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AN INTRODUCTION TO

LINGUISTICS

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An Introduction to Linguistics

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Banjarmasin, November 2019

Nanik Mariani, Fatchul Mu'in & Yusuf Al Arief

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Preface

PREFACE

The book entitled An Introduction to Linguistics is intended for providing materials to our students attending the subject of Introduction to Linguistics. Up to the present time, the subject has been lectured by using the handouts as a result of our compilation of some references on language and linguistics. This book is written based on the handouts that have been used since the writers handled the subject.

The materials discussed in this book cover What is a Language, Characteristics of Language, What is Linguistics, Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Transformational Grammar, Semantics, Sociolinguistics, and Psycholinguistics. In What is a language, the writers elaborate on the definition and concept of Human Language and Animal Language. In Characteristics of the human language, they explain some concepts on "A language is systematic, A language is arbitrary, A language is social, A language is spoken, A language is used for communication, and A language is complete for its speakers."

In Linguistics and Language Teaching, they present the definition of linguistics and its branches of linguistics, and linguistics in language teaching.

In Phonetics, they present the concept of phonetics and organs of speech are used for producing speech sounds, both vowels, and consonants, and will be explained how to differentiate voiced from voiceless sounds. While in classification of consonants, the kinds of consonants based on (a) Manner of Articulation, namely: Plosives/Stops, Fricatives, Affricates, Nasals, Lateral/Liquids, and Semi-vowels/Glides, and (b) Place of Articulation, namely: Bilabial, Labiodental, Interdental, Alveolar, Palatal, Velar, dan Glottal sounds will be explained in detail so that the students understand the mechanism of producing the consonants. In the classification of vowels, the kinds of vowels: (a) Front, Central, Back Vowels, (b) Open, Half-open, Close, Half-close vowels, and (c) Rounded and Unrounded Vowels and (d) Tenses and Lax Vowels will be elaborated.

In Phonology, the definition of phonology and the difference between phonetics and phonology will be presented. Also, in this chapter, phonemes, phones, and allophones will be discussed; these sub-topics include the ways to identify phonemes and phones, and also allophonic variation. The minimal pairs and minimal sets are also presented. The other sub-topic contains a brief description of Phonological Rules and its types such as Aspiration, Vowel Lengthening, Vowel Nasalization, Flapping, dan Nasal Deletion. The description is meant to help students to classify sounds in the processes of aspiration, vowel lengthening, vowel nasalization, flapping, and nasal deletion.

In Morphology, the definition of morphology, differences between phonemes and morphemes, differences between morphemes dan allomorph, and types of morphemes: Free morphemes and Bound morphemes are presented. This chapter also discusses the Word-formation process to show the students the process of word-formations (inflection and derivation).

In Syntax, the definition of syntax, content words and functional words, syntactical construction, and its types and sub-types, syntactic devices, and syntactical analysis are presented and elaborated. In Transformational-Generative Grammar, the definition of TG Grammar and its principles, and types of transformation are discussed briefly.

In Semantics, the definition of semantics and its aspects are discussed. While in Pragmatics, the definition of pragmatics and the difference between pragmatics and semantics are elaborated. While in Sociolinguistics, the definition of sociolinguistics, Language in socio-cultural aspects, Language variation, Language use, etc. are explained. And, in Psycholinguistics, the definition of psycholinguistics, the relation of linguistics and psychological aspects, language acquisition and language learning, mastery of two or more languages are presented.

Chapter I

WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Fatchul Mu'in

Before starting to discuss a language, sometimes we are necessary to define it. In this relation, we may make some questions such as: "What is a language?", or "What do you know about a language," or "What is meant by a language?" Someone's answer may be different from that of the other. For instance, he says: "Oh, it is what we use in communication" or the other says: "It is made up of sentences that convey meaning," or perhaps someone else says: "It is a means of communication." If those definitions are viewed from the study of language, they are insufficient ones. Let us examine the following definitions:

A language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols that permit all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact (Finocchiaro, in Ramelan 1984). A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Wardhaugh, in Ramelan, 1984). A language is an arbitrary system of articulated sounds made use of by a group of humans as a means of carrying on the affairs of their society (Francis, in Ramelan, 1984). A language is a set of rules enabling speakers to translate information from the outside world into sound (Gumperz, 1972).

Based on the definitions of a language above, we say that a language a means of communication. But, if the definition of a language is used in the study of language, we must involve the other means of communication that are not categorized as a language. If we regard a language as consisting of sounds, the fact shows that the different means of communication may use sounds as its medium. In short, a means of interface known as a language must have some characteristics that do not belong to the other means of communication.

Characteristics of Language

Based on the definitions of a language above, we can state some features of human language, as follows:

1. A language is a *system*.
2. *A* language is said to be *arbitrary*
3. *A L*anguage is *social*.
4. *A* language is *spoken.*
5. *A language* is productive or creative.
6. *A language is complete for its native speakers.*

Language is *systematic.*

Since a language is said to be a system, it must be systematic in nature. The systematism of a language can be seen from the fact that, take an example, if we regard a language as being made up of sounds, we find out that only certain sounds occur in any one language that these occur in specific regular and predictable patterns. In English, for instance, when a name for a new shampoo was coined, *Prell* was possible but not *Srell,* because the cluster *sr* does not occur in the language.

As has been known, a sentence is a combination of some words. The sentence is not

ordered at random. In this relation, we cannot say, "*Goes Ali school to every day.*" *The* English language has its own patterns of ordering some words to be a sentence. The patterns of ordering show that a language must be systematic.

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Language is a highly organized system in which each unit plays an important part which is related to other components (Boey, 1975: 1). All human languages have specific characteristics. This is to say, for instance, that a particular language, say *Bahasa Indonesia* or English, has its system. As a consequence, it has a dual structure, that is two levels of formation of systematic relationships. In other words, each language is a system consisting of two subsystems. One is the subsystem of meaningful units. The other is the subsystem of sounds, which have no meaning in themselves but which form the meaningful units.

The idea of systematicness of language as it is found in the arrangement of words implies the notion of predictability. In an English sentence a noun is usually preceded by a determiner, and so when someone hears a determiner, he can anticipate that a noun is following it; this noun, which may function as the subject of a sentence, will be followed by a verb as the central part of the predicate; this verb will take an *-s or –es* ending when the preceding noun functioning as subject is third-person singular actor and the sentence is in the simple present tense (Ramelan, 1984: 45).

A language is said to be *arbitrary*

A language is said to be *arbitrary*. This means that it is initially created based on social agreement. In this relation, there is no reasonable explanation, for instance, why a specific four-footed domestic animal is called a *dog* in English, *asu* in Javanese, or *anjing* in Indonesian. Giving a name of the animal is based on the agreement among the members of the social groups. On other words, Javanese, *English and Indonesian* people agreed to call the animal as *asu, dog, and anjing* respectively. In this relation, George Yule (1987: 118-19) states that the linguistic form has no natural relationship with that four-legged barking object. Recognizing this general fact about language leads us to conclude that a property of linguistic signs is their arbitrary relationship with the objects they are used to indicate.

A language is *social.*

Thirdly. Language is *social*. We all know that a language is socially acquired, learned, and then used. If this statement is related to language acquisition and/or language learning, we may have an illustration that a new-born child acquires a communicative competence with a given language in a speech community; in the next step, he learns and uses the language in a speech community. Thus, a language is not genetically transmitted; but, it is socio-culturally acquired and/or learned.

In the social context, a language is not only means for communication, but also it is a vital medium for establishing and maintaining a social relationship. For instance, there are two persons sitting in a waiting room of a bus station; they begin to introduce and talk to each other. In short, they know each other. At the time of introducing, communicating, and understanding each other, they establish a social relationship, and they will probably maintain their social relations in future time. Setting and maintaining social relationship must involve

the use of language.

A language is *spoken.*

A language is always spoken. This statement implies that all people the world over, regardless of their race or ethnic group, still speak a language. This means that they still have a way of communicating ideas by using sounds that are produced by their speech organs.

Human language can be said to be an oral-auditory communication system. Why? Oral-auditory communication has many advantages over other possible means of communication. A speaker and a listener do not need an instrument, as writers and readers do. This is to say that the writers and readers need writing implements and written texts, respectively. A speaker and a listener do not look at one another, like the deaf using hand-gestures language do. One can speak and listen while carrying out other activities, as long as they do not involve the mouth and the ear (Taylor, p. 6).

The kind of oral-auditory communication has some weaknesses. One weakness is that people cannot converse directly at distances greater than fifty feet. Another weakness is that speech signals are gone without a trace as soon as they are uttered. Nowadays, the spoken language can be recorded using a tape recorder.

Another means of communicating ideas is printed or written symbols, which is more prevailing and more often used in daily life. This means that they are exposed to the written language as found in newspapers, magazines, or letters so that they often confuse written language and the actual language, which is spoken. In this relation, it can be said that the spoken form of a language is primary, whereas the written form is secondary. This is to say that the written form of a language is only a representation of what is actually spoken.

A language is *productive or creative.*

Another characteristic of human language is that it is productive or creative. This refers to the ability of native speakers to understand and produce any number of sentences (which they never heard before) in their native language.

The first aspect of the creative use of language is that a human being can say things that have never been said before. If we think back about our talk we have just had with our friend, we may be sure that our conversation consisted of sentences that neither we nor our conversant have heard or produced before.

A language is *complete* for its native speakers

A language is a part of human culture. Besides, it is used for establishing and maintaining a social relationship, and it is used for expressing human culture. A language is complete for its native speakers to express their own culture. If a language is regarded as a system of symbol, it can be used as constitutive, cognitive, expressive, and evaluative symbols. *A constitutive symbol* refers to a symbol of human belief to God or supernatural power; for instance, human beings pray to God by using a language. *A cognitive symbol* refers to a symbol created by human beings to recognize and introduce human knowledge about their environment; for instance, they create some terms that represent something existing in their surroundings. People in South Kalimantan understand some terms of water transportation means such as *jukung, klotok, ketinting,* etc. Javenese people understand some words such as *pari, gabah, beras, and nasi*; meanwhile, English people know them as *rice*.

An expressive symbol refers to a symbol used by the human being to express their

emotion. An evaluative symbol refers to a symbol used by the human being to state something good or bad, honest or dishonest, and the like.

Functions of a language

Forms of sentences of a language generally serve a specific function. The sentences are created, among others, based on purposes. The purposes of creating sentences are (a) to inform something or someone to the audiences; the sentences created are called statements (declarative sentences), (b) to question about something or someone; the resultant forms are interrogative sentences, (c) to ask or command someone to do something; the consequent structures are imperative sentences, and (d) to show a surprise on someone or something; the resultant forms are exclamatory sentences.

Traditionally, there are three functions of a language. These three functions of a language are actually related from one to another. For the sake of discussion, they are discussed in separate ways. The prime function of a language has been assumed to be cognitive; a language is used to express ideas, concepts, and thought. The second function is said to be evaluative; a language has been viewed as a means of conveying attitudes and values. The third function of a language is referred to be affective; a language is used by its speakers to transmit emotions and feelings.

