent letter a in “about”, i in “compatible”, u in “circus”, e in “believe”, and o in “oblige”. This is caused by the fact that language does evolve over time. The dialectal growth and language change often being accused upon such mismatch. This reason justifies that sounds of a language also change eventually.

Upon this introductory part, we will try to further investigate all about Phonetic in a rather streamlined approach. Be sure to read from another available sources to support your comprehension, and broaden your viewpoint towards the wonder of linguistics. **Origin of Phonetic**

When it comes to the beginning of standard in grammatical set of rules upon sounds production, one might refers into the finding of “the most complete generative grammar” written by an ancient Sanskrit linguists as well as a Hindus scholar, Pāṇini, who surprisingly also considered as the Father of Linguistic, around the 6th century. Most Indic alphabetic used today were (unlike Tamil script) derived from his work. There are several accounts that refer his finding has immensely influenced both Greek and Anglo-Saxon phonetical system.

Going ahead into the 17th and 18th century, the finding of nasal (N and M) as well as lateral (L) sounds are made. In these eras, a discovery of a recording machine or some audial device developments, immensely boosted the growth of such study, amongst other linguistic disciplines. In the latest development, right around the 19th and 20th century, the International Phonetic Association decided to create a rather complex and most sophisticated phonetic notation, derived from Latin alphabet, in order to describes all sounds from any possible language.

Nowadays, Phonetic in modern culture is studied alongside with its complement, the discipline of Phonology. Aside from that, the invention initiated by Alexander Melville Bell, developed an

influential phonetic alphabet in accord with articulatory position, in which its presence has gained an exceptional distinction as an instrument of oral education of deaf children, which is famed as Visible Speech.

International Phonetic Alphabet

Prior to the slight history mentioned before, an International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) existed as the mean of representing the sounds of spoken language, which was devised around the late of 19th century. IPA covers all manifestations of speech, ranging from phones, phonemes, intonation, as well as words and syllables segmentation. Its elements consisted of letters and diacritics. So far, IPA has developed around 107 letters that symbolize vowel and consonants, 31 diacritics, as well as 19 additional signs, which indicate suprasegmental part (intonation, length, stress, and tone). These items then displayed into a specific chart, officially made by the organization, which looked like the following picture:

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal		m ɱ		n ɳ		ɳ̺	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill		ʙ		ʀ					ʀ̥		
Tap or Flap			v̥	ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Symbols to the right in a cell are voiced, to the left are voiceless. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

© 2014 IPA. Reproduced from *Journal of Phonetics*, 42, 663–681 (2014).

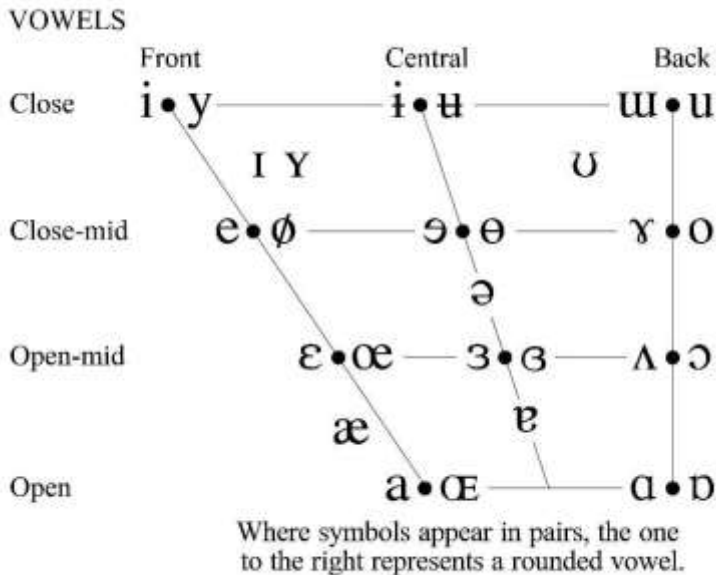
Figure 1. Consonants (Pulmonic)

CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
⊙ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	' Examples:
Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	ɓ' Bilabial
! (Post)alveolar	ɟ Palatal	ɗ' Dental/alveolar
≠ Palatoalveolar	ɠ Velar	ɠ' Velar
Alveolar lateral	ʛ Uvular	ʂ' Alveolar fricative

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Figure 2. Consonants (Non-Pulmonic)



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Figure 3. Vowels

DIACRITICS Some diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. $\overset{\circ}{\underset{\cdot}{\eta}}$

◦ Voiceless	$\overset{\circ}{n}$ $\overset{\circ}{d}$.. Breathy voiced	$\overset{..}{b}$ $\overset{..}{a}$	ˆ Dental	$\overset{\hat{}}{t}$ $\overset{\hat{}}{d}$
∨ Voiced	$\overset{\vee}{s}$ $\overset{\vee}{t}$	˜ Creaky voiced	\tilde{b} \tilde{a}	ˆ Apical	$\overset{\hat{}}{t}$ $\overset{\hat{}}{d}$
h Aspirated	$\overset{h}{t}$ $\overset{h}{d}^h$	˘ Linguolabial	$\overset{\text{˘}}{t}$ $\overset{\text{˘}}{d}$	◻ Laminar	$\overset{\square}{t}$ $\overset{\square}{d}$
ː More rounded	$\overset{\text{ː}}{o}$	ˆ Labialized	$\overset{\hat{}}{t}^w$ $\overset{\hat{}}{d}^w$	˜ Nasalized	\tilde{e}
˘ Less rounded	$\overset{\text{˘}}{o}$	ˆ Palatalized	$\overset{\hat{}}{t}^j$ $\overset{\hat{}}{d}^j$	ˆ Nasal release	$\overset{\hat{}}{d}^n$
˘ Advanced	$\overset{\text{˘}}{u}$	ˆ Velarized	$\overset{\hat{}}{t}^v$ $\overset{\hat{}}{d}^v$	ˆ Lateral release	$\overset{\hat{}}{d}^l$
˘ Retracted	$\overset{\text{˘}}{e}$	ˆ Pharyngealized	$\overset{\hat{}}{t}^{\text{ˆ}}$ $\overset{\hat{}}{d}^{\text{ˆ}}$	ˆ No audible release	$\overset{\hat{}}{d}^{\text{ˆ}}$
˘ Centralized	$\overset{\text{˘}}{e}$	ˆ Velarized or pharyngealized	$\overset{\hat{}}{t}$		
˘ Mid-centralized	$\overset{\text{˘}}{e}$	ˆ Raised	$\overset{\hat{}}{e}$ ($\overset{\hat{}}{I}$ = voiced alveolar fricative)		
˘ Syllabic	$\overset{\text{˘}}{n}$	ˆ Lowered	$\overset{\hat{}}{e}$ ($\overset{\hat{}}{\beta}$ = voiced bilabial approximant)		
˘ Non-syllabic	$\overset{\text{˘}}{e}$	ˆ Advanced Tongue Root	$\overset{\hat{}}{e}$		
˘ Rhoticity	$\overset{\text{˘}}{a}$ $\overset{\text{˘}}{a}^r$	ˆ Retracted Tongue Root	$\overset{\hat{}}{e}$		

© 2018 IPA. Transcription: Diacritics SE, Quantities: Diacritics SE, IPA: K&L, IPA: LS Use modification.

Figure 4. Diacritics

Classification

In aspect of category, the focus of Phonetic itself is divided into three major parts. Those parts are production (articulatory), transmission (acoustic), as well as perception (auditive) of sounds. Yet, before stepping further into the explanation, one ought to bear in mind that there are two kinds of sounds existed as major discussion within this study. The first is **consonant**, while the second is **vowel**. Another term that we should be aware of, is the category of sounds. There are phones, which is human sounds; phonemes, or units that distinguish meaning in a language; and allophones, or non-distinctive units. These explanations are the very basic understanding towards phonetic study.

Since the focus of Phonetic discipline mostly lies upon the study of consonant and vowels, phoneticians devised a mean of characterization of consonant through the place arrangement that involves our articulation organs, manner of articulations, as well as its voice (whether the produced sound is voiced or voiceless). While the identification for vowels solely rely on a system of coordinate called as vowel quadrangle. Be sure to check the IPA chart displayed prior to this subchapter, as our reliable reference.

Organs of Speech

As slightly mentioned before, prior to the introduction, discussing Phonetic also requires better understanding towards human physiology, especially upon our speech organs (which is known as vocal organs as well). This is due to the fact that identification for speech production, will inevitably leads to the role of each speech organ itself. In general, our speech organs are consisted of three major parts, namely:

1. Lungs

Humans were gifted by lungs not only as a respiratory organ, yet, it also serves as a medium to control airflow, which is an essential requirement for speech production (its mechanism will be discussed in separate segment). Lungs, which is consisted of both right and left hemisphere. It is a spongy organ that expands as well as contracts as we breathe, and is protected by a rib cage. In a shortened mode, lungs were distinguished into left and right hemisphere. The amount of airflow varies from one human to another.

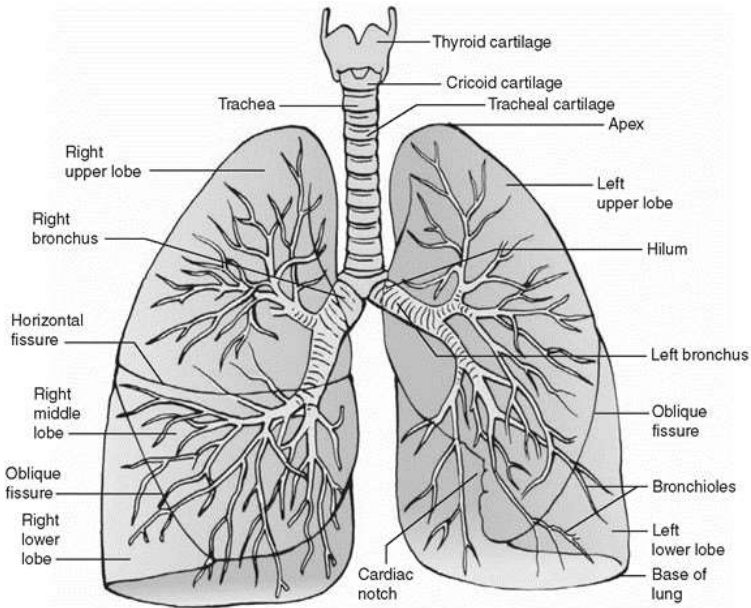


Figure 5. Lungs

2. Larynx and Vocal Folds

Voice box is another term coined towards larynx due to its boxy-shaped structure located in front of our throat, which is marked by a peculiar protuberance. This is why aside from voice box, larynx is colloquially known as Adam's apple. Along with larynx, there are also trachea and vocal cords (later known as folds). An opening called as glottis lies between the two folds.

The various phases of glottis opening may resulting in different sounds. When the folds opened wide, they don't vibrate. The sounds created from this state are named breathed or voiceless sounds.

3. Articulators

A transformation of sound into either an active or passive form of intelligible speech may only be carried by articulators.

They includes virtually any organ inside our mouth, starting from pharynx, teeth, alveolar ridge, hard palate, softer velum, lips, tongue, jaws then nose, along with its cavity. Below is a simplified rough sketch of what our articulators look like.

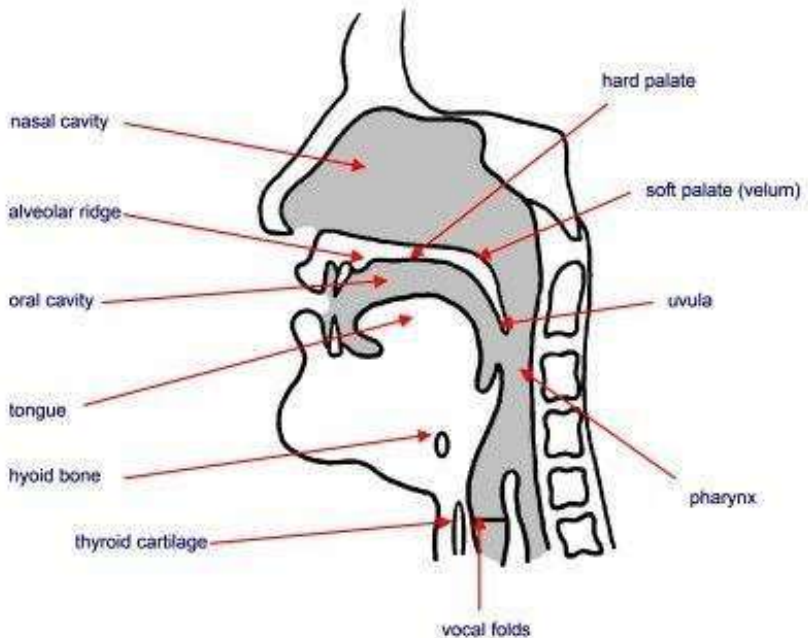


Figure 6. Vocal Tract

In order to deepen our understanding upon the role for each articulatory organ, we'll break down every unit and describe it in a summarized manner, as follow:

a. Pharynx

This intersection of fissure from both nose and mouth, lies just above the larynx.

b. Roof of the mouth

Along with tongue, this part of our mouth is considered as a major speech organ. There are three sections of this organs. These sections are alveolar ridge that produces alveolar sounds, hard palate, as well as velum or soft palate that responsible in producing velar-sounds.

c. Lips

This organ is able to produce both bilabial and labiodental sounds. Lips positioning, or in other term lip-rounding, regarded as major requirement for producing vowel sounds. Our lips are able to form three different shape. There are rounded, spread, and neutral shaped.

d. Teeth

This organ might be as debatable as jaws, yet we can arguably understand that a contact with either lips or tongue will produce a peculiar sounds useful for producing speech.

e. Tongue

Generally, our tongue is divided into four parts. The tip, the blade, the front, and the back. These parts are responsible in producing many sounds, specifically the vowels, assuming our tongue's flexibility to from many shapes.

f. Jaws

Despite the controversy, several phoneticians regard jaws as one of these articulators. This consideration was made seeing how our mouth movement is also influenced by our jaws muscle.

g. Nose and Nasal Cavity

Nasal sounds are made by the help of nose and nasal cavity.