According to Mary Finocchiaro, there are six functions of a language are; they are as follows:

1. Personal. The personal function enables the user of a language to express his innermost thoughts; his emotions such as love, hatred, and sorrow; his needs, desires, or attitudes; and to clarify or classify ideas in his mind.
2. Interpersonal. The interpersonal function enables him to establish and maintain good social relations with individuals and groups; to express praise, sympathy, or joy at another's success; to inquire about health; to apologize; to invite.
3. *Directive function.* The directive function enables him to control the behavior of others through advice, warnings, requests, persuasion, suggestions, orders, or discussion.
4. *Referential function.* The referential function enables him to talk about objects or events in the immediate setting or environment or the culture; to discuss the present, the past, and the future.
5. *Metalinguistic function.* The metalinguistic function enables him to talk about language, for example, "What does mean?"
6. *Imaginative function.* The imaginative function enables him *to use language creatively in rhyming, composing poetry,* writing, or speaking (1989:1-2).

According to Roman Jacobson (in Bell, Roger T. 1976:83), functions of a language are related to aspects

ASPECT	FUNCTION
Addresser	Emotive, expressive, affective
Addressee	Conative
Context	Referential, cognitive, denotative
Message	Poetic
Contact	Phatic, interaction management
Code	Metalinguistic

Although the model is primarily connected with the nature of literary language, it provides a means of listing six primary language functions by indicating how the shift of focus from one aspect of the speech event to another determines the function of the language that is used in it. For example, (a) in relation to *emotive function*, the addresser aims at the direct expressions of his attitude to the topic or situation; (b) in relation to *conative function*, the speaker focuses on the person(s) addressed, for instance, when he calls the attention of another or requires them to carry out some action; (c) in relation to *context,* the participants of a speech act focus on the object, topic, content of the discourse; (d) in link to *message,* the speaker focuses on the message; (e) in relation to *contact,* a (particular) language is used for the initiation, continuation, and termination of linguistic encounters; and (f) in connection to *code*, a language is used to talk about the language itself.

Human Language and Animal 'Language'

When human beings come together, and when they play, fight, make love, or do something else, at the same time, they talk; they use a language. They talk to their friends, their associates, their husbands or wives, their parents, and parents-in-law; and they also speak to total strangers. They may speak face to face and over the telephone (Fromkin and Roadman, p. 1).

A language is used as a means of communication. With language, human beings can express their ideas and wishes to other people such as when they need the others' help. With language, they can establish and maintain social relationships; also, with language, they can cooperate between one and another (Ramelan, 1984: 36). However, we may be still confused about whether a language is the only means of communication or whether all means of communication are known as languages.

Different people may differently perceive a language. Some regard everything used for communication as a language. This statement is based on the fact that when we discuss a topic about the definition of language, they give different statements. For example, they state that gestures and bodily movement are referred to as languages; and, that there is what is known as animal language. As a consequence, there have been, at least, two kinds of languages: a human speech and an animal language. The human language may be perceived as having some types such as oral, written and body languages. Concerning the animal language, someone may give a question: "Does an animal have and use a language or is a means of communication used by an animal regarded as a real language?". The following discussion may guide us to understand what is actually called a language.

Human beings are not only species that can communicate among themselves, as animals are often said to possess some communication system too. As has been known, animals communicate with one another using their own means of communication. For instance, dogs bark when they want to send their message to another. They will bark in a certain way when they want to show the others that there is something to eat; they will produce a different kind of barking when they are in danger. The difference in the barking sounds produced the dog can be 'understood' by the others, and so communication takes place among them.

Another example is a hen cackling to her chickens. She will cackle in a certain way when she wants to call her chickens to them food; she will produce a different kind of cackling

sounds if she wants to warn them of coming danger. Other animals such as cats, monkeys, and elephants are also said to have a means of communication, which is understood by the animals concerned (Ramelan, 1984: 38). To some extent, these sounds serve the same purposes as human language. How does human language differ from animal language? Is animal language called as a real language?

Whether animal language is a real language or not, the fact shows that both human language and animal 'language' has a similarity between the two means of communication. The similarity that can be identified is that the sounds produced by both human beings and animals are intended to convey a message. Both human being and animal produce sounds by using their mouth. However, there are great differences between the two in their varieties and their possible combination. That is to say that the human system of communication enables human beings to be able to produce various kinds of sounds, by using speech organs. The sounds produced by the speech organs are often called *speech sounds.* The types of sounds produced by human beings are rich in variation; they can produce such vowels and consonants. Speech sounds can also be combined in many ways to form many utterances. The combinations of vowels and consonants are referred to as *morphemes or words*.

They can convey unlimited messages and produce a new combination of linguistic units to meet the needs of new situations.

Ramelan (1984: 38) states that with language, human beings can communicate not only about things connected with their biological needs, or preventing themselves from dangers but almost about anything at all. They may not only inform about objects which are in their surroundings, but they can speak about things which are remote in space and time; they can talk about things which are may miles away from them, and also about events which took place in the past time, which take place at present, and which will take place many years ahead.

On the other hand, animals can only communicate about things surrounding them; their communication is only intended for the sake of biological needs or preventing themselves from dangers, and the sounds produced are minimal and the sounds are further developed. A dog, for instance, can only provide two or three kinds of barking sounds to suit the purpose throughout its whole life.

In addition to the sounds produced and the content of the message sent by both human being and animals, human language differs from animals' means of communication in how the two are transmitted to their young generation. Ability to speak for human beings is not genetically transmitted but culturally learned from their elders. For instance, someone may inherit brown eyes and dark hair from his/her parents, but he/she does not inherit their language. He/she acquires a language in a culture with other speakers and not from parental genes. An infant born from Chinese parents (who live in China and speak Cantonese), which is brought up from birth by English speakers in the United States, may have physical characteristics inherited from its natural parents, but he/she will speak English (George Yule (1987: 20). This process whereby language is passed on from one generation to the next, is described as cultural transmission. It has been believed that human beings are born with an innate predisposition to acquire language.

All human languages are acquired, and humans have to exposed to a particular language over some length of time before they can acquire that language, by contrast, animal communication is mostly instinctive (Taylor, p. 7). If the ability to speak for human beings is

culturally learned from their elders, the ability to communicate for a dog using its barking sound is genetically transmitted. Both human beings and animals use for their medium of communication sounds that are produced in their mouth, but the sounds produced by human beings are more varied than those provided by animals. The sounds produced by animals are always the same and remain unchanged. A young animal will create the same kind of sounds as their elders for their communication. The ability to produce sounds in animals for communication is, therefore, said to be genetically transmitted; their elders never teach them. A young dog, for instance, can bark without being guided by its elders.

Conclusion

Based on some definitions of a language, we can say a language is not only regarded as a means of communication but it is a means of communication that has some characteristics. In this relation, a language must be systematic; it is socially created, acquired, and used; it is basically spoken; it is productive or creative, and it is complete for its speakers. Not all characteristics of a language do not belong to an animal's means of communication.

Chapter II

LANGUAGE IN SOCIAL CONTEXT

Fatchul Mu'in

Discussion of language in the social context is focussed on language acquisition and language learning, the significance of language in a community, and the relation of language and society. Language acquisition is differentiated from language learning. The former is unconsciously conducted by a language user, whereas a language user consciously performs the latter. The significance of language in a community is viewed from the viewpoint of its importance in a community, and it is discussed with the three integral elements in a community: human being, community, and language.

Human Beings and Language

Man is a social being who always needs another's help. It is hardly imagined that he can live alone in a forest without being accompanied by another. In reality, he lives together and cooperates between one and another. Thus, we may agree that human being is a social creature because he has to live a community.

Thus, we may agree that the human being is a social creature because he has to live a community.

In the effort to fulfill his daily need, he has to work together between one and another. This cooperation can only be conducted in a community. When he needs rice, for instance, he is not necessary to plant in a field by himself. Rice planting is the farmers' business. Someone who needs rice, he can buy it.

Based on the example above, we have a clear picture that all the members of a community need help from one to another. They cannot live alone and try to fulfill their daily need such as food and clothes by themselves. This is to say that they need working together.

The cooperation among the members of a social group will run well if a means of communication known as *language* is used. By using a word, man can express his ideas and wishes to other people such as when he needs their help. There will be close cooperation among members of the group.

The three elements mentioned above; human beings, community, and language are closely related to each other. When there are human beings in any part of the world, there will be a social community in which the same members of the group use a given language as a means of communication. The existence of a language for the community is fundamental. This is because, in reality, men as social beings always live in a community and need a language as a means of interaction among them.

In the social context, language is not only a means of communication but also it is a means of creating and maintaining the social relationship among speakers of the language. As an illustration, take an example, there are two persons in the waiting room of the railway station. At first, they do not know one and another. They, then, begin to make a talk about avoiding their boredom. They talk about many things. They give information to one and another. This is the function of the language as a means of communication and at the same time as a means of creating social relationship.

If they are from different social and geographical backgrounds, they will use different dialects. Here, we have what we call social dialect and geographical dialect (Trudgill, 1983:14). For instance, if one of them is someone speaking Indonesian language, who is from North

Sumatra, will probably use the Indonesian language with a particular accent spoken by people from that part of the country; and the other will probably use the different dialect (Betawi dialect) if he is from Betawi.

Other than the regional dialect, there is a social dialect. This kind of dialect refers to a veriety of language spoken by a group of people belong-ing to a certain social class (Trudgill, 1983:14). For instance, if someone is a middle-class businessman, he will use the variety of language associated with men of this type.

Based on an illustration, a language may have some varieties. In fact, a language itself can be categorized as one of varieties of whatever human languages. So, it can be said that language varieties may refer to: (a) two or more distinct languages used in a community, (b) distinct varieties of one language, and (c) distinct speech levels of one language.

The facts shows that there are more than one language existing and being used in a given speech community. A situation in which there are, at least, two languages are used is known as a diglossic situation; a person having mastery of two languages and using them alternately is known as a bilingual speaker; and the mastery of two (or more) languages by the indi- vidual speaker is known as *bilingualism.*

People may use different pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, or styles of a language for different purposes. They may use different dialects of a language in different contexts. In some communities they will select different languages according to the situation in which and according to the persons to whom they speak; they may use distinct speech levels.

Troike and Blackwell (1986) state that the means of communication used in a community may include different languages, different regional and social dialects of one or more languages, different register, and differ- ent channels of communication (oral or written).

Furthermore, Troike and Blackwell explain it in a more detailed description and state that the language use is related to the social organization of the group, which is likely to include differences in age, sex, and social status, as well as differences in the relationship between speakers, their goal of interaction, and the setting in communication takes place. The communicative repertoire (linguistic repertoire) may also include dif- ferent occupational code, specialized religious language, secret codes or various kinds, mimicking speech, whistle or drum of language, and varieties used for talking to foreigners, young children, and pets (Trioke & Blackwell, 1986: 51).