These sounds are /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/.

Mechanism of Airstream

Naturally there is practically no sound possible to be produced without the presence of airflow. In this nature, studying the air current operation will serve us all a better chance in properly knowing the speech production. Almost every single speech sound is formed by pushing lung air out of our body through either mouth or our nose. In technical aspect, there are two major kinds of sound, based on the way they are generated through the use of airflows. The first one is called as egressive sound, whereas the second is ingressive sound.

Both has their own classifications respectively. The difference for both term only lies upon where the airflow is directed. Egressive sounds are emerged from a condition where the airstream is created by flowing out air through either mouth or nose. Egressive sounds are split into three types according to their origin. There are pulmonic egressive (lung), glottalic egressive (glottis), and lingual or velaric egressive (tongue or velum). Almost any sounds in spoken languages known by humanity so far, are both pulmonic and egressive.

Contrary to the previous type, ingressive sounds are created from an inward flow of airstream through either our nose or mouth. While in term of classification, similarly to egressive sounds, ingressive sounds are also composed from three different type. Unlike egressive sounds, this kind of sounds were found only in several languages. Most linguists even found that most of these 'few language' are even considered as paralanguage (component of metacommunication). The example of these few languages are Japanese and Scandinavian.

Aside from the airflow directions, linguist also discern that there are other focuses that might be addressed within this topic.

These following points are the possible issues that one ought to pay attention to, in regards with airstream mechanism:

1. Voiced vs. Voiceless

Both of this approaches are one of the identifier for any sounds. In order to differentiate the sound, we ought to analyze the airflow exhaled or respired through the windpipe (or trachea). Voiceless sound will be made when vocal folds were spread apart. Thus forming no frictions during the flow. Another instantons way in differentiating both voiced and voiceless sounds is by touching your own throat (around Adam's apple) slightly by one or two fingers. You will faintly feel the reverb.

2. Nasal vs. Oral

When we produce a sound, there will always be a stop. This obvious concept makes phoneticians distinguished kinds of stops human could make. Consequently, we've agreed that the only stops are both by nasal and oral means. Nasal stop was made by creating a whole barrier of the airflow in oral cavity, then lowering the velum to allow air pass through our nasal cavity. The opposite mechanism works for oral stop. It was created by completely blocking the airflow in oral cavity, then swiftly releasing the construction to let the air pass through.

Sounds Identification & Place of Articulation

As we might've noticed all along; that consonants and vowels in Phonetic discipline are overwhelmingly diverse. We cannot call or name them by using a standard alphabetical name, as we did with our letter. Therefore, identifying each of the sound in order to designate a name is the only solution. First of all, there is a need to describe the names for each consonant. For instance, [p] is a voiceless bilabial stop, while [m] is a bilabial nasal. In order to understand such identification, we ought to comprehend these units first:

1. Vowel

This kind of sounds generally made with the airflow that encounters no obstruction within our articulatory organs. In aspect of stability, vowels are divided into three different group. These group are monophthong, diphthong, and diphthongoids. Monophthong are vowel that has practically static articulations, they are [i], [e], [æ], [a:], [o], [o:], [U], [ʌ], [ə:], and [ə].

For diphthongs, there's a shift in speech organs from one vowel position to another within one syllable. The nucleus as starting point is mild and different. The examples are: [ei], [ai], [oi], [au], [əu], [iə], [ɛə] and [uə]. Meanwhile, diphthongoids' articulation is changing, though the difference between its starting and end point is a bit contradictory. The example of this vowels are: [i:] and [u:].

2. Consonant

In this regard, along with the previous understanding of consonant, that it is divided into voiced and voiceless in accord with the work of our vocal folds and exhalation force. Meanwhile, based on the position of the active speech organs, then consonants are divided into: labial, lingual, and glottal. Even further, labial and lingual type will be subdivided into several segments.

For labial, there are another smaller parts. These parts are bilabial and labiodental. Bilabial is triggered when we produced sounds by utilizing our both upper and lower lips. These sounds are /p/, /b/, /m/, and /w/. Almost similar to the previous type, labiodental involves lower lip and upper teeth. Consonants produced through this approach are /f/ and /v/.

In the meantime, lingual consonants consisted of: forelingual, mediolingual, and backlingual. This segmentation might be a bit complex compared to labial subdivisions. We better pay extra attention to this classification. Forelingual is further

classified into two types based on the position of tip tongue. These are apical (tongue tip again upper teeth or alveolar ridge) and cacuminal.

While based on the place of airflow impediment, forelingual may be divided into interdental, alveolar, post-alveolar and palato-alveolar. For mediolingual, the consonants are created with the front part of the tongue, like /j/. Whereas backlingual will relies upon the back of the tongue (which is also called as velum). The example of this type of consonant are /k/ and /g/.

Mentioned specifically, glottal consonant is articulated, as the name refers, in our glottis. The example is /h/ sound.

3. Word Stress

For most English learners, who also happened to be nonnative in general, word stress sometimes become our magic keys in order to master the fluency of speaking. Despite each region has its own dialect or accent, yet the rule of word stress remained the same. In order to fully understand this concept, let's take a look upon what should be emphasized in stressing.

It is none other than syllable itself. Every single word has its own syllable, and each syllable has a key of stressing. Unfortunately, the rule of word stressing is somehow tricky, and quite abstract (for beginner). In English, people naturally don't heighten all syllables with the same force. To stress means that you have to say one syllable in a strong way and the other syllable in a faint style.

Let's get into practical example. There are three words with the same roots. These are photograph, photographer, and photographic. People who don't really pay enough attention towards word stressing may assume that these words sounds and are pronounced the same. However, the fact is that, we have two ironclad rule of word stressing to be considered.

First is that one word, one stress. This means that when you heard two stresses, this probably means that either you've heard two words, or you just simply misheard something. Second, a stress is always lie on vowel. Thus, prior to the previous example, the appropriate way to pronounce it (like a native) will be: Photo-graph, Pho-to-graph-er, and Pho-to-graph-ic.

4. Rhythm, Reduction, and Elision

To give a brief summary, rhythm is something that can be found practically everywhere. Yet, rhythm in language is noticed by how a pattern of successive syllables are timed. In some language, most syllables are given the same length, whereas other languages (such Japanese and Arabic) that put a strong emphasize towards rhythm of its syllables in each word.

Knowing the ever-evolving nature of language, there will be a historical phase of vowel weakening, shortening, and even worse, disappearance. This phase is called as reduction. It is significantly correlated with how people from a certain community pronounce each of the required syllable in a word that later formed a sentence. Reduction itself is the reflection of grammatical and lexical changes, which will need further discussion another standalone subchapter to discuss its complexity.

In term of type, there are three kinds of reduction. These are quantitative (i.e. shortening of a vowel sound in the unstressed position), qualitative (vowels obstruction against ə, ɪ, u), then lastly is vowels elision.

5. The Use of Rising and Falling Tone

Each of spoken language has its own intonation (or by some called as speech melody) that suits with its speakers. Intonation became a peculiar trademark for a particular language since most language's intonations are so diverse one to another.

Bear in mind that intonation is an aspect that partially responsible for the creation of dialect and accent. Take a look to the following picture:

LEVEL		CONTOUR	
ě	or ʌ	Extra high	ě or ʌ Rising
é	ʌ	High	ê ∨ Falling
ē	┘	Mid	ě ʌ High rising
è	┘	Low	ě ʌ Low rising
ě	┘	Extra low	ě ʌ Rising-falling
↓		Downstep	↗ Global rise
↑		Upstep	↘ Global fall

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Dúndis SIL, IPA Kiel, IPA L3 Utc (symbols)

Figure 7. Tones and Accents

We will not probe further into dialectical and accent differences, but we also have to consider other influential factors that affect the way a language is spoken through a certain intonation. Age, sex, and even speaker personalities might be some of noticeable factors. These variables will give impact towards speakers' preference in picking intonation during his/her speech.

As the title implies, aside from flat tone, there are another intonations worth to be considered. The rising and falling intonation. Unlike its comparable type, falling intonations are widely used in command, exclamatory sentences, and special questions. While rising intonation is rather uncommon in English, some region applied this kind of intonation within their own English.

Summary

Mastering the concept of Phonetic means that you are one step closer in understanding the proper utilization of a language, in a spoken mean. Moreover it becomes a crucial key in comprehending the sounds making, which is a physical thing. Though you might regard both Phonetic and Phonology as an interloping study (despite all the explanations), bear in mind that Phonetic is universal, while Phonology is language-specific.

CHAPTER 3

PHONOLOGY

Although heavily related to the previous chapter, assuming we could agree to the nature of language production, the study that is focusing towards systematic sound's concept, in other hand is called as **Phonology**. Though synonymous, in order to simplify the differences, we may think Phonetic as the study of sound in smaller bits of phonetics symbol, whereas Phonology concerned in a larger chunk of sound unit called as phonemes, since singular sound alone (sometimes) is not enough to fulfill the criterion of what language is.

In a nutshell, while Phonetic delves into the pure nature (or sense) of sound, whereas Phonology investigates classification of sounds in a particular system mentioned prior to the previous explanation. It also deals with sounds combination. Phonologists are interested in the sound patterns of particular languages, and in what speaker and hearer need to know, and children need to learn, to be speakers of those languages.

Phoneme

As mentioned before, phonology concerns on **phonemes**, which the basic unit of sound and are sensed in your mind rather than spoken or heard. Each phoneme has one or more sounds called **allophones** associated with it, which represent the actual sound being produced in several environments. To qualify as allophones of the same phoneme, two (or more) phones, that is sounds, must meet two criteria. First, their distribution must be predictable, while the second is if one phone is exceptionally substituted for the other in the same context, that substitution must not correspond to a meaning difference. Even if you say *kitchen cupboard* with the [k] first and the [c] second, an English speaker will notice that you have an unfamiliar accent; but importantl, she will understand that you mean

'kitchen cupboard'. This would not be so where a realisation of one phoneme is replaced by a realisation of another: if the [k] allophone of /k/ is replaced by the [t] allophone of /t/, then *tall* will be understood instead of *call*.

Although in English [k] and [c] are allophones of the same phoneme, and are regarded as the same sound, but in Hungarian they are different phonemes. Take a look the following example, we take a minimal pairs of words which differ in meaning:

- In Hungarian, *kuka* [kuka] 'dustbin' and *kutya* [kuca] 'dog'. It follows that [k] and [c] are not in complementary but in contrastive distributin; that interchanging them does make a mening difference between words; and hence that [k] and [c] nelong to different phonemes.

Phonemes are central to phonology means it is well worth giving a few examples, to make the concept more familiar. Now we return to /t/ and /k/ as in *tall* and *call*, now add *Paul* /p/ to our phoneme system. Try to hold a piece of paper up in front of your mouth by the bottom of the sheet, so the top is free to flap about, and then saying *Paul*, *tall*, *call*. You will find that a little air comes out to release after the initial /p/, /t/, and /k/, making the paper move slightly is known ad **aspiration**, and signalled in IPA transcription by adding a superscript [h] after the symbol in question. This means that /p/, /t/ and /k/ have the allophones [p^h], [t^h] and [k^h] word-initially; the aspiration is noticeable [p^h], since it's articulated with the lips, nearest to where the air exits.

This time, try to make yourself aware the initial aspiration in *pill*, *till* and *kill*, you will produce [p^h] and [t^h], but the allophone of /k/ will be different; the front vowel in *kill*, aspirated [c^h]. If you add an initial [s] and do the piece of trick again, you will find unvisible movement. After [s], we find plain, unaspirated allophones [p], [th] and [c] in *spill*, *still*, *skill* (and unaspirated [k] in *scold*, as opposed to [k^h] in *cold*, where /k/

is followed by a back vowel. At the ends, /k/ is often accompanied by a partial glottal stop is called **glottal reinforcement**, and the final sound in *back* is signalled in IPA terms as [ʔk]. When a following word begin with [g], for example, this [ʔk] is sometimes replaced by a glottal stop, as in *back garden*, where you may perceive the [ʔ] allophone of /k/ as almost a pause before the [g]. Glottalisation is more common for /t/: in forms like *statəment*, *butəter*, *seatəbelt*, meaning that the glottal stop in English can be an allophone of both /k/ and /t/.

The Phoneme System

This part will lead you to go deeper on some exercises as tool of phoneme identification. Phoneme identification is used to check whether certain sounds in different words are from single phoneme or not.

- Minimal Pairs and set

This exercise laid on the two fundamental principles of predictability: [1] if two sounds appear in non-overlapping, predictable set of context, and if substituting one for the other doesn't make semantic difference, then those two sounds must be allophones of a single phonemes; [2] if those two sounds can appear in the same environment, producing different words, then they belong to different phonemes. This way of identification can be completed through commutation test, involving placement of different sounds in particular context to see if minimal pairs result. Take a look on the following examples:

[a] The weather is so hot, you need to turn on the **fan**

[b] I go to the beach by my new **van**

In the above example, the word *fan* which contains phoneme [f] cant be interchangeably placed in the sentences with *van* even if both have similar sound of [f] and [v]. This is the proof

that they belong to different phonemes. And this way of exercise is called **minimal pairs**.

When a group of words can be differentiated, each one from the others, by changing one phoneme (always in the same position in the word), then we have a **minimal set**. For example, one minimal set based on the vowel phonemes of English could include feat, fit, fat, fate, fought, foot, and another minimal set based on consonant phonemes could have big, pig, rig, fig, dig, wig.

- **Phonotactics**

This type of exercise involving minimal sets also allows us to see that there are definite patterns in the types of sound combinations permitted in a language. In English, the minimal set we have just listed does not include forms such as lig or vig. According to the dictionary, these are not English words, but they could be viewed as possible English words. That is, our phonological knowledge of the pattern of sounds in English words would allow us to treat these forms as acceptable if, at some future time, they came into use. They might, for example, begin as invented abbreviations, like in:

[a] I think Bubba is one very ignorant guy. ~ Yeah, he's a big vig!

[**Vig** is abbreviation from **very ignorant**]

Until then, they represent “accidental” gaps in the vocabulary of English. It is, however, no accident that forms such as [fsɪg] or [rɪnɪg] do not exist or are unlikely ever to exist. They have been formed without obeying some constraints on the sequence or position of English phonemes.