Language and Society

A society can be seen from its physical environment. Our view of physical environment may be conditioned by our language. In this relation, it can be explained that the physical environment in which a society lives can be reflected in its language, normally in the structure of its lexicon (the way in which distinctions are made by means of single words). For instance, En- glish has only one word for *snow* but Eskimo has several. For English people, it is not necessary to make distinction of *snow* because their physi- cal environment of society does not enable it; there is only kind of *snow* in the society. For Eskimos, it is essential to distinguish one kind of snow from another in individual words. Their physical environment 'force' them to make some names of *snow* (Trudgill, 1983:26)

If English people have only one word for *rice* to refer what the Javenese people call as *pari, gabah, beras* dan *sega.* This is because both speaking communities have different interests. It

is obvious that the Javanese poeople are necessary to cretae different vocabularies mentioned above.

Other than the physical environment, the social environment can also be reflected in language, and can often have an effect on the structure of the vocabulary (Trudgill, 1983:27). For example, a society's kinship system is generally reflected in its kinship vocabulary. We can say that kin relationship in Banjare society is important so that there are many kinship vocabulary such as *muyang, muning, waring, anggah, datu, kai, abah, anak, cucu, buyut, intah, cicit, muning* dan *muyang*. Besides, there are some words such as: *uma, julak, gulu, paman,* and *acil.* Also, there are some words such as:: *ading, laki, bini, ipar, marui* dan *warang* (Suryadikara, 1989).

A language is used by a man as a means of communication in his effort to interact one with another. In reality, he is not free from rules of using language agreed by speech communities in which he lives and inter- act with the other members of the community in accordance with the val- ues and the other cultural aspects. The values of a society, for instance, can have an effect on its language. The most interesting way in which this hap- pens is through the phenomenon known as taboo. Taboo can be charac- terized as being concerned with behaviour which is believed to be supernaturally forbidden, or regarded as immoral or improper; it deals with behaviour which is prohibited in an apparently with behaviour.

Relationship between Language and Society

An important concept in the discussion of communication is the speech community. It refers to a group of people who use the same system of speech signals. Another definition of the speech community is any human aggre- gate characterized by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language use (John T. Plat and H.K. Plat, 1975: 33).

The relationship between language and the context in which it is used (Janet Holmes,2001:1). In other words, it studies the relationship between language and society. It explains why people speak differently in different social contexts. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provide a lot of infor- mation about the language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language.

Ronald Wardhaugh (1986: 10-11) summaries the relationship between and society. According to him, there are some possible relationships be- tween language and society. A first one is that, viewed from the partici- pants, social structure may either influence or determine linguistic struc- ture and/or behaviour. For instance, in relation to the age-grading phe- nomenon, whereby young children speak differently from older children and, in turn, children speak differently from mature adults. Socially, the participants may have different origins, either regional, social, or ethnic origins; and, they must met with the particular ways of speaking, choices of words, and even rules for conversing. This relationship will be discussed more detailed in the next chapter.

A second possible relationship between language and society is di- rectly opposed to the first: linguistic structure and/or behaviour may ei- ther influence or determine social structure. This is supported by the Basil Bernstein's finding on the use of elaborated and restricted codes. This finding will be discussed more detailed in the next chapter.

A third possible relationship between language and society is that language and society may influence each other; this influence is dialectical in nature. This is to say that speech behaviour and social behaviour are in a state of constant interaction and that material living conditions are an important factor in the relationship.

Conclusion

A language is an important thing in a given community, a speech commu- nity. It is not a means for communication and interaction but also for establishing and maintaining human relationships. One characteristic of a language is that is social. That is to say that all speech events must be in relation to the social aspects. A new-born child acquires a language in the social environment (family as a part of the speech community). A language use also occurs in the speech community.

Based on the geographical area, one community may be different from one to another. This results in the different varieties of language: dialects. These kinds of dialects are known as geographical or regional dia- lects. The fact also shows us that the members of a community or speech community are in the same social hierarchy. Consequently, there are also varieties of the same language used by the different types of the language users. These kinds of language varieties are known as social dialects.

Chapter III

LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

By: Fatchul Mu'in

Introduction

Each of the people in the world knows at least one language, spoken or written, or signed. Linguistics is the science of language, studying speech sounds (e.g., the sounds that are produced by using human speech organs), words (e.g., the smallest elements that can be uttered in isolation), and grammar rules (e.g., the rules of arranging words into longer and grammatical utterences). Words in languages are finite, but sentences are not. This is to say that language speaker enables to produce the unlimited number of sentences using the words he/she has mastered.

The rules of a language, also called grammar, are learned as one acquires a language. These rules include phonology, the sound system, morphology, the structure of words, syntax, the combination of words into sentences, semantics, the ways in which sounds and meanings are related, and the lexicon, or mental dictionary of words. When you know a language, you know words in that language, i.e., sound units that are related to specific meanings. However, the sounds and meanings of words are arbitrary. For the most part, there is no relationship between the way a word is pronounced (or signed) and its meaning.

Knowing a language encompasses this whole system of the language. This such knowledge is called competence, meanwhile, the actual use of language is called performance/behavior. Competence is different from a performance. In this relation, we may know a language, but we may also choose not to speak it. Although we are not speaking the language, we still have the knowledge of it. However, if we do not know a language, we cannot speak it at all.

A grammar of a language can be divided into two types, namely: descriptive and prescriptive grammars. The former (e.g., descriptive grammar) is a grammar that represents the unconscious knowledge of a language. Speaker who is speaking English, for example, knows that "me likes he" is incorrect, and "I like him" is correct, although the speaker may not be able to explain why. Descriptive grammar does not teach the rules of a language but instead describes or regulates that are already known. In contrast, prescriptive grammar dictates what a speaker's grammar should be, and they include teaching grammar, which is written to help teach a foreign language.

Linguistics

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, as a science, linguistics can be divided into several branches, among others, descriptive linguistics and historical/comparative linguistics (if it is based on its methodology), synchronic and diachronic linguistics (it is based on its aspect of time), and phonetics, phonology,

morphology, syntax and semantics (if it is based on a language as a system), and sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics (if it is related to or combined with the disciplines (sociology and psychology respectively).

As a science, linguistics must fulfill some scientific prerequisites. First, it must have a subject matter. Language is said to be a subject matter of Linguistics. As a subject matter, a language must be clearly and explicitly defined. Before analyzing a language, some linguists define a language in different ways. Take, for example, Finocchioro who defines a language as a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols that permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact. Thus, the scope of analysis is based on the clearly and explicitly defined subject matter. This is to say that everything beyond the scope such as gestures/bodily movement, will be ignored. So explicitness in determining the subject matter must be conducted so that we know what must be studied/analyzed and what must be left.

Second, it must be based on objective observation and/or investigation. This to say that the observation and/or investigation on the subject matter must be conducted objectively. The result of observation and/or investigation must be described objectively too, and any competent observer or investigator can verify it. So objectivity in conducting observation and/or investigation on the subject matter must be fulfilled in any scientific undertaking. Third, the result of observation and/or research must be systematically arranged. This must be conducted as an effort to show the relationship within the subject matter. This is also meant to make the readers easy to read and study. Thus, systematicness is also needed by linguistics.

Language analysis for the sake of developing linguistics is done systematically within the framework of some general theory of language structure. The linguist tries to verify the theory by making objective observations of actual language data and modifies the theory in light of what he perceives to be patterns or regularities underlying the data.

Branches of Linguistics

Some branches of linguistics are as follows:

1. Phonetics
2. Phonology
3. Morphology
4. Syntax
5. Generative Transformational Grammar
6. Semantics
7. Pragmatics

Branches of linguistics in relation to the other fields of study:

8. Sociolinguistics
9. Psycholinguistics

The concepts of the branches of linguistics are presented as follows:

1. Phonetics is the study of speech sounds, which are known more technically as phones. This study highlights, especially how the speech sounds produced by using speech organs. It shows mechanisms of how to produce speech sounds.
2. Phonology, on the other hand, is essentially the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language. It is, in effect, based on theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language. This study regards the speech sounds as having functions to differentiate meanings.

3. Morphology is the study of analyzing the expression system of a language that is concerned with the identification of morphemes and the ways in which they are distributed or combined into longer utterances or morphological constructions.
4. The syntax is defined as the study of arrangements of words into phrases, clauses, and sentences or syntactical constructions. The smallest units of syntax are words. When two or more words are arranged in a certain way, the result refers to syntactical construction. In other words, it can be said that a syntactical construction is a construction in which its immediate constituents (IC-a) are words (or free morphemes).
5. TG Grammar. Grammar includes phrase-structure rules, lexical-insertion rules, and transformational rules. The grammar can be thought of as a machine that generates all the possible sentences of the language. A grammar contains- ing such rules is called a generative grammar. When the rules include transformational rules, we have a transformational-generative grammar
6. Pragmatics. A significant factor in sentence interpretation involves a body of knowledge that is often called pragmatics. This consists of the speaker's and addressee's background attitudes and beliefs, their understanding of the context in which a sentence is uttered, and their knowledge of the way in which language is used to communicate information
7. Sociolinguistics. Term sociolinguistics is a derivational word. Two words that form it are sociology and linguistics. Sociology refers to a science of society, and linguistics refers to a science of language. A study of language from the perspective of society may be thought of as linguistics plus sociology. Some investigators have found it to introduce a distinction between sociolinguistics and sociology of language.

   Some others regard sociolinguistics is often referred to as the sociology of language.

   The study is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. In other words, it studies the relationship between language and society. It explains we people speak differently in different social settings. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provide a lot of information about the language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language (Jenet Holmes, 2001).

   Sociolinguistics also refers to the study that is concerned with the interaction of language and setting (Carol M. Eastman, 1975; 113). The other expert defines it as the study that is concerned with investigating the relationship between language and society with the goal of a better understanding of the structure of language and of how languages function in communication (Ronald Wardhaugh, 1986: 12).
8. Psycholinguistics. Term 'psycholinguistics' is a combination of psychology and linguistics. Both are the branches of sciences. Psychology is defined as the systematic study of human experience and behavior or as the science that studies the behavior of men and other animals Knight and Hilgert in Abu Ahmadi, 1992). There are several branches of psychology, among others, social psychology, the psychology of communication, developmental psychology, educational psychology, and psychology of language.

   The last branches of psychology are often called as psycholinguistics. It is defined as a field of study that combines psychology and linguistics. It covers language

development. (Lim Kiat Boey). The other definition of psycholinguistics is that it is the study of human language –language comprehension, language production, and language acquisition (E.M. Hatch)

English Language Teaching

English teaching in Indonesia has gone on in a very long time. English has been taught in Indonesia since the proclamation of Indonesia as a first foreign language. It has been taught at the first-year junior high schools up to the third-year senior high schools, and at the university for several semesters. Even, nowadays, English is taught at elementary schools as the local content subject.

All of us may have known that the various efforts for improving approaches, methods, and techniques have been done. The English Teaching Curriculum has been changed or upgraded from time to time. Many writers have written the various publishers publish the numerous supporting books and textbooks and those. Now, we can ask ourselves: "How is the result of English teaching in our schools?", or "Does it make us our school students have good competence and performance in using the language?" Our practical experience shows that many students fail in their English learning and that they regard the language as a difficult subject to learn.

Starting from the assumption, the students are not motivated in learning- ing English until they have a good mastery of the language. They tend to be apathetic in attending the English subject. As a consequence, their learn- ing achievement is not satisfactory.

Who is wrong in our English teaching, our students, our teachers or others?. Of course, we will not find "who is wrong and what is wrong" in the failure of our English teaching. Because when we want to evaluate an educational undertaking, many factors or variables have to be considered. In English teaching, there are teacher, learner, and socio-cultural factors.

Linguistics in Language Teaching

Linguistics is essential for language teaching because linguistics and language teaching can be likened to the relationship of knowledge about the engine and the skill in driving a car. It will be better for the driver to supported with some knowledge about the vehicle or the engine so that he can drive it well and know how to overcome some engine trouble in case he has to face it. In the same way, it will be better if a language teacher has some knowledge about, for instance, the characteristics of the language in general and the specific language he is teaching in particular. In this relation, he should know how language works and express meaning, and what structures are used in the particular language he is teaching. He should get familiar, for instance, with the theory about the general mechanism of producing speech sounds, so that he will be able to tackle any pronunciation problem his students may encounter.

By studying linguistics, he will have more in-depth insights into the nature of language and act accordingly in teaching the language. For instance, when he agrees that the use of language is a matter of habits and practice, in explaining it to his students, he must implant the habit of using it for communication until it becomes deeply established.

Conclusion

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. As a scientific study, linguistics can be applied in language teaching. Some branches of linguistics discuss some aspects of a language such as phones, phonemes, morphemes, words, meanings, and language in relation to socio-

cultural and psychological perspectives. All of the aspects are of course, useful for language teaching.

Chapter IV

PHONETICS

Nanik Mariani

PHONETICS

Imagine that a restaurant manager who has always had trouble with the spelling of English words places an advertisement for a new SEAGH. You see the advertisement and your conclusion leads you to ask how he came to form this unfamiliar word. It's very simple, he says. Take the first sound of the word SURE, the middle sound of the word DEAD, and the final sound of the word LAUGH. You will, of course, recognize that this form conveys the pronunciation usually associated with the word chef. (Yule, 1987: 33)

This tale, however unlikely, may serve as a reminder that the sounds of spoken English do not match up, a lot of the time, with letters of written English. If we cannot use the letters of the alphabet in a consistent way to represent the sounds we make, how do we go about describing the sounds of a language like English? One solution is to produce a separate alphabet with symbols which represent sounds. Such a set of symbols does exist and is called the 'phonetic alphabet'. We will consider how these symbols are used to represent both the consonant and vowel sounds of English words and what physical aspects of the human vocal tract are involved in the production of those sounds.

Knowing a language includes knowing the sounds of that language. When you know a language, you know words in that language, i.e. sound units that are related to specific meanings. However, the sounds and meanings of words are arbitrary. For the most part, there is no relationship between the way a word is pronounced (or signed) and its meaning.[1]

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds, which are known more technically as phones. A whole chain of activities is involved in communicating meaning by sound. First of all, a speaker encodes meaning into sounds, which he or she produces using the tongue, lips, and other articulatory organs. These sounds are transmitted through the air to reach the hearer. Then the hearer perceives them through auditory processes, finally translating them back into meaning.

There are therefore three aspects to the study of speech sounds:

1. **Articulatory phonetics,** which is the study of how speech sounds are made or 'articulated';
2. **Acoustic phonetics,** which is the study of how speech sounds are transmitted, deals with the physical properties of speech as sound waves 'in the air', such as intensity, frequency, and duration;
3. **Auditory phonetics** (or perceptual), which is the study of how speech sounds are heard, deals with the perception via the ear, of speech sounds.

Phonetic Alphabet

Spelling, or **orthography**, does not consistently represent the sounds of language. Spelling, or **orthography**, of words in misleading, especially in English. One sound can be represented by

[1] https://ielanguages.com/what-is-linguistics.html

several different combinations of letters. For example, all of the following words contain the same vowel sound: he, believe, Lee, Caesar, key, amoeba, loudly, machine, people, and sea.
Some problems with ordinary spelling:

1. The same sound may be represented by many letters or combination of letters:
   He – people -key - believe - seize – machine - Caesar
   Seas – see - amoe
2. The same letter may represent a variety of sounds:
   father village
   badly made many
3. A combination of letters may represent a single sound
   shoot character Thomas
   either physics rough
   coat deal
4. A single letter may represent a combination of sounds
   xerox
5. Some letters in a word may not be pronounced at all
   autumn sword resign pterodactyl
   lamb corps psychology write
   knot
6. There may be no letter to represent a sound that occurs in a word.
   Cute use

In 1888 the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was invented in order to have a system in which there was a one- to-one correspondence between each sound in language and each phonetic symbol. Someone who knows the IPA knows how to pronounce any word in any language.[2]

Phonetic Alphabet for English Pronunciation

p	pill	d	dill	h	heal	ʌ	but
b	bill	n	neal	l	leaf	aj	light
m	mill	s	seal	r	reef	ɔj	boy
f	feel	z	zeal	j	you	ɪ	bit
v	veal	tʃ	chill	w	witch	ɛ	bet
θ	thigh	dʒ	Jill	i	beet	ʊ	foot
ð	thy	ʍ	which	e	bait	ɔ	awe
ʃ	shill	k	kill	u	boot	a	bar
ʒ	azure	g	gill	o	boat	ə	sofa
t	till	ŋ	ring	æ	bat	aw	cow

n this discussion, we just focus on the articulatory phonetics. In the articulatory phonetics, we investigate how speech sounds are produced using the fairly sophisticated oral equipment we have. This is related to the manner of articulation. The manner of articulation is "*the way the airstream is affected as it flows from the lungs and out of the mouth and nose*".

We start with the air pushed out by the lungs up through the trachea (the 'windpipe') to the larynx. Inside the larynx are our vocal cord which take two basic positions: (1) When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in this way are described as **voiceless.** This is to say that "*Voiceless sounds are those produced with the vocal cords apart so the air flows freely through the glottis";* and (2) When the vocal

[2] https://ielanguages.com/phonetics.html

cord are drawn together, the air from the lungs repeatedly pushes them apart as it passes through. Creating a vibration. Sounds produced in this way are described as **voiced.** In other words, "*Voiced sounds are those produced when the vocal cords are together and vibrate as air passes through.*"

We need to know the differences between voiced and voiceless sounds based on the reasons:

a. The voiced/voiceless distinction is important in English because it helps us distinguish words like:

   Rope [rop] / robe [rob]

   fine [faɪn] /vine/[vaɪn]

   seal [sil] / zeal [zil]

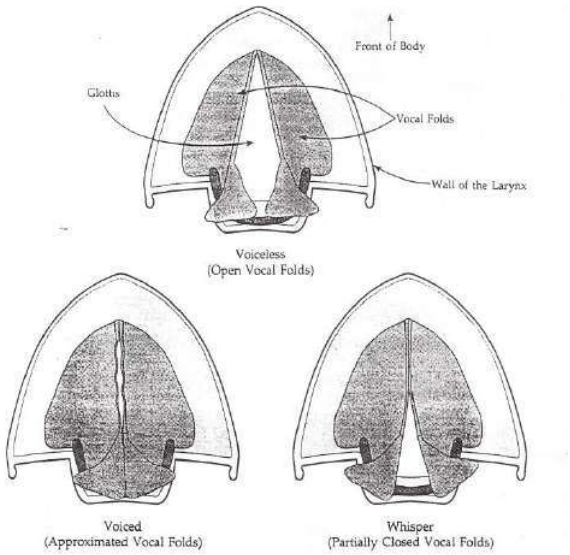
b. Some voiceless sounds can be further distinguished as **aspirated** or **unaspirated**

aspirated		unaspirated	
pool	[phul]	*spool*	[spul]
tale	[thel]	*stale*	[stel]
kale	[khel]	*scale*	[skel]

c. Oral sounds are those produced with the velum raised to prevent air from escaping out the nose
d. Nasal sounds are those produced with the velum lowered to allow air to escape out the nose
e. So far we have three ways of classifying sounds based on phonetic features: by voicing, by place of articulation, and by nasalization
   [p] is a voiceless, bilabial, oral sound
   [n] is a voiced, alveolar, nasal sound

As examples of this distinction, we can try to saying the words pick and fish, which have voiceless sounds at the beginning and end. Then say the words big and viz, which have voiced sounds at the beginning and end. The distinction can also be felt physically if we place a fingertip gently on the top of our 'Adam's apple' (i.e. part of our larynx) and produce sounds like Z-Z-Z-Z or V-V-V-V. Since these are voiced sounds, we should be able to feel some vibration. Keeping our fingertip in the same position, make the sounds S-S-S-S or F-F-F-F. Since these are voiceless sounds, there should be no vibration. Another trick is to put a finger in each ear, not too far, and produce the voiced sounds to hear some vibration, whereas no vibration will be heard if the voiceless sounds are produced in the same manner. See figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Superior view of the larynx.



The first thing it is necessary to state about a sound when providing an articulatory description, then, is whether it is voiced (the vocal folds are vibrating) or voiceless (there is no vocal fold vibration)

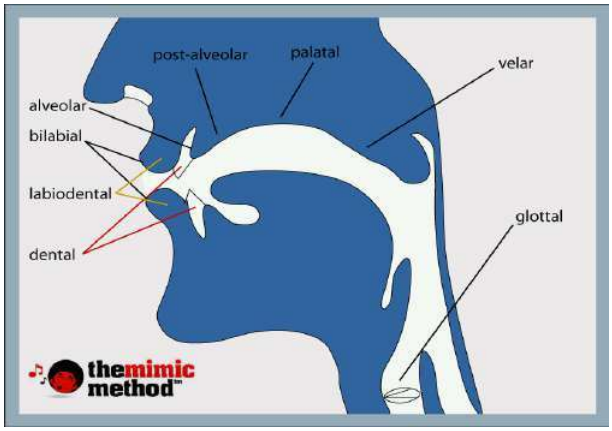
Consonants

Consonants are sounds produced with some restriction or closure in the vocal tract. Another one states that consonants are speech sounds produced when air from the lungs is pushed through the glottis (the opening between the vocal cords) and out the mouth. They are classified according to voicing, aspiration, nasal/oral sounds, places of articulation and manners of articulation. We have discussed a little bit about voicing, aspiration, nasal/oral sounds. The following will discuss consonants from the perspectives of places of articulation.