Such constraints are called the **phonotactics** (i.e. permitted arrangements of sounds) in a language and are obviously part of every speaker's phonological knowledge. Because these constraints operate on a unit that is larger than the single segment or phoneme, we have to move on to a consideration of the basic structure of that larger phonological unit called the syllable.

Syllable

Speakers certainly have an intuitive notion of how many syllables each word contains: for instance, speakers of English would generally agree that *meadow*, *dangerous* and *antidisestablishmentarianism* (allegedly the longest word in the language) have two, three and twelve syllables respectively.

It is less easy for speakers to reflect consciously on the internal structure of syllables, or to decide where one stops and the next starts; but a wide variety of cross-linguistic studies have helped phonologists construct a universal template for the syllable, within which particular languages select certain options.

A **syllable** must contain a vowel or vowel-like sound, including diphthongs. The most common type of syllable in language also has a consonant (C) before the vowel (V) and is typically represented as CV. Technically, the basic elements of the syllable are the **onset** (one or more consonants) followed by the **rhyme**.

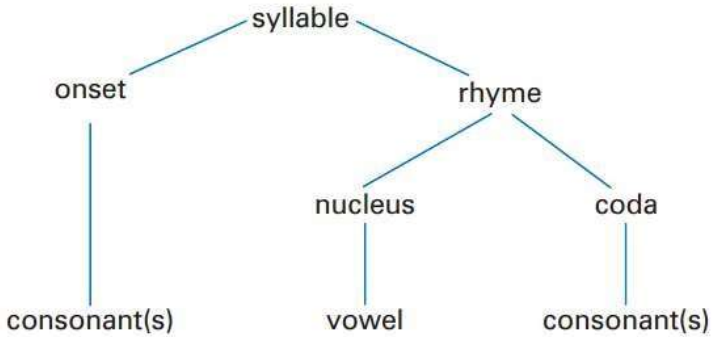


Figure 8. Common Structure of Syllable

The rhyme or written as “rime”) consists of a vowel, which is treated as the **nucleus**, plus any following consonant(s), described as the **coda**. Syllables like me, to or no has an onset and a nucleus, but no coda. They are known as **open syllables**. When a coda is present, as in the syllables up, cup, at or hat, they are called **closed syllables**. The basic structure of the kind of syllable found in English words like green (CCVC), eggs (VCC), and (VCC), ham (CVC), I (V), do (CV), not (CVC), like (CVC), them (CVC), Sam (CVC), I (V), am (VC) is shown in the accompanying diagram.

Co-articulation

In much of the preceding discussion, we have been describing speech sounds in syllables and if they are always pronounced carefully and deliberately, almost in slow motion. Speech isn’t normally like that. Mostly our talk is fast and spontaneous, and it requires our articulators to move from one sound to thenext without stopping. The process of making one sound almost at the same time as the next sound is called **co-articulation**. There are two well-known coarticulation effects, described as **assimilation** and **elision**.

- **Assimilation**

When two sound segments occur in sequence and some aspect of one segment is taken or “copied” by the other, the process is known as **assimilation**. If we think of the physical production of speech, we realize that this regular process happens simply because it’s quicker, easier and more efficient for our articulators as they do their job.

Think of the word *have* /hæv/ by itself, then think of how it is pronounced in the phrase *I have to go* in everyday speech. In this phrase, as we start to say the /t/ sound in *to*, which is voiceless, we tend to produce a voiceless version of the preceding sound, resulting in what sounds more like /f/ than /v/. So, we typically say [hæftə] in this phrase and you may even see it written informally as “hafta,” showing how the assimilation from a voiced to a voiceless sound is perceived.

- **Elision**

The process of not pronouncing a sound segment that might be present in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word in isolation is described as **elision**. In consonant clusters, especially in coda position, /t/ is a common casualty in this process, as in the typical pronunciation [æspeks] for *aspects*, or in [himəsbi] for the phrase *he must be*. We can, of course, slowly and deliberately pronounce each part of the phrase *we asked him*, but the process of elision (of /k/) in casual conversation is likely to produce [wiæstəm]. Vowels also disappear, as in [ɛvri] for *every*, [ɪntrɪst] for *interest*, [kæbnət] for *cabinet*, [kæmrə] for *camera*, [prɪznər] for *prisoner* and [spəʊz] for *suppose*.

CHAPTER 4

MORPHOLOGY

We have been described the study of speech sounds and their patterns. In this chapter, we are going to continue our discussion the smallest unit of grammar, morpheme. The study is called morphology. Morphology is **a study of word forms**. It deals with words, its internal structure and how they are formed. Scope of the study is *lexical morphology* (word formation), and *inflectional morphology* (grammar, conjugation/declination). To get simplified the definition, try to examine the following patterns:

a. Book Bookss
 Computer or: Computerss

b. Wash Washed
 Cook Cooked

In (a) plurality is indicated by adding –s to the singular nouns thus :

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Book	Book- <u>s</u>
Computer	Computer- <u>s</u>

However, in (b) where the –ed morpheme indicates the past tense for some English verbs.

Morpheme

A morpheme consists of a word (e.g. head), or a meaningful piece of a word (e.g. look-*ed*). There are two categories of morphemes: free or bound morphemes. **Free morpheme** can occur freely on their own. Another one, **bound morpheme** (or affixes) that are divided into two types: those like ‘dis-’ and ‘un-’ which precede words, and which are called *prefixes* (like ‘-ly’, ‘-able’, ‘-ity’ and ‘-ness’) which follow free morphemes and which are called *suffixes*. Take a look at the following words:

Unconsciously

Un-conscious-ly

Can be split up into

Unbelievable

Un-believe-able

In both these examples, the words are composed of three morphemes. Here is the interpretation.

Un-	Conscious	-ly
(Prefix) <u>Definition:</u>	(Adj.)	(Suffix)
It carries a	<u>Definition:</u> Awake, thinking	<u>Definition:</u> (in
negative	and knowing what is	the stated way)
meaning.	happening around you.	

Un-	Believe	-able
(Prefix)	(v.)	(Suffix)
<u>Def:</u> It carries a	<u>Def:</u> To think that	<u>Def:</u> It expresses
negative meaning.	something is true	receive the action of
	the stated verb	

Allomorphs

Morphemes has alternative forms (e.g. 'il-', 'im-', 'in-' and 'ir-') are known as **allomorphs**. Some English adjectives form their opposites by prefixing the bound morpheme 'in-' (or sometimes 'un-'), consider the following example:

Accessible	<u>In</u> accessible Active
	<u>In</u> active

However, the negative morphemes changes 'n' to the consonant of the word it prefixes:

Mobile	<u>Im</u> mobile
Legal	<u>Il</u> legal

Inflectional & Derivational Morphology

Morphology can be divided into *inflectional* (concerned with endings put on words) and *derivational* (involves the formation of new words).

a. Inflectional Morphology

As it defined, inflectional morphology occurs with nouns, pronouns, and verbs. To examine it, just look at the endings (or suffixes) that put on words. In nouns, inflection marks plurality in regular nouns:

- Paper Papers - Stair Stairs

And the possessive of all nouns:

Farrel Farrel's paper/papers
The *woman* The woman's paper/papers
builders The builders' stair/stairs

From the examples, we can conclude that there is no difference in sound between a regular noun's plural form and its possessive. Irregular nouns often form their plurals by a vowel change:

Tooth Teeth Woman Women Mouse Mice

Inflectional suffixes are used to indicate present tense agreement:

He/She/It sings

For regular verbs the past tense and past participle are formed by suffix '-ed' as in I looked**, I have looked**.

Whereas, the past tense and past participle with irregular verbs are signalled by a vowel change or a vowel change + a suffix:

Sing Sang Sung
Draw Drew Drawn

b. Derivational Morphology

Morphology has two main functions in English. Morphemes can be used to form new words, such as:

Health + y > Healthy
Wait + er > Waiter
Danger + ous > Dangerous

or to inflect nouns and verbs, such as:

book > book+s > book+ing > book+ed tree
> tree+s

Morphological derivation involves prefixation, suffixation and affixation. Look at these examples:

Prefixation : Re + consider > Reconsider
Un + true > Untrue
Suffixation : Health + y > Healthy Manly
Man + ly >
Affixation : In + complete + ion > Incompletion
Sub + conscious + ly > Subconsciously

Prefixes alter meaning but do not always change the function of the word, examine these example:

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Free morpheme (class)</i>	<i>Result (Class)</i>
Be	witch (n.)	Bewitch (v.)
De	limit (v.)	Delimit (v.)
En	rich (adj.)	Enrich (v.)
Ex	terminate (v.)	Exterminate (v.)
Hyper	market (n.)	Hypermarket (n.)

Usually occurring suffixes always change the word class to which they are attached:

Beauty (n.) + ful > Beautiful (adj.)
Determine (v.) + ation > Determination (n.)

Words ending in the morphemes ‘-acy’, ‘-ation’, ‘-er/-or’, ‘-ess’, ‘-ity’, ‘-ment’, ‘-ness’, and ‘-ship’ **tend to be nouns**:

Democracy Mistress Weakness Painter Actor Solemnity

Words ending in ‘-ise/-ize’ **tend to be verbs**:

Modernize Hospitalise

Words ending in ‘-able’, ‘-ed’, ‘-ful’, ‘-ical’, ‘-ive’, ‘-less’, ‘-like’, ‘-ous’, and ‘-y’ **tend to be adjectives**:

A healthy lifestyle A playful place
 An endless love An enjoyable classmate

And words which end in ‘-ly’ **tend to be adverbs**:

She taught English clearly. He run home quickly.

The above suffixes tend to be associated with particular word classes. Thus, the word ‘lovely’ and ‘friendly’ which end in ‘-ly’ functions as adjectives, not as adverbs.

Summary

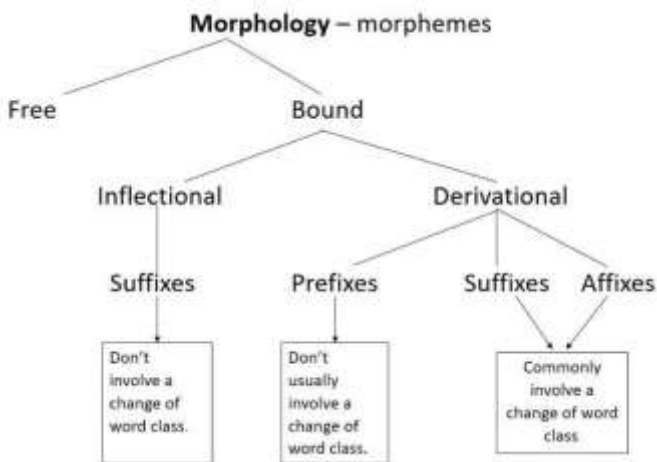


Figure 9. Studies of Morphology

Exercises!

Let's try to figure out the words!

1. Identify the morphemes in the following words:
 - a. Befriending : *Be + friend + ing*
 - b. Dehumanise
 - c. Transportation
 - d. Dangerously
 - e. Protection
2. Identify the derivational (D) and inflectional morphemes (I):
 - a. Creating : Create (F) + ing (B.I = Bound 'Inflectional')
 - b. Poetic : Poet (F) + ic (B.D = Bound 'Derivational')
 - c. Examination
 - d. Multivitamin
 - e. John's
 - f. Interdenominational
3. Segment the following words into free and bound morphemes, and identify whether or not the bound morpheme (BM) changes the word class of the free morpheme (F)
 - a. Imprudently
 - b. Moralised
 - c. Unbearable
 - d. Disobey
 - e. Wastage

What does "word" mean?

We are all familiar with words, but it is not easy to give a precise definition of a word. A word is a form that can stand by itself. Even though, words are the smallest unit in linguistics. Notice that

word plays a big role in communication, spoken or written form. Before we talk or write, we usually consider the appropriate word to be used. It is called **word choice** or **diction**. Words can be viewed from several aspects, they are: a) *internal* structure-simple and complex words, b) *class* of word-content and structural words.

Additionally, linguists also concern on word. Therefore, there is **lexicology** which is defined as a study of words; its internal structure. This is perhaps true If we think about ‘table’ or ‘car’, but when we think of a set of words like ‘bull’, ‘cow’ and ‘calf’, we become aware these set might be regarded as follows:

Bull	Cow	Calf
A noun	A noun	A noun
<i>Bovinae</i>	<i>Bovinae</i>	<i>Bovinae</i>
Male	Female	Unknown gender

Looking at that patterns, it would be hard to say that the word ‘cow’ just consists one unit of meaning. It can be called a *lexical set* which is a group of forms which share a basic meaning. The ‘bovinae’ is called *word field* - is a collection of words which are related by a common core of meaning.

There is a better approach in defining words is to acknowledge that we are able to isolate four of the most often implied meanings of ‘word’ as follows:

- a. An *orthographic* word – isolate words by pausing between words.
- b. A *morphological* word – considering the word form only, not the meaning. For instance, the word ‘ball’ is one morphological word, and it can be referred to a bouncing object and a dance. However ‘ball’ and ‘balls’ would be two morphological words, because they are not identical in form.
- c. A *lexical* word – comprehending the several forms of items which are closely related by meaning. Thus, ‘chair’ and ‘chairs’ are two morphological word, but one lexical word.

- d. A *semantic* word – the word which may be differ in meaning but may be morphologically identical. This phenomenon is called *polysemy* and is common in English. For example, ‘table’ can refer to a diagram or a piece of furniture.

Word Formation

In the earlier explanation, we’ve already looked at some methods that word-formation. Here, we discuss about how words can be developed. The process of word-formation also can be either *productive* or *lexicalised* (non-productive). These processes can be done in various ways, as follows:

- a. **Affixation** – attaching an affix to the root either in the beginning or ending of the words. For example:

Free + **dom** > freedom – attach a suffix **Un**
+ true > untrue – attach a prefix

- b. **Compounding** – joining two words together to form a new word. It frequently involves two nouns. For example:

Book + *case* > **bookcase** *wall* + *paper* > **walpaper** *Fisher* + *man*
> **fisherman**

Occasionally, the possessive form of the first noun is used apostrophes are nout found in the compound:

Lamb’s + *wool* > **lambswool**

We also can combine other parts of speech to form a new words, such as:

Hair (n.) + *do* (v.) > **hairdo** *easy* (adj.) + *going* (v.) > **easygoing** When the compound is new, whether it involves a prefix and a word or two words, a hyphen is used between the parts as in

come-back

dis-inter

UNESCO

Scientific and Cultural Organisation

Light Amplification by Stimulated

LASER

from

Emission of Radiation

Teaching English for Foreign

TEFL

Language

Beside that, there are some short phrase as well which one made into acronyms, such as *Down Payment* > **D.P.**

Word Classes

Word classes (as a part of speech) are crucial for any grammatical description. A natural first step in a scientific approach to words is to seek to establish the different types of words which appear in languages. Here are the criteria for assigning words to classes.

a) Lexical categories

Nouns and **verbs** are two of word classes. There are several ways to justify the differences of both for English:

- ✚ Nouns refer to types of concrete objects (e.g. sun, waitress, cook, cycle), while verbs typically refer to activities (e.g. raise, steal, applaud).
- ✚ Verbs and nouns exhibit a different range of forms: most nouns have a special form for the plural (e.g. cake ~ cakes), while verbs have a larger number of forms (e.g. Dogs *bark*, Tom *barks*, Tom *is barking*, Tom *barked*).
- ✚ Nouns and verbs combine with other words to form phrases in different ways; a noun will often be found preceded by a **definite** (the) or **indefinite article** (a/an) (e.g. the sun, an apple). However,

most forms of a verb cannot be preceded by these articles (e.g. the applauds, an applauded). *Fourth*, to form a phrase consisting of an article and a noun, this can follow a verb to form a larger phrase (e.g. applaud the singer) – the singer functions as **complements** of the verbs *applaud* in this construction.

- ✚ An article-noun sequence may combine with a verb to form a whole sentence as in '*the dog barked*'. Here, the phrase *the dog* functions as the **subject** of the sentence. Generalising, subjects and complements are **arguments of verbs** and a typical simple sentence such as that in the example below:

- the waitress stole a cake
(verb – *stole*, its arguments – *the waitress, a cake*)

- ✚ The plural forms of nouns are irregular (e.g. men, women, children) or because they lack a plural form entirely (furnitures, sakes). Likewise, verbs refer to states rather than activities (e.g. fear).

Despite these problems, it is common to suppose that lexical entries in the lexicon must contain an indication of word-class membership.

Adjectives which refer to people or things used to modify nouns and pronouns (e.g. *fancy women, luxurious car*). We can also ascribe a property by putting the adjective after a form of the 'verb *be*' to form a sentence (e.g. *the women was fancy, the car was luxurious*). Many adjectives have special forms indicating the extent to which a property is true of something: the **comparative** form, *fancier*, 'fancy to a greater degree than', and the **superlative** form, *fanciest*, 'fancy to the greatest degree'.

Adverbs which modify a verb, adjective or another adverb, indicating how, when or why something happened, or the degree to which a property characterises an individual or event. Adverbs can be formed in some ways, as follows:

1. **Adjective + suffix (-ly) :**
Example: The waitress *carelessly* **dropped** the plate.
2. **Where something happens :** there, here, nowhere Example: He parks the car *there*.
3. **How something happens :** fast, well, late, hard Example: She comes *late*.
4. **When something happens :**
Example: I *usually* wake up at 5 a.m.

Remember this formula!

S – Sometimes
 U – Usually
 N – Never
 A – Always
 R – Rarely
 S – Seldom
 O – Often

S + **SUNARSO** + V
 S + to be + **SUNARSO** + C

Prepositions are always followed by a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun. Form of prepositions are *at, by, for, from, to, under, before*, etc. Here are the examples:

- a. Tom was sitting *under* a tree.
- b. They're due to arrive *before* noon.
- c. John talked *to* Feri.

Up to now, they are all five word classes or **lexical categories**. In doing this, we have appealed to three types of criteria for establishing a category: semantic, morphological and syntactic.

(a) Functional Categories

Simply, a **conjunction** is to join words. There are two types of conjunctions: *co-ordinating* conjunction (e.g. *fanboys* – for, and, but, or, yet, and so), and *subordinating* conjunction. Look at the following examples:

- Mary and Marimar ran upstairs (*co-ordinating conj.*)
- Tom thinks that Sara *and* Farel *have been* visiting Ratu to ask for help with one of *the* assignments. (*sub-ordinating conj.*)

Words such as the above are known as **function words**, and there is also **content words** which distinguished from *nouns*, *verbs*, *adjectives*, *adverbs* and *prepositions*. The relationship between function and content words, it uses to assign words to lexical categories rely on specific types of function words. For example, if you say:

- *I bought a glass* – the addressee doesn't know the specific glass you mean.
- *I bought the glass* – the speaker must assume that your addressee already knows which glass you are talking about.

A **determiner (det.)** is an adjective-like word which precedes both adjectives and nouns. There are five kinds of determiners (APNID), as follows:

1. **Articles** (a/an, the) – e.g. *a* well educated man
2. **Possessive pronouns** (my, your, his, her, our, their) – e.g. submit *your* paper
3. **Numbers** when they followed nouns – e.g. *one* girl, *seven* hills
4. **Indefinite determiners** (some, any, all, enough, no, both, each, every, few, more, much, fewer, less, either, neither, a bit) - e.g. I ate *some* bread, I love you *both*

5. **Demonstratives** (this/these, that/those) – e.g. Clean *this* board!

Headverbs and **auxiliaries** are two main types of verbs in English. A few examples will illustrate this:

She didn't see me She hasn't seen me
She was seen. She might see me two days later

The various forms of *see* are known as **headverbs**, whereas *did*, *was*, *has* and *might* are called **auxiliary verbs (aux.)**.

In English it is possible to have a maximum of four auxiliaries in the one verb phrase, for instance *She may have been being followed*. Verbs that can replace 'may' are called **modals**; **have**, which is the first *be* is the 'progressive auxiliary'; and the second *be* is used to form 'passives'. Another auxiliary in English, often called the **dummy auxiliary** because it has little meaning, but a great deal of structural significance. In the absence of other auxiliaries, verb *do* is used to turn positive statements into negative, or to form question, such as:

I do not (don't) love him.
Do you love her.
Do you not (Don't you) join us?

An **infinitive (inf.)** - is the citation form of a verb; the form we use to name a verb (as in the most irregular verb in English is the verb 'to be'). Although 'to' usually comes before the verb, it can be split from it by an adverb, and this is the only possible construction:

to really impress him, you have to be able to cook.

A **pronoun (prn)** is a word that can take place of a noun or a noun phrase, such as:

Mr. Erdogan met his secretary on a bus.
He lost his wallet.

Pronouns in English can reflect number, case, and person:

<i>Person</i>	Singular		Plural	
	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Accusative</i>	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Accusative</i>
First	I	Me	We	Us
Second	You	Thou/thee/you	You	You
Third	He/She/It	He/him, she/her, it	They	Them

*The 2nd person singular pronoun *thou/thee* is obsolete in standard dialects of Modern English, though it survives in other varieties.

An **exclamation** may be described as an involuntary utterance expressing *fear, pain and surprise*:

Good lord! What a relief!

And the term **interjection** is often reserved for monosyllabic utterance, such as:

Ouch! *Wow!*

In modern linguistics, there are some words which are known as **complementisers** because one of their most important uses is to introduce complement clauses (i.e. clauses which function as the complement of a verb, adjective or noun). Additional examples of this type are shown below:

- a. Sara wonders [*if it will rain*]
- b. Sara arranged [*for Tom to sleep earlier*]

Each of the bracketed ([]) clauses is a complement clause, since it serves as the complement of the bold-face verb.

Exercises!

1. How many (a) orthographic, (b) morphological, (c) lexical and (d) semantic words that we have in each of the following lists?
 - a. Make, makes, making, made, maiden
For example: morphological words : 5, lexical : 2, semantics 2
 - b. Fire, fires, fir, firs, fur
 - c. Take, taken, took, taking, takings
2. Expand the following compounds by showing how the two parts are connected.
 - a. Applepie : a pie made from apples
 - b. Bookcase
 - c. Farmyard
 - d. Girlfriend
 - e. Raincoat
3. Identify the part of speech each of the underlined words is.
 - a. Come round to see us : come – v., round – adv., us – prn.
 - b. To whom did you give that?
 - c. Seeing is believing.
 - d. All fighting stopped immediately.
 - e. I'm terribly sorry I took hers.

CHAPTER 5

SYNTAX

After the sounds and words, this section going to look at how actually the sentence structure. Syntax is currently seen as the core of any language. British linguists often use the term “grammar” for the same level of language that is referred to as “syntax” by many Americans. Indeed, this study concerns on the arrangement of words in a language. In other words, it is about the ways in which words can be organised to form phrases, clauses and sentences and in which all of these are understood. **The basic unit is the sentence** which minimally **consist of a main clause** (at least a **subject** and **verb**).

Several linguists has differentiate between **deep structure** – the level on which the perspicuous semantic structure of a sentence is represented – and **surface structure** – the actual form of a sentence. The sentence structure itself is normally illustrated by means of a *tree diagram* and by a system of *re-write rules* one can move from an initial unit (whole sentence) to the individual elements (or terminal string).

There are two common terms in this linguistics subfield, **transformation** – a change in form between the deep and surface structure, and maintains the relatedness of semantically similar sentences, such as active and passive sentences – and **generation** – to describe the structure of sentences, which can be either referred to the manner in which speakers actually produce sentences.

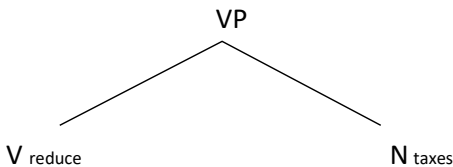
The purpose of examining the internal structure of sentence are: a) to reveal the hierarchy in the ordering of elements, b) to explain how surface ambiguities come about, and c) to demonstrate the relatedness of certain sentences.

Merger

How words are combined to form phrase, phrases are combined to form clauses, and clauses are combined to form complex sentences. This involves core syntactic operation which called *merger*. The simplest way to form a phrase is by joining two words together, such as the mini-dialogue below:

Speaker A : What is the government planning to do? Speaker
B : *Reduce taxes*.

As speaker B's reply illustrates, we can combine the word *reduce* with the word *taxes*, and then we form the phrase *reduce taxes*. Every syntactic phrase has a **head word**. We can say that the ver *reduce* is the **head** of the phrase, and conversely the phrase *reduce taxes* is a **projection** of the verb *reduce*. Accordingly the overall phrase *reduce taxes* is said to be a verb phrase (VP). This operation by which the two words are combined to form a phrase is called **merger**. An alternative way of representing this sort of structure is in terms of a labelled **tree diagram** such as:

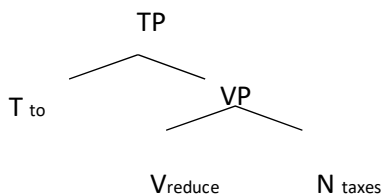


A tree diagram as illustrated above is purely notational: each category is represented by a single **node** (or point).

However, phrases do not contain just two words, as we see the structure of B's reply in the following below.

Speaker A : what's the government's principal objective?
Speaker B : *To reduce taxes*.

The italicised phrase in B appears to be formed by merging the infinitive particle *to* with the verb phrase (*reduce taxes*). The head of that phrase is the infinitive particle *to*, so that it is called an **infinitive phrase (TP)**. We can illustrate the structure such as:



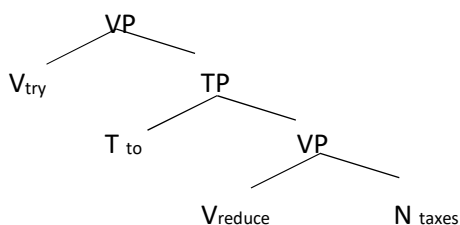
The resulting TP is headed by the T_{to} ; it indicates the action of reducing taxes is intended to take place at some unspecified time in the future, and the $VP_{reduce\ taxes}$ is the complement of to .

Up to now, we still can build up complex structure by merging pairs of categories to form larger phrases. For instance, by merging the infinitive phrase *to reduce taxes* with the verb *try*, we can form the phrase produced by speaker B in below:

Speaker A : What will the government do? Speaker

B : *Try to reduce taxes.*

Could you predict the head of the phrase? Yes, *try* (a verb). It means that the phrase is verb phrase. Here are the tree diagram of it:



If you analyse, *try to reduce taxes* is a VP which itself contains another

VP_{reduce taxes} , and it is easy to see that further applications of merger will yield a larger VP such as *expect to try to reduce taxes* including the VP in the structure above. Here, we see that this simple operation of merger, as a core operation in the theory of sentence structure, deals with the fact that English and any other language has a potentially *infinite* number of sentences.

So far, we have limited our discussion on how phrases are formed. However, linguists draw a distinction between *phrases* and *clauses*. For example, the reply given by speaker B in the following below, containing the subject _{they} and the predicate _{try}:

Speaker A: What will the government do? Speaker

B: *They will try to reduce taxes.*

There are interesting similarities between infinitive *to* and auxiliaries like *will/would, shall/should, can/could, may/might*, and so on. It should be noted that in work in the 1980s, auxiliaries and infinitive *to* were taken to belong to the category Inflection (inf.), the general idea behind this label being that finite auxiliaries inflect for tense/agreement, and infinitive *to* serves much the same function as do infinitive inflections in languages. Further, let's now return to the question of how clauses like that produced by speaker B in that minidiologue are formed. The simplest assumption is that the clause _{they} will try to reduce taxes is formed by first merging the T-auxiliary *will* with the verb phrase _{try to reduce taxes} to form the expression _{will try to reduce taxes}, and then merging this larger expression with the pronoun *they* to form the complete clauses.