Once the air has passed through the larynx, it comes up and out through the mouth and/or the nose. Most consonant sounds are produced by using the tongue and other parts of the mouth to constrict, in some way, the shape of the oral cavity through which the air is passing. The terms used to describe many sounds are those which denote the place of articulation of the sound, that is, the location, inside the mouth, at which the constriction takes place.

To describe the place of articulation of most consonant sounds, we can start at the front of the mouth and work back. We can also keep the voiced – voiceless distinction in mind and begin using the symbols of the phonetic alphabet to denote specific sounds. The symbols will be enclosed within square brackets [ ].

These are the places where the constrictions and obstructions of air occur.



Source: https://www.mimicmethod.com/ft101/place-of-articulation/

PLACE OF ARTICULATION

The consonants produced based on the place of articulation are:

a. *Bilabial: lips together*. The bilabial sounds are made by bringing both lips closer together. There are five such sounds in English: [p] pat, which is voiceless, and [b] bat, [m] mat, which are voiced. The [w] sound found at the beginning of the way, walk, and the world is also a bilabial and even [w] where (present only in some dialects).
b. *Labiodental: lower lip against front teeth*. The labiodental consonants are made with the lower lip against the upper front teeth. English has two labiodentals, which are in the initial sounds and the final sounds: [f] which is voiceless, as in fat and [v] which is voiced, as in vat and [f] in safe and [v] in save
c. *Interdental: tongue between teeth*. The interdentals are made with the tip of the tongue between the front teeth. The term Dental is sometimes used to describe a manner of pronunciation with the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth. There are two interdental sounds in English: [q] thigh and [ð] thy. The initial sound of thin and the final sound of bath are both voiceless interdental. The symbol used for this sounds is [□]. The voiced interdental is represented by the symbol [ð] and is found in the pronunciation of the initial sound of *thus* and the final sound of *bathe.*
d. Alveolar: tongue near the alveolar ridge on the roof of the mouth (in between teeth and hard palate). **Alveolar consonants** are **consonant** sounds that are produced with the tongue close to or touching the ridge behind the teeth on the roof of the mouth. The name comes from **alveoli** - the sockets of the teeth. The **consonant** sounds /t/, /n/ and /d/ are all **alveolar consonants**. Just behind the upper front teeth, there is a small ridge called the alveolar ridge. The English alveolar consonants are as follows:

/n/ as in "no" and "man"
/t/ as in "tab" and "rat"
/d/ as in "dip" and "bad"

/s/ as in "suit" and "bus"
/z/ as in "zit" and "jazz"
/l/ as in "luck" and "fully"

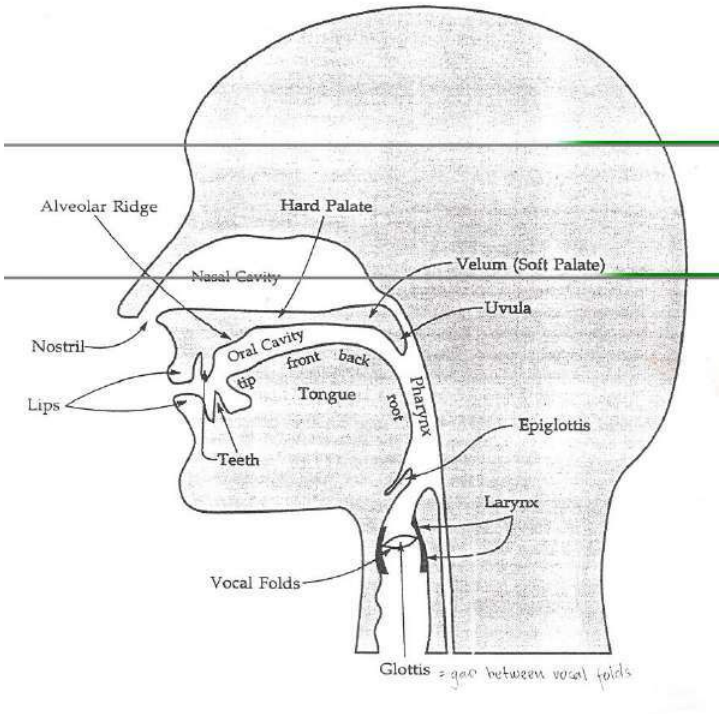
e. Palatal – if you let your finger glide back along the roof of your mouth, you will note that the anterior portion is hard, and the posterior portion is soft. Sounds made with the tongue near the hard part of the roof of the mouth are called palatal sounds. English makes five sounds in the region of the hard palate: [š]leash, [•]measure, [è]hurch, [ǰ] judge, [y] yes. (More precisely, [š,•,è], and [ ] are alveopalatal sounds, because they are made in the area between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate. We'll use the shorter term "palatal" to describe these sounds of English, however.)

f. Velar – the soft part of the roof of the mouth behind the hard palate is called the velum. Sounds made with the tongue near the velum are said to be velar. There is a voiceless velar sound, represented by the symbol [k], which occurs not only in kid and kill, but is also the initial sound in car and cold. Despite the variety in spelling, this [k] sound is both the initial and final sound in words cook, kick, and coke. The voiced velar sound to be heard at the beginning of the words like go, gun, and give is represented by [g]. This is also the final sound in words like *bag, mug*, and, despite the spelling, *plague.*

   One other voiced velar is represented by the symbol [ ]. In English, the sound is normally written as the two letters 'ng' so, the [ŋ] sound is at the end of sing, sang, and, despite the spelling, tongue. It would occur twice in the form of ringing. Be careful not to be misled by the spelling – the word bang ends with the [ŋ] sound only. There is no [g] sound in this word.

g. Glottal – the space between the vocal cord is the glottis. English has two other sounds which are produced without the active use of the tongue and other parts of the mouth. One is the sound [h] which occurs at the beginning of having and house, and, for most speakers, as the first sound in who and whose. This sound is usually described as voiceless glottal. The 'glottis' is the space between the vocal cord in the larynx. When the glottis is open, as in the production of other voiceless sounds, but there is no manipulation of the air passing out through the mouth, the sound produced is that represented by [h]. When the glottis is closed completely, very briefly, and then released, the resulting sound is called a **glottal stop.** This sound occurs in many dialects of English but does not have a written form in the Roman alphabet. The symbol used in phonetic transcription is [?]. You can produce this sound if you try to say the words butter or bottle without pronouncing the –ff- sound in the middle. In Britain, this sound is considered to be a characteristic aspect of Cockney speech and, in the United States, of the speech of many New Yorkers.

Figure 2: Sagittal section of the vocal tract (Organ of Speech)



MANNER OF ARTICULATION

Besides stating whether a sound is voiced or voiceless and giving the sound's point of articulation, it is necessary to describe its manner of articulation, that is, how the airstreams is modified by the vocal tract to produce the sound. The manner of articulation of a sound depends on the degree of closure of the articulators (how close together or far apart they are).

- Stops – stops are made by obstructing the airstreams completely in the oral cavity. Notice that when you say [p] and [b] your lips are closed together for a moment, stopping the airflow. [p] and [b] are bilabial stops. [b] is a voiced bilabial stop. [t], [d], [k], and [g] are also stops. The glottal stop [ʔ] is made by momentarily closing the vocal folds. The expression uh – oh has a [ʔ] before each vowel. If you stop halfway through uh – oh and hold your articulators in position for the second half, you should be able to feel yourself making the glottal stop. (it will feel like a catch in your throat). Nasal consonants are also stops in terms of their oral articulators.
- Fricatives – The manner of articulation used in producing the set of sounds [f], [v], [□], [ð□□□□[s], [z], [š], [ž] involves almost blocking the airstreams, and having the air push through the narrow opening. As the air is pushed through, a type of friction is produced and the resulting sounds are called fricatives. If you put your open hand in front of your mouth when making these sounds, [f] and [š] in particular, you should be able to feel the stream of air being pushed out. A word like fish will begin and end with 'voiceless fricatives'. The word 'those will begin and end with the 'voiced fricatives' [ð□□and [z].
- Africates – an affricate is made by briefly stopping the airstreams completely and then releasing the articulators slightly so that friction is produced. (Affricates can be thought of as

a combination of a stop and a fricative.) English has only two affricates, [č] and [ǰ]. [č] is a combination of [t] and [ʃ], and so is sometimes transcribed as [tʃ] cheep. It is a 'voiceless palatal affricate'. [ǰ] is a combination of [d] and [□], and is sometimes transcribed as [d□] jeep, It is a 'voiced affricate'. How would you describe [ǰ]? [ɬʃ∂ɛɜʃ□□□□]

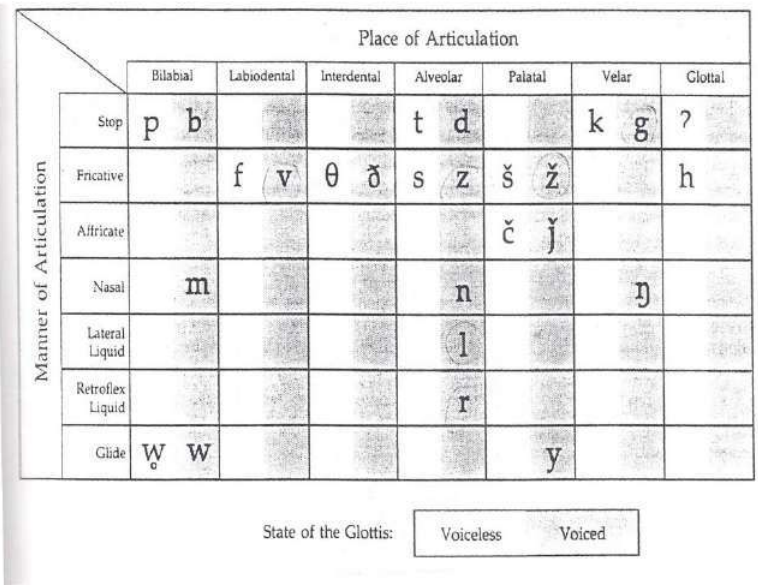
- Nasals – Most sounds are produced orally, with the velum raised, preventing airflow from entering the nasal cavity. However, when the velum is lowered and the airflow is allowed to flow out through the nose to produce [m], [n], and [ŋ], the sounds are described as nasals. These three sounds are all voiced. Words like morning, knitting, and name begin and end with nasals.
- Liquids – when a liquid is produced, there is an obstruction formed by the articulators, but it is not narrow enough to stop the airflow or to cause friction. The [l] in leaf is produced by resting the tongue on the alveolar ridge with the airstreams escaping around the side of the tongue. Thus it is called a 'lateral liquid'. Liquids are usually voiced in English: [l] is a 'voiced alveolar lateral liquid'. There is a great deal of variation in the ways speakers of English make r-sounds; most are voiced and articulated in the alveolar region, and a common type also involves curling the tip of the tongue back behind the alveolar ridge to make a retroflex sound. For our purposes [r] as in red may be considered a voiced alveolar retroflex liquid.
- Glides – The sound [w] and [y] are produced very much as transition sounds. They are called glides, or 'semi-vowels'. In pronunciation, they are usually produced with the tongue moving, or 'gliding', to or from a position associated with a neighboring vowel sound. They are both voiced. Glides occur at the beginning of we, wet, you and yes.