In this chapter, we learn only three of these units – the phrase, the clause and the sentence – and we shall provide real definitions. There are two ways for identifying those units based on structuralists and transformationalists. Take a look the following examples:

Sheep	- word / free morpheme
That lovely sheep	- phrase

That sheep are unpredictable - clause

The examples above are the way structuralists would label them as it is, but transformationalists call them all **noun phrase** because their functional similarities can occur in the same slot:

Sheep	can be seen clearly.
That lovely sheep	can be seen clearly.
That sheep are unpredictable	can be seen clearly.

What is Phrase?

A phrase is a group of words which utilized as a unit and does not contain a finite verb. Consider this definition by examining a sentence below:

The little boy sat in the corner.

The little boy	can replace by He	in the
corner	can replace by there	

Similarly, if we ask ‘Who sat in the corner?’ the answer will be ‘The little boy’ or if we ask ‘Where did he sit?’ we will be told ‘in the corner’. It defines that certain groups of words have internal coherence in that they function as a unit. And then, what does ‘a phrase does not contain a finite verb’ means?

A finite verb is one that can take as its subject a pronoun such as ‘I, He, We, She, It, They’, thus we can have:

<i>I</i> see	<i>He</i> sees	<i>They</i> saw
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And that the present participle (in the form such as ‘seeing’), the infinitive (in the form such as ‘to see’), and the past participle (in the form such as ‘seen’) are called non-finite verb. Only non-finite verb forms can occur in phrases:

Some modern linguists use the term 'phrase' in a slightly different way to the described above. You must concentrate on the similarity of function, they define a noun phrase as 'a group of words which functions as subject, object, and compliment in a sentence', for example:

- The young man came. > He came in.
- The answer was 365 days. > The answer was this.

Similarly, they also defined a verb phrase functions as predicate in a sentence. For example:

- She arrived at three. - She will arrive at three.

Both use have value, you must be aware of the different values attached to the same word.

What is Clause?

A clause is a group of words contains a finite verb, but constitutes only part of a sentence. In each complex sentence, at least there are two clauses: main (or independent) clause and dependent (or subordinate) clause. The main clauses are underlined in the following examples:

- I shall always remember what you said.
- When we arrived, everyone was asleep.

Types of dependent clauses

1. **Noun clause** – a group of words contains a finite verb and is used as a subject or an object. In other words, it functions as a noun.

a. **His story** was interesting

In (a) **story** is a noun. it used as a subject of the sentence.

b. What his said was interesting.	In (b) what his said is a noun clause. It is also a subject of the sentence, but it has its own subject ' <i>he</i> ' and verb ' <i>said</i> '.
--	--

Words used to introduce noun clause are:

1. Question words 5 W+1 H

<u>Who lives</u> there? S V	I don't know who lives there.	Here, who is the subject of both the question and noun clause.
What did she say?	What she said surprise me	What she said functions as the subject of the sentence.

2. Whether/if

Will she come?	a. I don't know whether she will come. b. I don't know if she will come.	When a yes or no question is changed to a noun clause, whether or if is used to introduce the clause
	c. Whether she comes or not is unimportant to me.	In (c) notice that a noun clause is in the subject position.

3. That

The world is	a. We know (that) world is round.	The word that , when it introduces a noun clause, has no meaning in itself.
	b. That the world is round is a fact. c. It is a fact that the world is round.	The word that in (b) isn't omitted when it introduces a noun clause used as the subject of a sentence.

round.
However, in (c) the word **it** commonly used as the subject, and the noun clause is placed at the end of the sentence.

When you are in doubt which clause can be substitute, so that you make such the possibilities are acceptable:

I shall always her. her kindness. what Sarah	remember Sarah. has done.
---	------------------------------

Thus, pronouns, nouns and noun phrase can be substituted for noun clauses.

2. **Adjective clause** (or relative clause) – a group of words that explains noun phrases. Signals of adjective clause are *who, whose, whom, which, that, in which, and where*. When this clause begins with those signals and is followed by a subject, the subordinator can be omitted:

- That is a woman who has much money.
- I thought my toys which my father gave me were alive.

There is virtually no difference in meaning, between these clause:

- The book *which* I bought
- The book *that* I bought
- The book I bought ... – the least formal and most likely occur in spontaneous speech.

Occasionally, an adjective clause can begin with ‘when’ if the ‘when’ can be replaced by ‘on which’, and the ‘where’ by ‘in which / at which’. For examples:

Where : -The town *where* they met was called Sidoarjo.
-The town *in which* they met was called Sidoarjo

When : -I remember the day *when* we won the cup.
-I remember the day *on which* we won the cup.

3. **Adverbial clause** – a group of words functions as an adverb in giving information about *when, where, why, how* or *if the action occurred*. For instances:

Put it where we are all can see it.

They won the match because they were the best gamers. If you want any more you’ll have to get it yourself.

Number of modern linguists use the term ‘clause’ somewhat differently to the above categorisation. However, the most important is to be consistent in one’s use of terminology.

What is Sentence?

A sentence can be defined as group of words which are combined by grammatical rules of a language expresses a complete thought, question, exclamation, command or suggestion. The characteristic of sentence must begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop. You have to know that sentence is divided into several types, which are:

1. **Declarative sentence** – a sentence in form of statements or assertions. For examples:

~ *I shall arrive at four.*

~ *We must not forget the time.*

2. **Imperative sentence** – a sentence in order to give orders, make request and usually have no overt subject. For examples: ~ *Look at me.*

~ *Don't walk on the grass.*

3. **Interrogative sentence** – a sentence in to ask questions. You will notice that interrogative sentence also divided into two forms: a.

Yes / No questions, such as: Can't you understand me?

Are you going to the meeting?

b. **Wh**-questions, such as:

Why did you come late?

How the relationship of those variables?

4. **Exclamatory sentence** – a sentence uses to express surprise, alarm, indignation or a strong opinion. It can be identified by its exclamation mark. For examples:

~ What a fool I was!

~ I've never heard such rubbish in all my life!

~ OMG!

In addition, based on the form (completeness of the structure), sentences also can be classified as being either **major sentence** or **minor sentence**.

✚ *Major sentence* – regular type of sentence. It consists of finite verbs as in *I have a book*.

✚ *Minor sentence* – irregular type of sentence. It does not consist of finite verb and frequently found in *colloquial speech, proverbial utterances and advertising*. For examples:

- ~ Colloquial speech – e.g. *Got a match?, not likely!, just a sec!*
- ~ Proverbial utterance – e.g. *In for a penny, in for a pound.*
- ~ Advertising – e.g. *Always ahead of the times., The cheapest and best.*

Sentence Clause Structure

Apart from sentences categorisation, we can distinguish sentences based on the grammatical structure (composition and relation between clauses). We categorised it as follows:

1. **Simple sentence** – contains only one main clause and dependent clause. For example:

- ~ I leave.
- ~ The man cried.
- ~ The children plays football in the field.

The finite verb may be composed of up to four auxiliaries + a headverb. For example: He may have been being followed all days. Also, it may be interrupted by a negative or an adverb:

- ~ He was never seen again.
- ~ We can hardly ask them for any more.

The term ‘simple’ refers to the fact that it also does not imply that the sentence is easy to understand. For example the following sentence is simple in structure but semantically it’s difficult:

- ~ Quangos are quasi-autonomous, non-governmental organisations.

2. **Compound sentence** – contains two or more main clauses with no dependent clause, and usually linked by the coordinating conjunctions (e.g. **but, and, so, neither nor, either or, or then**). For example:

She arrived at for	and	she went up to her room
Main clause	Coord. conj.	Dependent clause

Other examples:

- ~ My teacher invites me to a birthday party, *but* I don't want to go.
- ~ *Either* the students *or* the teacher takes a day off every week.

In compound sentences, the shared elements in the conjoined simple sentences can be elided:

~ You may go in and (you may) talk to him for five minutes.

3. **Complex sentence** – contains one simple sentence, one or more dependent clauses, and often formed by putting the subordinating conjunction (e.g. *as, as if, before, after, because, although, while, when, whenever, during, as soon as, as long as, since, until, unless, where, wherever, etc.*). Here is the following example:

He became king when her mother died he was the eldest child.
One main clause *dependent clause* *dependent clause*

You'll notice that each clause has a finite verb 'became', 'died' and 'was' in the example above, and that each dependent clause begins with a subordinating conjunction. The commonest subordinating conjunctions in English are:

After :	She washed the dishes after she had cooked the meal.
as :	As Farrel says, it's time to go.
as (as) :	She is as short as his sister was.
Although/though :	Although they were rich, they were honest.
Because :	She left the city because she didn't like crowds.
If :	If you try hard you will certainly succeed.

Since :	I haven't seen him since we left grammar school.
Until/till :	She worried about everything until his son arrived.
When :	Time passes quickly when you were happy.
Where :	He built his home where his ancestors had lived.
Whether ... or not :	Rama is the best storyteller whether he know it or not .
Which/that :	This is the school which Dahlan built.
While :	Do not cross the tracks while the light is red.

Dependent clauses are also mentioned as *embedded sentences*, because they resemble simple sentence but are modified so as to fit into other constructions. Here we have two simple sentences as follows:

- ~ The woman lives next door.
- ~ The woman is beautiful

The second is embedded in the first when we transform those sentences into the complex one:

~ The woman who is beautiful lives next door.

4. **Compound-complex sentence** – contain two or more main clauses and at least one dependent clause, also formed by putting coordinating conjunction.

~ I saw him **when** he arrived the first time **but** I didn't see him **when** he came again.

Before we continue to the next topic, grammatical relation, let's try to break down the few sentences by using a tree diagram:

Grammatical Relations

After we looked at the types of sentences and try harder to break down few examples. Now, we will focus on the internal structure of a sentence. The basic pattern of the simple English sentence is:

(Adjunct) (Subject) Predicate (Object) (Complement) (Adjunct) or usually given as:

(A) (S) P (O) (C) (A) Adjunct

A word used as modifier in a sentence. **(A)**

Subject (S)	A noun (person/thing) that performs the action of a verb, or which is joined to a description by a verb.
Predicate (P)	A part of sentence/clause consisting a verb and stating something about the subject.
Object (O)	A noun (person/thing) that is affected by the action of a verb or involved in the result of an action is done by a subject.
Complement	A word/word group that completes the predicate (C) in a sentence.

Where only the **predicate** is curical and where the **adjunct** is flexible.

A few examples below will show how the pattern works:

Jessie	won't eat	her breakfast	suddenly.
<i>Noun part (S)</i>	<i>Verb part (P)</i>	<i>Noun part (O)</i>	<i>Adverb part (A)</i>

As mentioned before that an adjunct is flexible means can be moved or removed without causing grammatical loss. The object resembles the subject in that it is noun-like, but actually there are three main differences:

- 1) The subject normally precedes the predicate, and the object follows the predicate.
- 2) The subject can usually be retrieved by putting *who* or *what* before the predicate, 'who won't eat his breakfast?' produces the answer 'Jessie' as the subject. The object can be retrieved by putting *whom* or *what* after the predicate: 'Jessie won't eat what?' produces the answer 'his breakfast' as the object.
- 3) When subjects and objects are replaced by pronouns, there is often a distinct pronoun for the two positions, such as: ~ Peter hit Johnson. > He hit him.

Additionally, for complements, you may take a look at the following examples:

- ~ She is pretty.
- ~ She becomes an interpreter.
- ~ He was in the taxi.
- ~ Your body smells good.
- ~ Before the presentation, they seemed nervous.

Notice that the group of words involved in **linking verbs** (e.g. appear, become, be, seem, look, grow, taste, smell, sound, feel, etc.) to complete the predicate in a sentence is called Complements (C). There are two kinds of complement as follows:

- **Subject Complement** – provides information on the subject. For example: *He was in the bus.*
(the complement '**in the bus**' provides the information about the subject '**he**')
- **Object Complement** – provides information on the object. For example: *His sister called him a fool.*
(the complement '**a fool**' provides information about '**him**')

We can summarise the above data with examples as follows, and we call it word order typology in English:

P	Go.	
PA	Go	quietly.
SP	Fara	slept.
SPA	Fara	slept quietly.
PO	Eat	your brunch.
SPO	Noura	eat her brunch.
SPOA		Noura eat her brunch quickly.
SPC	Adam	is a fool.
ASPC	At	times Adam is a fool.
SPOC		Adam called his brother a fool.
SAPOC		Adam often called his brother a fool.

Sentence Operation

Dealing with those sentence patterns, we should be able to use the four following operations to analyse a sentence variation without changing its semantic aspect, which are:

a. **Insertion** – the process of putting one/more constituents in the sentences. It can be by inserting more adjectives or adverb. For example:

- ~ The child is diligent.
 - The **little** child is **exceptionally** diligent.

b. **Deletion** – the process of omitting one or two constituents of the sentences. For example:

- ~ The ~~tall~~ man saw him ~~yesterday~~.
 - The man saw him.

- c. **Substitution** – the process of substituting both subject or object into pronouns, or a verb phrases into auxiliary verbs. For example:
- ~ The young man visited his mother.
- **He** visited **her**.
- d. **Transposition** (or permutation) – the process of exchanging the position or the order of constituents in a sentence with no change on the grammatical and semantic aspects. For example:
- ~ The woman called her man suddenly. ○
 The woman suddenly called her man.
Suddenly the woman called her man.

Grammatical, Acceptable & Interpretable

We know that every sentence is a sequence of words but not every sequence of words is a sentence. Sequence of words that conform to the rules of syntax are called **grammatical**, and those that violate the syntactic rules are called **ungrammatical**. In other words, utterances in written language (sentences) which are constructed based on grammatical rules are normally called grammatical sentence, while the sentence which are not constructed based on grammatical rules are said to be ungrammatical sentence. In linguistics, an ungrammatical sentence is marked with an *asterisk* (*) – sometimes two in front of it. For examples:

- a) The child kissed her mom. (**grammatical**)
- b) *The child kissing her mom. (**ungrammatical**)

As the grammatical sentence is constructed based on grammatical rules, **acceptable** is used to decide whether or not a sentence can be accepted in case of form or the effectiveness of the sentence. Look at the following sentences:

- The man hit the dog. *grammatical-acceptable*
- The dog chased the cat. *grammatical-acceptable*

- The cat died. *grammatical-acceptable*

Based on the structure, we are able to combine the three sentences as follow:

The cat that the dog that the man hit chased died.
grammatical-unacceptable

Most native speakers would not accept the third sentence above. Even though, it is certainly grammatical; add one adjective clause that describes the dog, but three consecutive or serial verbs (hit-chased-died) make the sentence is unacceptable.

When they are embedded within a sentence most people cannot accept more than two adjective clauses. However, as soon as the adjective clauses occurs at the end of the sentence, it can be acceptable any number of them, as follow:

That is the man that hit the dog that chased the cat that died.

grammatical-acceptable

When a word or phrase has more than one possible meaning may cause confusion, it is called **lexical ambiguity**, and this is the common feature of English or other languages. Let's make an example:

<i>Lexical Ambiguous</i>	<i>Meanings</i>
CHIP	a small piece of wood
	a long thin piece of potato
	a small piece of silicon

As well as lexical ambiguity, there is also **syntactic ambiguity** where a structure is capable of more than one interpretation. For example:

- Visiting relatives can cause problems

This sentence is ambiguous because it has many interpretation, such as 'relatives who visit us can cause problems' or 'when we visit relatives, there will be problems'.

Exercise!

1. Choose carefully and classify the phrase in the following sentences.

[1]. All the children seemed extremely happy.

[2]. Please send me four boxes of cookies on the 14th of February.

[3]. To have played football for Barcelona was his greatest achievement.

2. Pick out the noun clauses in the following sentences and choose whether they function as subjects, objects or complements.

[1]. That is all I can remember.

[2]. What we hears was a tissue of lies.

[3]. She supposed that they would have enough money.

3. Write down all the clauses in the following sentences saying (a) whether they are main or dependent clause, and (b) what type of dependent clause has been used.

[1]. The pants which I bough was the wrong color.

[2]. It was what everyone had feared.

[3]. She arrived on the very day when we were celebrating your birthday.

4. Classify each of the following sentences according to whether they are (a) major / minor and (b) simple, compound, or complex.

[1]. What will we do if they don't turn up?

- [2]. One man one vote.
- [3]. Don't count your chickens before they are hatched.
- [4]. The woman whom we met at the party and whom we later invited home just rung to say she can't come tonight.
- [5]. Anything goes!
- [6]. The whitest wash and the sweetest-smelling wash too!
- [7]. Often it is impossible to say whether they are telling the truth or not.

CHAPTER 6

SEMANTICS

Philosophically, humans utilize language as our attempt in conveying a message. In an arranged communication, meaning become our essence in interacting one to another; and language serves as the medium in delivering such core. In a more practical approach, Semantic, as a branch of linguistic discipline, exists solely to address this importance of meaning. Yes, Semantic deals with how meanings are molded and connected to both philosophy and logic of our sense. This study has an interdisciplinary counterpart called as semiotic.

In contrary to semantic, semiotic put more emphasizes upon the meaning that embedded upon all kinds of sign along with all of its aspects. The example of this condition might be found almost in our surrounding environment. For instance, how an "okay" sign in western culture may differently interpreted in eastern, especially Japanese norm (in which they regard "ok" hand gesture means money). This is an obvious example that each symbol, word, or any smallest meaningful unit of a language, indeed has its own connotation.

In a brief historical background, the study of semantic itself has long been found since the humanity discover the principle

called 'what is what'. It inquires our curiosity and sense of discovery in each signs that later transpired into complex utterances, as the basis of language interaction. The word itself, as you might've guessed, is derived from ancient Greek word of σημαντικός (sēmantikós), which crudely means significant. This discipline concerned with the use of signifier (such symbol, sign, phrase, or even word) as well as its denotation.

The word itself naturally refers to many discipline, and not exclusive to linguistic only. For instance, it intersects the study of lexicology, etymology, as well as other linguistic sub-branches. A French philologist named Michel Breal was the first person to ever use this term as a denotation of an idea ranges. This study is an opposite equivalent to syntax, aside from pragmatic. Semantic is closely associated with the matter of reference, denotation, as well as representation. Semantic also studies the relation of different linguistic units and compound.

In semantic, we will be clashed with several different terminologies in term of the purpose of an utterance. There are statement, question, and command. The first type holds either true or false value; while the second hold a value of request, order, or direction (as the name implies), and the last serve a neutral value as a question doesn't hold any true or false attribution. In line with the previous paragraph, we will have to break down what constitutes compound, along with its types and characteristic in producing a meaning.

Compound Classification

Generally, a compound is no less than a lexeme (a sign or word to be precise), which contains more than one stem. Compound lexeme, which is necessary in word formation process involves compounding, composition, as well as nominal composition. These compound, lexically, is divided into nine separate categories. These

are homonymy, synonymy, antonymy, hypernymy, hyponymy, meronymy, metonymy, holonymy, and paronyms as the last one. Each of these type has its own distinguishable role in constructing a meaning in whole.

In understanding how each compound works, we'll distinguish each of these unit in the following description:

1. Homonym

The term itself is quite obvious for its concept. Homonym broadly described as words that sounds or spelled similar, despite having different meaning. The more restrictive rule of this concept comes into homophone (words with identical pronunciation, regardless the spelling) and homograph (words with identical spelling regardless the pronunciation). Its relationship between homonyms is called as homonymy. Homonym may come from the same word origin, or either from a totally distinct origin.

The term “**homonym**” itself came from a Greek word ὁμώνυμος (homonymos), which is an addition of ὁμός (homos), which means “same” and ὄνομα (onoma) meaning “name”. Several examples of homonym are pen (a place for animal) and pen (writing instrument), book (make reservation – verb) and book (noun). Homonym with the same origin (true homonym) is exemplified in mouth (river) and mouth (anatomy), while the pseudo homonym example is skate (fish – noun) and skate (verb).

2. Synonym

This kind of compound refers to a word or phrase that means nearly (or even exactly) the same as another lexeme. These kind of words that has the same meaning considered as synonymous, while synonymy is the condition of being synonym. The origin of this similarity is due to the influence of etymology, orthography, phonic quality, connotation, as well as its own

ambiguity and the usage of each word. The term itself came from Ancient Greek *sýn* (σύν; "with") and *ónoma* (ὄνομα; "name").

Synonym may emerged in any of possible part of speech. For a particular language, English for one, synonym arose mostly during the expansion of language growth (prior to Norman Conquest of England, back in the middle age). These are several examples of synonym in each part of speech: noun as in money and fund, verb as in trade and exchange, adjective as in small and tiny, adverb as in carefully and cautiously, as well as preposition as in on and upon. Its use heavily relies on the sense of propriety.

3. Antonym

Opposing to the previous type, this compound lying in an innately unsuited binary relationship; or in short, opposite pairs. The example comes in many possible words, like big and small, cheap and pricy, many and few, so on and so forth. We do found on which pair that represent the opposite of a certain word based upon its entail. Entail means logical consequence. For instance, we can deduce that word good has also means 'not bad'; hence, bad has the opposition towards word good in itself.

4. Hypernym & Hyponym

There is a unique linguistic feature in semantic, which in slight appeared to be lexical grouping called as Hypernym and Hyponym. To shorten this, a set of hyponym is in a type of certain hypernym. For instance, word tuna, salmon, whale, and shark are the hyponyms of hypernym 'fish'. In other word, hypernym can also be called as blanket or umbrella term.

5. Meronym

Originated from a Greek word *μέρος* meros, (which means part) and *ὄνομα* onoma, (that means name), meronym exist as a function that denotes a part of something. The simple

formulation is X is a meronym of Y (which signifies that X is a part of Y). For instance, hair is a meronym of head. This function similarly works the same (to which may cause disambiguation) with metonymy.

6. Metonymy

As slightly mentioned above, metonymy exists as a representative value towards something else. It doesn't necessarily have to be the part of that something else. For instance, the scythe is a metonymy of death, as a scythe itself is neither a comparison nor a whole part of something. Yes, the concept is quite closer to what we regarded as 'synecdoche', though both have their own differentiation in terms of role or function. Both of them are commonly found in many literatures, which often demand the subtleties of meaning formation.

7. Holonymy

This compound is a semantic relation, which outlines the link between a term signifying the whole and a term representing a member of the whole, is called as holonymy. The term came from the Greek word ὅλον holon, (translated as whole) and ὄνομα onoma, (that means name). This concept opposes the rule meronymy, which is quite self-explanatory on its own. The easiest example is our body as the holonym of eyes, hands, stomach, etc.. Thus, the formula would be X is a holonym of Y if Ys are part of X.

8. Paronymy

Fairly conflicting to homonyms, which are words with different meanings having the same spelling or pronunciation, paronyms are words that are written or pronounced in a similar way, yet carrying different lexical meanings. The key here is that both words should be identical, for instance alternately and alternatively, or excise and exercise. Under some rarest

case, paronyms can also be classified as synonym, despite often causing confusion for most. The term itself denotes to cognate words (words from the same root).

The Meaning of “Meaning”

Prior to the major focus of Semantic study, we better comprehend the very nature of meaning itself. First off, meaning emerged from a sign-situation (under the influence of context), which later will get decoded through human understanding in accord with their prior background knowledge. However, as Semantic only deals with literal meaning, there are around four kinds of recognizable types of meaning, in which each of these has its own trait in meaning construction. These types are described as follow:

1) Lexical Meaning

This subfield is also widely known as Lexicosemantic. The domain analyses a lexical unit which covers not only word, but also its complemental features such phrase, or even affixes; thus this discussion is correlated with derivational morphology. For short, derivational morphology is a process of new word formation, from an existing word by adding suffixes. The domain closely examines the relation of language structure (in syntax) with meaning formation of each lexical unit.

2) Grammatical Meaning

Whereas for this type, the meanings that we might find are those that were conveyed in a sentence through a set of word order, and another grammatical signals. This type of meaning identification is also called as structural meaning that indirectly refers to inflectional morphology. Similarly to the concept of its derivational equivalent, inflectional type constructs grammatical variant instead of a whole new word (distinct lexeme).

Apart from that, such formation still influence the whole meaning creation in a sentence.

3) Sentence Meaning

When it comes to the meaning deduced from a sentence, then our prior linguistic knowledge will refer this subdomain as an extension of syntax. In Semantic term, there is a chance that you'll find this kind of method under the name of 'sentential semantic' (or phrasal semantic by several linguists). It deals mostly in meaning analysis in a unit larger than word (or phrase), and that's is sentence. This type of approach leads into the principle of compositionality, which futher encompasses modality and quantification.

4) Utterance Meaning

In this part of meaning type, an utterance inquiry for a meaning will most likely lead to Pragmatic study. Since contextual meaning heavily related and connected into the first three types preceding this kind. Therefore, the discussion of utterance meaning will not be exposed further as it would lead new learners lost in thought for such interloping discourse.

Aside from the above distinction, meaning in Semantic study is divided into two big hemisphere. They are external and internal meaning. The connection of external meaning in a language comprises a sense and a denotation (the word correlation towards its significance). While for internal meaning relies in each of the abovementioned compound.

Principle of Compositionality

To convey is to compose. Such palpable concept is enough to signify what makes an utterance became meaningful.

Similarly on how to a certain food was made; a chef cannot thoughtlessly put all the cooking materials in order to create something from an individual cooking unit called as ingredient. Language works the same as the preceding analogy. Think language as a specific variant. Each of the variant has its own composition. That composition (or formula) might be applicable for some language or inclusively for a particular language.

In regard with this understanding, compositionality remained vital as the backbone of meaning formation lies in this part. To define this idea, principle of compositionality is a theorem that regards the whole meaning of a sentence or phrase may be defined by a functional interdependency of its own parts. This concept is also called as Frege's (or Fregean) principle as ascribed towards Friedrich Ludwig Gottlob Frege, a popular German philosopher, logician mathematician who earned his title as the father of analytic philosophy.

Despite that, the theorem is quite vague and somehow underspecified. For instance what meaning is, what counts as part, syntactic complex, as well as combination. Due to such trait embedded into this concept, many linguistic deemed Frege's principle as something reversed, or even entirely wrong, since there're quite a number of cited assertion of critics directed towards this theorem in many literature. Surprisingly, this kind of idea is also used in several major disciplines, like the language philosophy or even mathematic.

As previously mentioned, it is reasonable to assume that we can construct a different meaningful phrase or even sentence by using the very similar units that build the previous phrase or sentence. In a nutshell, this concept of meaning decoding entirely depended upon one's assumption that the interpretation.

Semantic Feature

Every single meaningful unit of a language has its own attribution. These attributions make any lexical item unique one to another. Here, the study semantic exists as a medium to

label these lexical items into a basic conceptual component. A specific semantic feature creates one component of word's intention at a time. Within the domain of linguistic, intention serves as any quality or property connoted by a word, phrase, or another symbol. For instance, one might attributes the intentions of 'manmade', 'edible', and 'inanimate' towards a bread.

As for the slight example just now, it shows that semantic feature enables us to explain how words that resemble certain features may be a part of the same domain. Likewise, this deed of word attribution also helps us in differentiating a particular word, phrase, or sign through diverging semantic feature. As for the aforementioned example, bread and ice cream share the same trait. Yet, these two differ in term of form (or shape), as bread is 'solid', while ice cream is 'soft' or 'mushy'. Thus, such difference gives them its own meaning respectively.

The process of attribution upon the given example just now is also called as semantic decomposition. It enables any lexical item to be defined, according to minimal elements of meaning, which is called as semantic feature itself. This term is interchangeable with semantic component. In this segment, as a learner, you will have to comprehend the rule of feature notation. The rule of semantic feature lies in notation. It is a process of word labelling as previously mentioned. Here is an example of notation for several lexical item (word):

- Tortoise is [+Animal], [+Four Legged], [-Mammal]
- Horse is [+Animal], [+Four Legged], [+Mammal]
- Bat is [+Animal], [-Four Legged], [+Mammal]

The example shown above, is a rough concept on how we should attach a notation (or semantic property) towards a specific word. We can grasp that semantic properties are signified with square bracket, and a minus or plus sign, which indicates an existence of the

specified property. Upon closer examination, it is quite obvious that the property is narrowed down in each segment. The order of notation is started mostly from the broader (general), into the specified one. The more we put semantic properties, the more detailed diversions we'll have.