We can also use the chart to find a sound with a particular description by essentially reversing the above procedure. If you wanted to find the voiced palatal fricative, first look in the fricative row, then under the palatal column, and locate the symbol in the row marked "voiced": This is [z].

The chart can also be used to find classes of sounds. For instance, to find all the alveolar, just read off all the sounds under the alveolar column. Or, to find all the stops, read off all the sounds in the stop row.

You should familiarize yourself with the chart so that you can easily recognize the phonetic symbols. Remember that we are talking about sounds and not letters.

Figure 3 : The Consonants of English



Manner of Articulation \ Place of Articulation	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	p b			t d		k g	ʔ
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	š ž		h
Affricate					č ǰ		
Nasal	m			n		ŋ	
Lateral Liquid				l			
Retroflex Liquid				r			
Glide	w̥ w				y		

State of the Glottis: Voiceless Voiced

ENGLISH VOWELS

While the consonant sounds are mostly articulated via closure or obstruction in the vocal tract, vowel sounds are produced with a relatively free flow of air. To describe vowel sounds, we consider the way in which the tongue influences the 'shape' through which the airflow must pass. Because these sounds are not so easily defined in terms of place and manner of articulation, we use labels which serve to indicate how each vowel sounds in relation to the others.

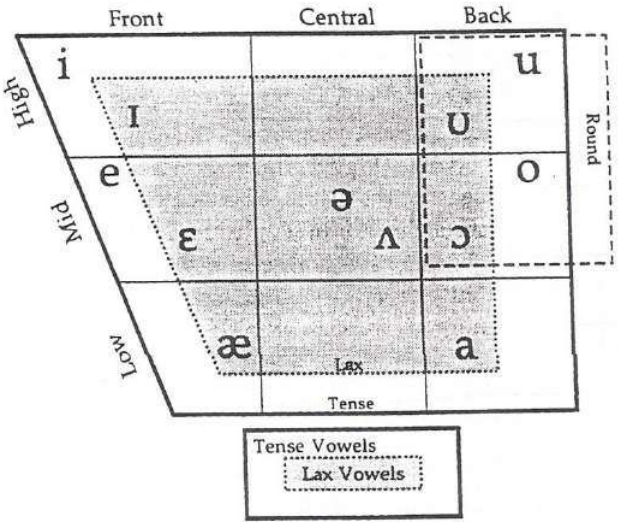
Vocal fold vibration is the sound source for vowels. The vocal tract above the glottis acts as a resonator affecting the sound made by the vocal folds. The shape of this resonator determines the quality of the vowel – [i] vs [u] vs [a], for example.

There are several ways in which speakers can change the shape of the vocal tract and thus change vowel quality. They do this by

1. raising or lowering the body of the tongue
2. advancing or retracting the body of the tongue
3. rounding or not rounding the lips
4. making these movements with a tense or a lax gesture

Therefore, when describing a vowel, it is necessary to provide information about these four aspects of the articulation of the vowel. Refer to the chart in figure 4 as each aspect is discussed.

Figure 4 : The Vowels of English.



Tongue Height

If we repeat to ourselves the vowel sounds of seat, set, sat – transcribed [i], [ɛ], [æ] – we will find that we open our mouth a little wider as we change from [i] to [ɛ], and then a little wider still as we change from [ɛ] to [æ]. These varying degrees of openness correspond to different degrees of tongue height: high for [i], mid for [ɛ], and low for [æ].

High vowels like [i] are made with the front of the mouth less open because the tongue body is raised, or high. The high vowels of English are [i, I, u, □], as in leak, lick, Luke, look. Conversely, low vowels like the [æ] in sat are pronounced with the front of the mouth open and the tongue lowered. [æ, a], as in cat and cot, are the low vowels of English. Mid vowels like the [ɛ] of set are produced with an intermediate tongue height; in English, these mid vowels are [e,ɛ, □, ɔ, o] as in bait, bet, but, bought, boat.

In many American dialects, words like caught and cot, or dawn and Don, are pronounced differently, with an [ɔ] and [a], respectively. In other American dialects, these words are pronounced the same. If we pronounce these pairs the same, we probably use the unrounded vowel [a] in these words. For most speakers of English, however, the vowel [ɔ] appears in words such as hall, ball, and tall.

Tongue Advancement

Beside being held high or mid or low, the tongue can also be pushed forward or pulled back within the oral cavity. For example, in the high front vowel [i] as in beat, the body of the tongue is raised and pushed forward so it is just under the hard palate. The high back vowel [u] of boot, on the other hand, is made by raising the body of the tongue in the back of the mouth, toward the velum. The tongue is advanced or pushed forward for all the front vowels, [i, I, e, ɛ, æ] as in seek, sick, sake, sec, sack, and retracted or pulled back for the back vowels, [u, □, o, ɔ, a], as in ooze, look, road, paw, dot. The central vowels, [□] as in luck or [□] as the first vowel in the word another, require neither fronting nor retraction of the tongue.

Lip Rounding

Vowel quality also depends on lip position. When we say the [u] in two, our lips are rounded. For the [i] in tea, they are unrounded. English has four rounded vowels: [u, □, o, ɔ], as

in loop, foot, soap, caught. All other vowels in English are unrounded. In the vowel chart, the rounded vowels are enclosed in a dotted line forming a rectangle.

Tenseness

Vowels that are called tenses have more extreme positions of the tongue or the lips than vowels that are lax. The production of tense vowels involves bigger changes from a mid central position in the mouth. On the vowel chart we can clearly see that the distance between the tense vowels [i] and [u] is bigger than the distance between the lax vowels [I] and [□]. For example, tense vowels are made with a more extreme tongue gesture to reach the outer peripherals of the vowel space. What this means is that the tongue position for the tense high front vowel [i] is higher and fronter than for the lax high front vowel [I]. Lax vowels are not peripheral, on the outer edge of the possible vowel space. Compare tense [i] in meet with lax [I] in mitt, or tense [u] in boot with lax [□] in put. In the latter case we will find that the tense round vowel [u] is also produced with more and tighter lip rounding than the lax counterpart [□].

We can consider some sample descriptions of English vowels:

- [i], as in beat, is high, front, unrounded, and tense vowel
- [ɔ], as in caught, is mid, back, rounded, and lax vowel
- [a], as in cot, is low, back, unrounded, and lax vowel
- [□], as in cut, is mid, central, unrounded, and lax vowel (Note that "central" and "mid" refer to the same position in the vocal tract but on different dimensions)
- [e], as in cake, is mid, front, unrounded, and tense vowel

DIPHTHONGS

At this point, we still have not described the vowel sounds of some English words such as hide, loud, and coin. Unlike the simple vowels described above, the vowels of these words are diphthongs : two part vowel sounds consisting of a vowel and a glide in the same syllable. If we say the word eye slowly, concentrating on how we make this vowel sound, we should find that our tongue starts out in the position for [a] and moves toward the position for the vowel [i] or the corresponding palatal glide [y]. If we have a hard time perceiving this as two sounds, try laying a finger on our tongue and saying eye. This should help us feel the upward tongue movement. This diphthong, which consists of two articulations and two corresponding sounds, is written with two symbols: [ay], as in [hayd] hide. To produce the vowel in the word loud, the tongue and the lips start in the position for [a] and move toward the position for [u] or [w]; so this diphthong is written [aw], as in [lawd] loud. In the vowel of the word coin, the tongue moves from the [o] position toward the position for [i] or [y]; so the vowel of coin is written [oy], as in [koyn]. The positions of the vocal organs for [y] and [w] are very close to the positions for [i] and [u], respectively. So diphthongs are often transcribed using the symbols for two vowels instead of a vowel symbol plus a glide symbol: [ay], [oy], and [aw] can be written [ai], [oi], and [au]. Below are examples of diphthongs:

- **[ei] or [ey] bay, take, cake, say**
- [ai] or [ay] buy, my, tie
- [oi] or [oy] boy, soy, coin
- [a□] how, sow, cow
- [□□] no, go, show
- [i□] beer, deer, dear

- [ɛ□] bear, fair, care
- [□□] tour, moor, sure

Chapter V

PHONOLOGY

Nanik Mariani

Introduction

Both phonetics and phonology study speech sounds. However, phonetics is different from phonology. Let us try to examine the similarity and difference from one and another,

Phonetics is the term for the description and classification of speech sounds, mainly how sounds are produced, transmitted and received. A phoneme is the smallest unit in the sound system of a language; for example, the [t] sound in the word top. Various phonetic alphabets have been developed to represent the speech sounds in writing through the use of symbols. Some of these symbols are identical to the Roman letters used in many language alphabets; for example, [p] and [b]. Other symbols are used on the basis of the Greek alphabet, such as [θ], to represent the th- sound in thin and thought. Still, others have been specially invented; e.g. [ð] for the th- sound in the and then. The most widely used phonetic script is the International Phonetic Alphabet.

Phonology is the term used for the study of the speech sounds used in a particular language. The distinctive accents that many learners of English have are due to differences between the phonological system of their language and that of English. From birth, and possibly before, we learn to recognize and produce the distinctive sounds of our language. We do not need to give any thought to how to have the lips, tongue, teeth, etc. working together to produce the desired sounds. The physical structures of parts of the sound system are adapted to produce native-language sounds.[3]

Finch (1998: 48) says that almost all introductory books on linguistics have a section on the sound structure, or **Phonology**, of English, which aim to tell you how sounds are formed and what the principal symbols of the international phonetic alphabet are. **Phonology,** on the other hand, is essentially the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language. It is, in effect, based on theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language. Because of this theoretical status, phonology is concerned with the abstract or mental aspect of the sounds in language rather than with the actual physical articulation of speech sounds. Thus, when we say that the [t] sounds in the pronunciation of *satin* and *eighth* are the same, we are actually saying that in the phonology of English they would be represented in the same way. In actual speech, these [t] sounds may be very different. In the first word, the influence of a following nasal sound could result in some form of nasal release, while, in the second word, the influence of the following [0] sound would result in a dental articulation of the [t] sound. This distinction between one [t] sound and another [t] sound can be captured in a detailed, or narrow, phonetic transcription (Yule, 1987 : 44 – 45).

Yule (1987:45) also says that in the phonology of English, this distinction is less important than the distinction between the [t] sounds in general and, for example, the [d]

[3] http://esl.fis.edu/grammar/langdiff/phono.htm

sounds or the [b] sounds. Because there are meaningful consequences related to the use of one rather than the others. These sounds must be distinct meaningful sounds, regardless of which individual vocal tract is being used to pronounce them, since they are what make the words *tie, die,* and *buy* meaningfully distinct. Considered from this point of view, we can see that phonology is concerned with the abstract set of sound in a language which allows us to distinguish meaning in the actual physical sounds we say and hear.