Summary

Many scientists (and linguists alike) gained a better comprehension towards language acquisition and how a certain language is being learned, since this discipline (along with pragmatic) is a branch of linguistic study that concern with pure literal meaning. By mastering this field of topic, we also may gained a broader perspective upon how 'meanings' created through the set of agreement along with its universal set of formulas and rules; which in later consequence, helps us in following up the pace of language evolution.

Semantic also serves as an intersectional study, in which, its presence is correlated with the pieces of another linguistic branches as we've pertained in the previous discussions; such how the connection of internal meaning is closely related to the subfield of syntax and so on.

Exercise!

1. Offer synonyms for the underlined words in the following sentences:

[1]. He was praised for his kingly bearing.

[2]. He could not tolerate the noise. [3].

Indicate the route to my abode.

[4]. She lit it.

[5]. He always referred to himself as a labourer.

2. Select the most appropriate antonyms for the underlined items below.

[1]. My coffee is cold.

[2]. She has dark hair.

[3]. We arrived at noon.

[4]. It was a very wide river.

[5]. It was the smallest elephant I had been seen.

3. Complete the following idioms:

[1]. As right as

[2]. Bark up the wrong [3].

Cry for the

[4]. Keep a profile

[5]. Get to the gritty [6].

Burn the at both ends.

CHAPTER 7

PRAGMATICS

Do you always think that all utterances that were spoken or written are meant the way they were expressed? Perhaps you're just kind of fail to catch another the implied message in each event of communication? Ever though about the subtle art of speech? Then welcome abroad in this chapter. Yes, Pragmatic, as the name implies, is the direct counterpart of Semantic discipline as we've learned in the previous chapter. When we said 'direct counterpart', it infers that Pragmatic is a branch of linguistic study that specifically concerns towards an indirect (or implicit) meaning concealed in every utterance. Contrary to its opposite discipline, Semantic, which studies the exact meaning of an utterance.

When it comes to Pragmatics, people, as either locutors or interlocutors in a interactional circumstances, will unavoidably develop their own comprehension, which later became a conclusion towards a specific discourse; and yes, each individual grows his/her view upon the context in a particular situation. To shorten such portrayal, it evolves around the social rules we follow when we talk to others, as how a proverb stated when in Rome, do as the Romans, yet technically involving the use of verbal language (obviously).

Compared to other branches of linguistic discipline, Pragmatic is deemed as the youngest study compared to its siblings. The first mention of it, may be traced back in the mid of 20th century. Around 1930s, Morris, Carnap, along with Peirce initiated a discrete domain, which specifically concerned towards the study of implied meaning. This initiation, in the very beginning, denotes Pragmatic itself as a context-dependent towards a meaning that is methodically being abstracted from the construction of logical form and/or its content.

Yet, historically Pragmatic has rooted deep in some interdisciplinary studies, like philosophy, sociology, as well as anthropology. Its name is actually a derivation of Latin word *pragmaticus*, in which similarly adapted from a Greek word *πραγματικός* (*pragmatikos*) that roughly originated from the combination of *πρᾶγμα* (*pragma*), which translated as “deed”; and *πράσσω* (*prassō*) which refers to an intention of doing a certain deed. Ferdinand de Saussure espoused this study as a contrastive reaction towards structural linguists.

In overall, Pragmatic comprises several areas of study. These area covers speakers’ meaning (including intention and beliefs); contextual meaning, along with its influence; the study of implicature, relative distance (both physical and social), information structure, as well as formal pragmatic. However, it is worth mentioned that this chapter will only covers several importance subfields of Pragmatic, knowing that this is only the introductory part. These fields are implicature, presupposition, speech act, performative utterance, reference, and deixis.

Implicature

An implicature is *suggestion* or implication made by a speaker with an utterance, despite not expressed literally. The first one who brought the term itself is none other than a popular language philosopher, Herbert Paul Grice, who under his name, Gricean Maxim was invented. Implicature, by most linguists is deemed as a phenomenon. In term of usage, Grice mostly referred this term as conversational implicature. Similar to all implicatures, yet only for what is communicated. This discussion is heavily linked to Gricean Maxim in Discourse study.

Implicature also regarded as explicature within the framework of relevance theory. Contrary to its equivalent, explicature of an utterance are conversed assumptions, which are advanced from its literal meaning, through the addition of contextual information

through conveying referents to pronoun and other variable, or disambiguating ambiguous expressions. Other from conversational implicature, we should also be familiarized with conventional implicature, despite never been elaborated excellently by Grice himself.

Presupposition

This term comes with an abbreviation of PSP. Presupposition is an assumption that implicitly made by listener upon a certain context within an interaction. The assumption itself is related to an utterance by which its degree of truth often disregarded in a particular discourse. For instance, supposed that a certain person said “I used to be the deputy chairman of that organization”. As a listener, we’ll undoubtedly build a presupposition of “he/she was a deputy chairman before” or “he was abdicated from the position of deputy chairman”, and so on.

Presupposition should be recognized by mutual comprehension from both speaker and listener, so that the correlated utterance can be reflected as context-appropriate. A unique concept of this Pragmatic item indicates that negation cannot change a presupposition. For instance, when a speaker said “my life is going to be ended here” and “my life won’t be ended here”, both signifies that the speaker has a life.

Speech Acts

One of the structured as well as classifiable utterance that is spoken in actual interaction context is the speech act itself. Some major linguists regarded that the study of speech act fills almost one third of the entire Pragmatic domain. Hence, understanding this key feature will be a feast for us all as language learners. For starters, in both linguistic and language philosophy, speech act is something expressed by individual that serves both in delivering information and

performing the act itself. Speech act served its function once spoken. In term of analysis, speech act can be divided into three distinct levels. There are locutionary act, illocutionary act, and a further perlocutionary act. The first one, illocutionary act, is a central concept of the entire speech act discourse. To simplify the understanding, first off, the target area should be cleared. Illocutionary act was directed towards the speaker, while perlocutionary act was focused towards listener.

As for the perlocutionary act, it is the effect caused within the reaction of locutor and interlocutor (or speaker and listener in short). The effect comes in various types and forms. It can be something convincing to scaring, enlightening or suppressing. Hence, Austin regarded this as a mere consequence. Perlocutionary act might be viewed as an external sense to an utterance (the outcome).

In speech act theory, there is a concept, which addresses to the criteria that should be fulfilled and condition that ought to be in place in order for a speech act to attain its goal. Such concept is called felicity conditions. Another simplified description of this term is 'felicitous' or well-matched for the utterance's purpose. Generally, felicity condition is usable under three major uses. There are declarations, requests, and warnings. Each of these condition has its own requirement. For both request and warning, the requirements are mentioned as follow:

- 1) **Essential**, where the speaker proposes the recipient to do an utterance.
- 2) **Preparatory**, when the speech circumstance and speaker's authority aligned one to another.
- 3) **Propositional content** that needs participants to understand language instead of acting it out.
- 4) **Sincerity**, where the speech is being carried in sincere and thoughtful vibe or atmosphere.

While for the declaration, there are only three different requirements described as these following points:

- 1) Procedure conventionality
- 2) Appropriate participants and circumstances
- 3) Complete execution, which requires less error and mistakes in utterance conveyance.

Meanwhile, the message of any given speech act may be identical one to another. This condition also applies toward indirect speech act. The name suggest that this is a kind of ‘further’ speech act. For instance, supposed that you’re in a closed room with an AC turned on. Then your friend blurted “cold isn’t it?” out of nowhere. Considering its trait of presupposition, and the context of indirect speech act, your friend might give you the signal of “please turn off the AC”, instead of acquiring your personal affirmation about the room’s temperature.

Indirect speech act sometimes attributed to a certain degree of politeness in particular country or in a certain culture (mainly in Eastern Asia). Indeed, some people prefer straightforwardness, instead of ‘beating the bush around’. Yet, it can’t be helped when in several occasions, we need to utilize this kind of feature to soothe out our interaction. Indirect speech act mostly found in any form of rejection or refusal. One more thing to be considered, is that this kind of speech act is quite puzzling for some individuals with low sense of refinements.

Performative Utterance

In regards with the previous discussion, in speech act, a sentence that not only portray a given reality, yet also change the social reality itself is called as performative utterance. This concept was first introduced by a renowned British language philosopher, John Langshaw Austin, in which he strongly opposed the theory, which claimed that utterances always define something that leads

to either true or false value (a concept that slightly introduced in Semantic chapter). Thus he introduced the newer concept of performative sentence or locutionary act.

Prior to the previous discussion, locutionary act revolves around the performance of an actual utterance, and its apparent meaning, consisting of any social, verbal as well as rhetorical meanings that correspond to the semantic and syntactic aspect of any meaningful utterance. Now, Austin defined what was characterized as performatives. There are two major traits of this Pragmatic feature, described as follow:

- 1) **Performative utterances** are *non-truth-evaluable value*. Hence, these utterance don't have either true or false attribution.
- 2) **Uttering performative** is a part of doing a particular action necessary in communication context.

Deixis

Deixis is a linguistic term, which refers to words or phrases that unable to be fully comprehended without its complemental information. It is also an obvious method in which the connection between context and an utterance (or language) is established within the structures themselves. By nature, most words are deictic if their semantic meaning is fixed, while their denotational meaning diverges liable on place and/or time. This concept is treated mainly as a specific subclass for indexicality phenomenon of semiotic.

An American linguist, Charles J Fillmore proposed the type of major gramaticalized deixis, which consisting of personal deixis, spatial deixis, as well as temporal deixis. It is worth mentioned that person deixis often utilizes pronoun, while temporal and spatial deixis employs adverb and demonstratives words (only for spatial typed).

Here are several example of these deixis:

- 1) **Personal deixis**: I am going to the cinema; would you prefer this option?; they don't invite me like she did.

- 2) ***Spatial deixis***: I love staying in this room; here lies the hope of ours; they were gathering over there.
- 3) ***Temporal deixis***: Now is the time!; let's start this tomorrow; make sure you close the door when you're finished.

Cooperative Principle

As slightly mentioned within the discussion of implicature, this principle also comes into another term, and that is Gricean Maxims. The name itself is already self-explanatory about who invented this theory. Cooperative principle is a concept that intersects both the domain of Pragmatic and Discourse Analysis. Further deliberation will be put in the chapter of Discourse Analysis.

Summary

Sometime we know everything about a language, yet unable to recognize what it really does. With this kind of issue, Pragmatic emerged as a study that is able to facilitate us all in overcoming the problem mentioned before. Since Pragmatic is all about relationship and behavior, it has integration for socio-cultural value and includes human as an influential factor in each meaning formation. Yes, the discourse of Pragmatic covers a whole lot of theories and concepts that require further comprehension and thoughtful considerations.

Despite that, you'll find Pragmatic as an entire new plane to be explored. It goes beyond the textual representation and literal depiction. Pragmatic encompasses the subtlest art in meaning decoding, unlike any other linguistic subfields (like Semantic for one). Grasping the delicacies of intended meaning may help us all in becoming sensitive and solicitous individuals due to our ability in reading and comprehending beyond the textual representations

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

What does “Discourse” mean?

In much of the preceding discussion, the simple scenarios presented to depict language in use have been populated with virtually no social lives. We’ve also learnt the internal structure of language itself. Yet, much of what we say and a big deal of what we communicate, is determined by our social relationship. A linguistic interaction is necessarily a social interaction.

In order to make sense of whats get communicated by what is said during an interaction. In language use, we use a term ‘interaction’. The term “interaction” actually apply to number of quite different social encounters. For example, a doctor talks to a patient in a clinic. The kind of talk is likely to different according to the different context of interaction. During interaction, speakers have to organize the structure and content of what they want to say. Also, they have to package their messages in accordance with what they think their listeners do and don’t know, as well as sequence everything in a coherent way. A wide-range of activities which investigate the use of language in both oral or written language is called **Discourse**.

The term “**discourse**” is referred to cover some important aspects such as discourses, communities of practice, cultural communities, distributed knowledge, thought collectives, practices, cultures, and forms of life.

The Emergence of a New Cross-Discipline

In the mid-1960s, the humanities and the social sciences witnessed a synchronous paradigm shift with the birth of several new but mutually related ‘interdisciplines’ such as semiotics, psycholinguistics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics as well as discourse. This new

cross-discipline has contribute in analysing language use, communication and social interaction.

When some linguists just realized that the use of language was not obviously reduced to the structures of isolated, abstract, invented sentence, but need analysis of structure 'above the sentence' and entire 'texts' to account for anaphora and coherence. However, the core of discourse as a new interdiscipline remains in the *systematic and explicit analysis of the several structures and strategies of different levels of talk and text.*

Scope of Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is influenced by other disciplines and it influences them as well. It restricted to linguistics issues, the record (spoken or written) of the process by which language is used in sme context to express intention. The context which is commonly investigated shaped by relations of power, and invested with ideologies. For this reason, discourse analysis examines oral and written texts from several areas (e.g. medical, legal, advertising) and from all sorts of perspectives (e.g. race, gender, power). It has also a number of practical applications, such as in analysing communication problems in education, medicine, or in analysing writing style of a news articles.

The analysis of discourse shares its quest with a number of disciplines in which language occupies a prominent position being the principal means of human communication. This overlap is, as Schiffrin (1994) points out, obviously due to the arduousness of describing language in isolation:

It is difficult to separate language from the rest of the world. It is this ultimate inability to separate language from how it is used in the world in which we live that provides the most basic reason for the interdisciplinary basis of discourse analysis. To understand the language of discourse,

then, we need to understand the world in which it resides; and to understand the world in which language resides, we need to go outside of linguistics. (Schiffrin as cited in Widdowson, 1996, p. 110)

The construction of discourse itself involves several processes that operate simultaneously. Probing into this construction requires analytical tools that derive from linguistics, sociology, psychology, anthropology, and even philosophy, according to the nature of these processes. Being informed by approaches in such fields gives DA an interdisciplinary nature and makes it a wide-ranging and a heterogeneous branch of linguistics with a medley of theoretical perspectives and analytical methods depending on the aspect of language being emphasised.