Phonemes, Phones and Allophones

Phonemes is a meaningful distinguished sounds in a language. When we considered the basis of alphabetic writing, we were actually working with the concept of the phoneme as the single sound type which came to be represented by a single symbol. It is in this sense that the phoneme /t/ is described as a sound type, of which all the different spoken versions of [t] are tokens. Note that slash marks are conventionally used to indicate a phoneme, /t/, an abstract segment, as opposed to the square brackets, [t], used for each phonetic, or physically produced, segment.

As essential property of a phoneme is that it functions contrastively. We know that there are two phonemes /f/ and /v/ in English because they are the only basis of the contrast in meaning between the forms *fat* and *vat,* or *fine* and *vine.* This contrastive property is the basic operational test for determining the phonemes which exist in a language. If we substitute one sound for another in a word and there is a change of meaning, then the two sounds represent different phonemes. The consonant and vowel charts in Chapter IV can now be seen as essentially a mapping out of the phonemes of English.

The terms which were used in creating that chart can be considered 'features' which distinguish each phoneme from the next. Thus, /p/ can be characterized as [+voiceless, +bilabial, +stop] and /k/ as [+voiceless, +velar, +stop]. Since these two sounds share some features, they are sometimes described as members of a natural class of sounds. The prediction would be that sounds which have features in common would behave phonologically in some similar ways. A sound which does not share those features would be expected to behave differently. For example, /v/ has the features [+voiced, +labiodental, +fricative] and so cannot be in the same 'natural class' as /p/ and /k/. Although other factors will be involved, this feature-analysis could lead us to suspect that there may be a good phonological reason why words beginning with / pl- / and / kl- / are common in English, but words beginning with / vl- / are not. Could it be that there are some definite sets of features required in a sound in order for it occur word-initially before /l/ and /?/ If so, then we will be on our way to producing a phonological account of permissible sound sequences in the language.

We have already established that, while a phoneme is an abstract unit of sound, there can be different phonetic realizations of any phoneme. These phonetic units are technically described as **phones.** It has been noted by phoneticians that, in English, there is a difference in pronunciation of the /i/ sound in words like *seed* and *seen.* In the second word, the effect of the nasal consonant [n] makes the [i] sound nasalized. This nasalization can be represented by a diacritic over the symbol, [i] in narrow phonetic transcription. So, there are at least two phones, [i] and [i], used in English to realize a single phoneme. These phonetic variants are technically known as **allophones.** The crucial distinction between phonemes and allophones is that substituting one phoneme for another will result in a word with a different meaning (as well as

a different pronunciation), but substituting allophones only results in a different pronunciation of the same word.

It is possible, of course, for two languages to have the same phones, or phonetic segments, but to treat them differently. In English, the effect of nasalization on a vowel is treated as **allophonic variation** because the nasalized version is not meaningfully contrastive. In French, however, the pronunciation [me] is used for one word *mets,* meaning 'dish', and [me] for a different word *main,* meaning 'hand', and [so] for *seau,* meaning 'pail', contrasts with [so] for *son,* meaning 'sound'. Clearly, in these cases, the distinction is phonemic.

Minimal Pairs and Sets

When two words such as *pat* and *bat* are identical in form except for a contrast in one phoneme occurring in the same position. The two words are described as a **minimal pair.** More accurately, they would be classified as a minimal pair in the phonology of English since Arabic, for example, does not have this contrast between the two sounds. Other examples of English minimal pairs are *fan – van, bet – bat, site – side.* Such pairs have been used frequently in tests of English as a second language to determine non-native speakers' ability to understand the contrast in meaning resulting from the minimal sound contrast.

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

One insight provided by this type of exercise with phonemes is that we can see that there are indeed definite patterns to 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.* As far as we know, these are not English words, but they can 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 represent 'accidental' gaps in the vocabulary of English. It is, however, no accident that forms such as [fsig] or [□ig□□do not exist or are unlikely ever to exist, since they break what must be phonological rules about the sequence or position of English phonemes.

Assimilation and Elision

The example of vowel nasalization in English which we have just noted is a illustration of another regular process involving phonemes. When two phonemes occur in sequence and some aspect of one phoneme is taken or 'copied' by the other, the process is known as **assimilation.** In terms of the physical production of speech, one might assume that this regular process is occasioned by ease of articulation in everyday speech. In isolation, we would probably pronounce /I/ and /æ/ without any nasal quality at all. However, in saying words like *pin* and *pan,* the anticipation of forming the final nasal consonant will make it 'easier' to go into the nasalized articulation in advance and consequently the vowel sounds in these words will be, in precise transcription, [I] and [æ]. This is very regular feature of English speaker's pronunciation. So regular, in fact, that a phonological rule can be stated in the following way: 'Any vowel becomes nasal whenever it immediately precedes a nasal'.

This type of assimilation process occurs in a variety of different contexts. It is particularly noticeable in ordinary conversational speech. By itself, you may pronounce the word *can* as [kæn], but if you tell someone *I can go.* The influence of the following velar [g] will

almost certainly make the preceding nasal sound come out as [ŋ] (a velar) rather than [n] (an alveolar). The most commonly observed 'conversational' version of the phrase is [ayk≅ŋgo]. Notice that the vowel *can* has also changed to [≅] from the isolated-word version [æ]. The vowel sound [≅], called 'schwa', is very commonly used in conversational speech when a different vowel would occur in words spoken in isolation. In many words spoken carefully, the vowel receives stress, but in the course of ordinary talk, that vowel may no longer receive any stress. For example, you may pronounce *and* as [And] in isolation, but in the casual use of the phrase *you and me,* you almost certainly say [≅n], as in [yu≅nmi].

Note that in the above example, in the environment of preceding and following nasals, the [d] sound of *and* has simply disappeared. The [d] sound is also commonly 'omitted' in the pronunciation of a word like *friendship* [frɛnsIp]. This 'omission' of a sound segment which would be present in the deliberate pronunciation of a word in isolation is technically described as **elision.** Word-final /t/ is a common casualty in this process, as in the typical pronunciation [æspɛks] for *aspects,* or in [himçsbi] for *he must be.* You can, of course, solely and deliberately pronounce the phrase *we asked him,* but the process of elision in casual speech is likely to produce [wiæstim]. Vowels also disappear, as in the middle of [IntrIst], or [kæbnIt] for *cabinet* .

These two processes of assimilation and elision occur in everyone's speech and should not be treated as a form of sloppiness or laziness in speaking. In fact, consistently avoiding the regular patterns of assimilation and elision used in a language would result in extremely artificial sounding talk. The point of investigating phonological processes (Only a very small number of which have been explored here) is not to arrive at a set of rules about how a language should be pronounced, but to try to come to an understanding of the regularities and patterns which underline the actual use of sounds in language.

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Chapter VI

MORPHOLOGY

Nanik Mariani

Introduction

The study of analyzing the expression system of a language which is con- cerned with the identification of morphemes and the ways in which they are distributed or combined into longer utterances, is called morphology. This term, which literally means 'the study of forms', was originally used in biology, but, since the mid nineteenth century, has also been used to describe that type of investigation which analyzes all those basic 'elements' which are used in a language. What we have been describing as 'elements' in the form of a linguistic message are more technically known as mor- phemes.

*Morphology i*s the branch of linguistics that studies the form of words, changes in words, and the impact of these changes on the meaning and class of words. *Morphology* as part of linguistics that studies the forms of words, and changes in meanings that arise as a result of changes in word forms. *Morphology* is the branch of linguistics that studies word structures, especially regarding morphemes, which are the smallest units of language. They can be base words or components that form words, such as affixes.

In morphology, we studied about how to form words based on the existing patterns of the language and we also studied to recognize the well– form and ill–form based on the principles of the language, so why in some sources defined that morphology is the study of word formation or the study of architecture of words. When the study about the history of words or the origins of words, is called, Etymology and the pursuit of lexicography is divided into two related disciplines: (a) Practical lexicography is the art or craft of compil- ing, writing and editing dictionaries, and (b) Theoretical lexicography is the scholary discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic relation- ship within the lexicon / vocabulary of a language and developing theo- ries of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries.

Branches of and Approaches to Morphology

The two branches of morphology include *the study of the breaking apart (the analytic side) and the reassembling (the synthetic side) of words*; to wit, inflectional morphology concerns the breaking apart of words into their parts, such as how suffixes make different verb forms. *Lexical word formation*, in contrast, concerns the construction of new base words, especially complex ones that come from multiple morphemes. Lexical word formation is also called lexical morphology and derivational morphology. A widely recognized approach divides the field into two domains: *lexical or derivational morphology* studies the way in which new items of vocabulary can be built up out of combinations of elements (as in the case of in-describ-able); *inflectional morphology* studies the ways words vary in their form in order to express a grammatical contrast (as in the case of horses, where the ending marks plurality).[4]

[4] https://www.thoughtco.com/morphology-words-term-1691407

Morphemes VS Phonemes

A continuous stream of speech can be broken up by the listener (or lin- guist) into smaller, meaningful parts. A conversation, for example, can be divided into the sentences of the conversation, which can be divided up further into the words that make up each of the sentences. It is obvious to most people that a sentence has a meaning, and that each of the words in it has a meaning as well. Can we go further and divide words into smaller units that still have meanings?

Many people think not; their immediate intuition is that words are the basic meaningful elements of a language. This is not the case, however. Many words can be broken down into still smaller units. Think, for example, of words such as unlucky, unhappy, and unsatisfied. The un- in each of these words has the same meaning, loosely, that of not, but un is not a word by itself.

Thus, we have identified units – smaller than the word – that have meanings. These are called morphemes. Let's consider the words look, looks, and looked . What about the -s in looks and the –ed in looked ? These segments can be separated from the mean- ingful unit look, and although they do not really have an identifiable meaning themselves, each does have a particular function. The –s is required for agreement with certain subjects (She looked, but not she look), and the –ed signifies that the action of the verb look has already taken place. Segments such as these are also considered morphemes. Thus, *a morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has a meaning or grammatical function.*

In preceding chapter, we defined that phonemes is the smallest dis- tinguished sound in a language or the minimal unit in the sound system of a language.

Phonemes and morphemes are the two basic signaling units of lan- guage, which are universal in that they are always found in any language. Each language has phonemes and morphemes as its signaling units. For ex- ample, the word 'fat' has three smallest distinguished sound (phonemes): 'fat' [fæt] : /f/, /æ/, /t/ and also to the word 'some' [s m] : /s/, / /, /m/.