It is possible to distinguish several subfields within DA stemming out of works in different domains. McCarthy (1991) comments that this approach, despite being interdisciplinary, finds its unity in the description of 'language above the sentence' and a concern with the contexts and cultural influences that affect language in use. In a brief historical overview, he specifies the following main contributors to DA research, whose interest has been, in some way, the study of larger stretches of language and their interaction with the external world as a communicative framework.

The Use of Language

In discourse, the function of language is divided into three: **ideational function**, **interpersonal function** and **textual function**. First, ideational function means the speaker has adequate information to be transferred to the hearer. In such a situation, the recipients (or hearer) gets the informative detail correct message, therefore we call it '*message oriented*'. Second, interpersonal function is to maintain social relationship, such as taking part in social interaction).

While the third is textual function means the written language that is derived from oral or originally in written form must be well-formed and appropriate text.

Oral and Written Language

- a. **Manner of production** – how language is produced by the speaker and writer under some circumstances.

The speaker may control the production of communicative systems which are different from those controlled by the writer, he is also processing that production under circumstances which are considerably more demanding. In other words, the speaker must monitor his own performance and how it is received by his hearer. The speaker also has no permanent record of what he has said earlier, and only under uncommon circumstances does he have notes which remind him what he wants to say next.

On the contrary, the writer has no fear of his interlocutor interrupting him, he can take times in choosing a particular words, checking his notes, reorder what he has written, and even changing his mind about what he wants to say. Whereas, the speaker know that any words which pass his lips will be heard by his hearer and, if they are not what he intends, he will have to 'repair' what he has just said.

However, the advantage for the speaker is he can observe his interlocutor and he is able to modify what he is saying to make it more acceptable to his hearer. However, the writer has no access to immediate feedback and no imagine the reader's reaction.

- b. **Text as discourse representation** – Text must assign speeched to the correct characters, sentences to the correct paragraphs, and paragraphs to the correct chapters.

The notion of "**text**" as a printed record is common in the study of literature. it also reaches beyond the reproduction of printed material in some printed forms. In *written* text, even though, we

present text in different editions, we should use the same words in the same correct order. Editors usually feel obliged to comment on the crux, where there are disputed readings of texts. Moreover, the writer reproducing the text in a printed version because he has to make a considerable effort of interpretation to assign a value to some of the less legible words.

However, in *spoken* text, the notion of “**text**” as a verbal record of a communicative act. The simplest view to assume is that a taperecording of a communicative act will preserve the ‘text’ in form of events such as coughing, chair creaking, buses going past, and so on. We shall insist that these events do not constitute part of the text, but as discourse analyst will make a written transcription. As we have defined, the perception and interpretation of each text is essentially subjective. Different individuals pay attention to different aspects of texts. Whereby we take it for granted that readers of a text or listeners to a text share the same experience.

The important relationship between discourse functions among informing (saying), action (doing), and identity (being). In fact, saying things in language always go with also doing things and being things. Let’s take a simple example. When a stranger greets you on the street and says “Hi, how are you?” but you do not know what to make of it. *Who is he? What is he doing here?* These are what will you think of. The word might be same, but what we are talking will mean very different things. We must consider who we are and what we are doing when we say things matters.

Pragmatics of Discourse

Discourse analysis considers how language, both written or spoken, enacts our social, cultural perspective and identities. Within the study of discourse, the pragmatic perspective is more specified. It tends to focus on what is unwritten and unsaid within the discourse being analyzed. We have to look behind the forms and structures

present in the text, and pay more attention to psychological concepts such as beliefs, background knowledge and expectations. In the pragmatics of discourse, we can explore what the speaker or writer has in mind.

Coherence

Generally, what language users have in mind is an assumption of coherence. Coherence is necessary because of evidence that we tend to make interpretations of common material and not to see possible alternatives. Look at the following example of newspaper headline:

- Man Robs Hotel with Sandwich

If you created an interpretation that had the sandwich (perhaps in bag) being used as if it was a gun, means you activated the background knowledge expected by the writer. However, you may have created a quite distinct interpretation, for example, the man was eating the sandwich while robbing the hotel. Whatever it was, it was inevitably based on what you had in mind and not only on what was in the text as in example above.

There are various approaches to discourse analysis, but some of them just focus on the “content” of the language being used, the themes or issues being discussed in a conversation or a newspaper article. The following approaches pay attention to the structure of language (grammar) and how this structure function to make meaning in specific context.

Role of Context in Interpretation

Some of the most overt linguistic elements which require contextual information for their interpretation are the deictic forms, as mentioned in chapter 7, such as *her, now, I, you, this and that*. In order to interpret these elements in a piece of discourse, at least we should know the speaker and hearer are, and the time and

place of the production of the discourse. Occasionally, the discourse analyst who concern on the relationship between the speaker and the utterance regardless of their use, we use terms such as **reference**, **presupposition**, **implicature** and **inference** in order to indicate relationship between discourse participants and elements in the discourse.

Reference & Inference

You should know that words themselves do not refer to anything but people using them. **Reference** is an act of the speaker or writer using a linguistic form to enable a listener or reader to identify something, depends on the speaker's intention and beliefs. Those linguistic forms are: proper nouns, definite noun phrase, indefinite noun phrase and pronouns.

For successful reference, we have to recognize the role of **inference**, in which depend on the listener. The listener must infer correctly which entity the speaker intends to identify by using a specific referring expression. In order to do so, the listener uses additional knowledge to make sense of what is unsaid.

In addition, we might note that successful reference is collaborative, with both speaker and listener having a role in thinking about what the other has in mind. However, we have to realize that who or what we are talking about for more than one sentence at a time. After the initial introduction of some entity, speakers will use various expressions to maintain reference, as in the following example:

- In the film, a man and a woman were trying to wash a cat. The man was holding the cat while the woman poured water on it. He said something to her and they started laughing.

For initial reference in English is often indefinite (a man, a woman, a cat). The pronouns (it, he, her, they) are examples of subsequent reference to introduced referents, is generally known as **anaphoric reference**. In technical terms, the subsequent expression is

called **anaphor** and **antecedent** is the initial expression. We can say that anaphoric reference as a process of continuing to identify the same entity as denoted by antecedent.

On the other hand, there is also the reversal of the antecedent which is known as **cataphora**, a pattern used to interpret the full noun phrase is presented in the next line. For example:

- I turned the corner and almost stepped on it. There was a large snake in the middle of the path.

The pronoun 'it' is cataphoric.

The immediate recognition of an intended referent represents something shared and social closeness. The assumption of shared knowled is also essentially involved in the study of presupposition.

Presupposition & Entailments

Presupposition is something that the speake assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. An entailment is something that logically follows from what is asserted in the utterance, regardless of whether the speaker's belief are true or false, in fact. Presupposition is actually treated as a relationship between two propositions. Take a look the example below:

- a. Lisa's dog is cute =*p* b. Lisa has a dog =*q*
 c. *p* >> *q*

The sentence in [a] contains the proposition *p* and the sentence in [b] contains the proposition *q*, then, using the symbol >> to mean **presuppose**.

Presupposition has associated with the use of broader number of words, phrase and structures. Here are the types of potential presuppositin which has summarized in the below table:

Type	Example	Presupposition
Existential	The X	>> X exists

Factive	I regret leaving	>> I left
Non-factive	She pretended to be happy	>> She wasn't happy
Lexical	She managed to escape	>> She tried to escape
Structural	When did she live?	>> She lived.
Counterfactual	If I weren't ill	>> I'm ill.

Implicature & Cooperation

So far we have assumed that speaker and listener involved in conversation or interaction are generally cooperating with each other. The sense of cooperation that a speaker can imply, suggest or mean as distinct from what the speaker literally says. According to Grice, there are conversational implicature which is derived from a general principle of conversation and a number of maxims which speakers will normally obey. The general principle is called **Cooperative Principle** presents in the following terms:

- ~ **Maxim of Quantity** – be an informative, but do not over informative.
- ~ **Maxim of Quality** – be truthful.
- ~ **Maxim of Relation** – be relevant.

Speaker A : I'm out of fuel.

Speaker B : There is a garage round the corner.

Here, the speaker B stated a fact about the world via the literal meaning of his utterance. The *garage* is not only round the corner but also will be open and selling fuel.

- ~ **Maxim of Manner** – be brief, be orderly, avoid ambiguity and avoid obscurity of expression.

Conversational implicature must be treated as inherently indeterminate since they derive from a supposition that the speaker

has the intention of conveying meaning and of obeying the Cooperative Principle.

The Approaches

Keep in mind that different linguistics approaches to discourse analysis use different theories of language structure, and take different views about how to talk about meaning. There are 6 major approaches to discourse:

- 1 **Speech act approach** – analyzing discourse through indirect speech acts. There are different types of speech acts:
 - Speak louder (directive)
 - Orchard Road is a shopper’s paradise (assertive)
- 2 **Interactional sociolinguistics** – focus on how people from different cultures may share grammatical knowledge of a language, but contextualize what is said differently to produce different messages. Simply, social and linguistics meaning created during communication.
 - Yeah, bring them down here. I’ll *flog* them for you.
- 3 **Ethnography of communication** – communication as a matter of cultural competence. It focuses on setting, participants, mood, and other kinds of behavioral rules.
- 4 **Pragmatic approach** – communication as doing things with words. It is referring to Gricean Cooperative Principle and its maxims.
- 5 **Conversational analysis** – communication as joint activity. It focuses on the sequential organization of talk, turn-taking and topic management (i.e. how and why they say it?).
- 6 **Variationist approach** – focus on the structural categories within texts (i.e. why that form?)

All of these approaches, the kinds of analysing are divided into two: 1) **Descriptive** – to gain deep explanation about how language works and why they work that way, 2) **Critical** as in “Critical Discourse Analysis”. The goal of this approach not only to gain deep explanation but also to intervene some problems in social or political issues, and controversies in the world.

Tools in Discourse Analysis

Considering these tools of inquiry to how people build identities and practices and recognize both of them that others are building around them. Here are the tools:

- a) **Social languages** – people use different styles of language for different purposes. By social language allows us to express different socially significant identities (e.g. gang member) and enacts different meaningful practices (e.g. demonstrating solidarity with a fellow gang member).
- b) **Discourses** – ways of combining and integrating language, actions, interactions, believing, valuing, ways of thinking and other “stuff” that isn’t language to enact a particular sort of socially recognizable identity. Bear in mind, Discourses are tools for engaging in discourse analysis.
- c) **Conversation** – It is used to know about the various sorts of people are usually on certain side.
- d) **Intertextuality** – sort of cases where one oral or written text directly or indirectly quotes another texts.

Critical Discourse Analysis

Discourse is the use of language that is understood as social praxis (Fairclough, 1995: 135). Discourse - and many examples of certain discursive praxis - in Fairclough's view must be seen simultaneously as (i) language texts, either oral or written, (ii) praxis of discourse, namely production and interpretation of texts, and (iii) sociocultural praxis, namely changes in society, institutions, culture, etc. that determine the form and meaning of a discourse.

The three elements according to Fairclough are called "discourse dimensions". Analyzing discourse critically is essentially analyzing these three dimensions of discourse integrally. These three dimensions are as a whole that cannot be separated from one another.

1. Language Text Analysis.

In a critical view, the text is constructed from a number of linguistic tools, which conceal ideology and power. In its application, Critical Discourse Analysis uses much of the linguistic tools suggested in Halliday's functional-systemic linguistics (1985; 1994) and Fowler's (1986) critical linguistics to provide for the possession of linguistic structures in the language text. In this stage, the analysis consists of (i) vocabulary, (ii) grammar, and (iii) text structure.

2. Praxis Analysis of Discipline

Praxis of discourse is related to the production and interpretation of discursive processes. The second stage analysis of Critical Discourse Analysis is in the form of interpreting (to interpret) the relation between production and interpretation of discursive processes. Two things that become material are (i) text interpretation, and (ii) interpretation of context. In the interpretation of

the text, there are four levels of interpretation domain, namely (i) birth form speech, (ii) speech meaning, (iii) local coherence, (iv) text structure and points. In the interpretation of context, there are two levels of interpretation, namely (i) the situational context, and (ii) the context between the contexts. 3. Sociocultural Praxis Analysis

The relationship between text and social structure is mediated by the social context of the discourse. Discourse will become real, operate socially, as part of the processes of institutional struggle and society. The third stage analysis of Critical Discourse Analysis is in the form of explaining the relationship of heterogeneous textual features along with the complexity of the discourse process with the process of sociocultural change, both community, institutional and cultural changes. According to Fairclough (1989: 163) the purpose of the explanatory stage is "photographing" discourse as part of the social process, as social praxis, which shows how the discourse is determined by any social and reproductive structure that influences discourse that cumulatively uses, sustains, or changes structure the structure.

Critical Discourse Analysis and Ideology

Literally, ideology means the science of ideas according to the times, the development of science, and knowledge. Ideological boundaries are a system of values or ideas owned by certain groups or layers of society, including processes that are general in the production of meanings and ideas. Critical Discourse Analysis studies about the dominance of an ideology as well as injustice run and operated through discourse. Fairclough argues that Critical Discourse

Analysis sees discourse as a form and social practice. Discourse practices display ideological effects.

Ideology is a central concept in Critical Discourse Analysis, for example literary discourse is a form of ideology or reflection of a particular ideology. This ideology is constructed by the dominant group with the aim of reproducing and legitimizing their domination. One strategy is to create awareness of the audience, which the dominance is taken for granted. Ideology in this case is inherently social and Critical Discourse Analysis sees discourse as a form of social practice.

A critical study of the language highlights how conventions and language practices relate to power relations and ideological processes that are often not realized by society. Some of the main ideas about critical study of language are:

1. Discourse is formed by society
2. Discourse helps shape and change knowledge and objects, social relations, and social identity
3. Discourse is shaped by power relations and associated with ideology
4. Establishment of discourse marks a push-pull power (power struggles)
5. Discourse examines how society and discourse form each other

Summary

In sum, discourse studies has come of age, and has become a major cross-discipline within and related to other major disciplines in the social sciences and humanities in order to account for the human phenomena: language-in-use.

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