Morphemes, on the other hand, is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function. Let's clarify this definition with one example. We would say that the word reopened in the sentence The police reopened the investiga- tion consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is open, another minimal unit of meaning is re- (meaning 'again'), and a minimal unit of grammatical function is –ed (indicating past tense). It means that a single word may be composed of one or more morphemes, such as, other examples below:

- one morpheme : open
  Happy
- two morphemes : open + ed = opened
  happy + ness = happiness
- three morphemes : re + open + ed = reopened
  un + happy + ness = unhappiness
- more than three morphemes : un + desire + able + ity = undesirability
  un + gentle + man + ly + ness = ungentlemanliness

FREE AND BOUND MORPHEMES

As stated above that a morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has a meaning or grammatical function, we can clarify it with some examples. We would say that the word

reopened in the sentence *The police reopened the investigation* consists of three morphemes. One minimal unit of meaning is *open,* another minimal unit of meaning is *re-* (meaning 'again'), and a minimal unit of grammatical function is *-ed* (indicating past tense). The word *tourists* also contains three morphemes. There is one minimal unit of meaning, *tour,* and another minimal unit of meaning *–ist* (meaning 'person who does something'), and also a minimal unit of grammatical function *-s* (indicating plural).

From these two examples, we can make a broad distinction between two types of morphemes. There are **free morphemes**, that is, **morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words,** e.g. **open** and **tour.** There are also **bound morphemes,** that is, those which **cannot normally stand alone,** but which are typically attached to another form, e.g. *re-, -ist, -ed, -s.* This last set known as **affixes.** So all affixes in English are bound morphemes. The free morphemes can be generally considered as the set of **separate** English word-forms. When they are used with bound morphemes, the basic word-form involved is technically known as the **stem.**

For example :

- *Undressed*	:	*un-*	: prefix (bound)
		dress	: stem (free)
		-ed	: suffix (bound)
- *Carelessness*	:	*care*	: stem (free)
		-less	: suffix (bound)
		-ness	: suffix (bound)

It should be noted that this type of description is a partial simplification of the morphological facts of English. There are a number of English words in which the element which seems to be the 'stem' is not, in fact, a free morpheme. In words like *receive, reduce, repeat* we can recognize the bound morpheme *re-,* but the elements *–ceive, -duce* and *–peat* are clearly not free morphemes. There is still some disagreement over the proper characterization of these elements and you may encounter a variety of technical terms used to describe them. It may help to work with a simple distinction between forms like-*ceive* and *–duce* as 'bound stems' and forms like *dress* and *care* as 'free stems'.

What we have described as **free morphemes** fall into two categories. The first category is that set of ordinary **nouns, adjectives** and **verbs** which we think of as the words which carry the 'content' of messages we convey. These free morphemes are called **lexical morphemes** and some examples are: *girl, woman, house, motorcycle, camel, cat, lion, crocodile, happy, tall, beautiful, green, sincere, close, watch, teach, ride.*

The other group of free morphemes are called **functional morphemes.** Examples are: *and, but, or, while, because, at, in, near, above, an, the, this, it, we.* This set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as **conjunctions, prepositions, articles,** and **pronouns.**

The set of affixes which fall into the 'bound' category can also be divided into two types. The first type is the **derivational morphemes.** These are used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of a different grammatical category from the stem. Derivational morphemes can change the meaning or part of speech of a word they attach to. Thus, the addition of the derivational morpheme *–ness* changes the adjective *kind* to the noun *kindness.* A list of derivational morphemes will include **suffixes** such as the *–ish* in *foolish,* the *–ly* in *slowly* and the *–ment* in *agreement.* It will also include **prefixes** such as *re-, pre-, ex-, dis-, im-, un-* and many more.

The second set of 'bound morphemes' contains what are called **inflectional morphemes.** These are not used to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word. Inflectional morphemes are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense or not, and if it is a comparative or possessive form. Examples of inflectional morphemes at work can be seen in the use of *–ed* to make *jump* into the past tense form *jumped.* And the use of *-s* to make the word *boy* into the plural *boys*. Other examples are the *–ing, -s, -er, est* and *–'s* inflections in the phrases *Ranny is singing, Patria plays, She is bigger, the richest woman* and *Prima's car.* Note that, in English, all inflectional morphemes are **suffixes.**

In every word we find that there is at least one free morpheme. In a morphologically complex word, i.e., one composed of a free morpheme and any number of bound affixes, the free morpheme is referred to as the **stem, root,** or **base.** However, if there is more than one affix in a word, we cannot say that all of the affixes attach to the stem. Consider the word *happenings,* for example. When *–ing* is added to *happen,* we note that a new word is derived; it is morphologically complex, but it is a word. The plural morpheme *–s* is added onto the word *happening,* not the suffix *–ing.*

In English the derivational morphemes are either prefixes or suffixes, but by chance, the inflectional morphemes are all suffixes. Of course, this is not the same in other languages. As mentioned above, there are only eight inflectional morphemes in English. They are listed below, along with an example of the type of stem each can attach to.

The Inflectional Suffixes of English

Stem	***Suffix***	**Function**	**Example**
Wait	-s	3rd per. sing. Present	She wait*s* there at noon.
Wait	-ed	past tense	She wait*ed* there yesterday.
Wait	-ing	progressive	She is wait*ing* there now.
Eat	-en	past participle	Jack has eat*en* the Oreos.
Chair	-s	plural	The chair*s* are in the room.
Chair	-'s	possessive	The chair*'s* leg is broken
Fast	-er	comparative	Jill runs fast*er* than Joe.
Fast	-est	superlative	Tim runs fast*est* of all.

The difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes is sometimes difficult to see at first. Some characteristics of each are listed below to help make the distinction clearer.

Derivational Morphemes

1. Change the part of speech or the meaning of a word, e.g., *-ment* added to a verb forms a noun, *judg-ment, re-activate* means 'activate again'.
2. Are not required by syntax. They typically indicate semantic relations *within* a word, but no syntactic relations outside the word (compare this with inflectional morphemes point 2 below), e.g., *un-kind* relates *un-* 'not' to *kind* but has no particular syntactic connections outside the word – note that the same word can be used in *he is unkind* and *they are unkind.*
3. Are usually not very productive – derivational morphemes generally are selective about what they'll combine with, e.g., the suffix *–hood* occurs with just a few nouns such as *brother, neighbor,* and *knight,* but not with most others, e.g., *friend, daughter,* or *candle.*

4. Typically occur before inflectional suffixes, e.g., *govern-ment-s: -ment,* a derivational suffix, precedes *–s,* an inflectional suffix.
5. May be prefixes or suffixes (in English), e.g., *pre-arrange, arrange-ment.*

Inflectional Morphemes

1. Do not change meaning or part of speech, e.g., *big, bigg-er, bigg-est* are all adjectives.
2. Are required by the syntax. They typically indicate syntactic relations between different words in a sentence , e.g., *Nim love-s bananas:* -s marks the 3rd person singular present form of the verb, relating it to the 3rd singular subject *Nim.*
3. Are very productive. They typically occur with all members of some large class of morphemes, e.g., the plural morpheme *–s* occurs with almost all nouns.
4. Occur at the margin of a word, after any derivational morphemes, e.g., *ration-al-iz-ation-s :* is inflectional, and appears at the very end of the word.
5. Are suffixes only (in English).

It is useful to make one final distinction between types of morphemes. Some morphemes have semantic content. That is, they either have some kind of independent, identifiable meaning or indicate a change in meaning when added to a word. Others serve only to provide information about grammatical function by relating certain words in a sentence to each other (see point 2 under inflectional morphemes, above). The former are called **content** morphemes, and the latter are called **function** morphemes. This distinction might at first appear to be the same as the inflectional and derivational distinction. They do overlap, but not completely. All derivational morphemes are content morphemes, and all inflectional morphemes are function morphemes, as you might have surmised. However, some words can be merely function morphemes. Examples in English of such free morphemes that are also function morphemes are prepositions, articles, pronouns, and conjunctions.

MORPHS AND ALLOMORPHS

The solution to other problems remains controversial. One way to treat differences in inflectional morphemes is by proposing variation in morphological realization rules. In order to do this, we draw an analogy with some processes already noted in phonology (Chapter V). If we consider 'phones' as the actual phonetic realization of 'phonemes', then we can propose **morphs** as the actual forms used to realize morphemes. Thus, the form *cat* is a single morph realizing a lexical morpheme. The form *cats* consists of two morphs, realizing a lexical morpheme and an inflectional morpheme ('plural'). Just as we noted that there were 'allophones' of a particular phoneme, then we can recognize **allomorphs** of a particular morpheme. Take the morpheme 'plural'. Note that it can be attached to a number of lexical morphemes to produce structures like 'cat + plural', 'sheep + plural', and 'man + plural'. Now, the actual forms of the morphs which result from the single morpheme 'plural' turn out to be different. Yet they are all allomorphs of the one morpheme. It has been suggested, for example, that one allomorph of 'plural' is a zero-morph, and the plural form of *sheep* is actually 'sheep + □'. Otherwise, those so-called 'irregular' forms of plurals and past tenses in English are described as having individual morphological realization rules. Thus, 'man + plural' or 'go + past', as analyses at the morpheme level, are realized as *men* and *went* at the **morph-level**.

WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES

In the previous paragraph of this section on morphology, we have been looking at how words are put together out of smaller parts. We have seen that English makes use of derivational morphemes to create more words than would exist with only free morphemes, and of course, English is not the only language that enlarges its vocabulary in this way. When linguists observe a language which uses the combining of bound and free morphemes to form additional words, they note that the occurring combinations are systematic, i.e., rule-governed, as we have certainly seen is the case in English. To illustrate, recall the prefix *un-*, meaning 'not', attaches only to adjectives, the prefix *re-* attaches only to verbs, and the suffix *–ful* attaches only to nouns. Because these combinations are rule-governed, we can say that a *process* is at work, namely, **a word formation process,** since new words are being formed. What we will consider in this section are the ways in which languages create new words from bound and free morphemes.

Before describing some of the word formation process found in the world's languages, we must first address the question: in what sense is it meant that new words are being "formed"? Do we mean that every time a speaker uses a morphologically complex word that the brain reconstructs it? Some linguists would maintain that this is the case. They would claim that in a speaker's mental dictionary, called the **lexicon,** each morpheme is listed individually, along with other information such as what it means, its part of speech (if a free morpheme), and possibly a rule naming what it can combine with, if it is a bound morpheme. Thus, each time a word is used, it is re-formed from the separate entries in the lexicon. However, there is evidence that indicates this is not actually the case; even morphologically complex words apparently have a separate entry in the adult lexicon. There are other reasons, though, to consider *derivation* a process of word formation. A linguist analyzing a language uses the term *formation* to mean that the lexicon of a language includes many items that are systematically related to one another. Speakers of a given language, however, are also often aware of these relationships. We see evidence of this when new words are formed based on patterns that exist in the lexicon. For example, a speaker of English may never have heard words such as *unsmelly, smellness,* or *smellful* before, but he or she would certainly understand what they mean. The word *stick-to-it-ive-ness* causes some prescriptivists to wail; why create this new word when a perfectly good word, *perseverance,* already exists? This word illustrates that speakers of a language have no problem accessing the patterns in their lexicons and applying them for new creations. Thus, the term *formation* is applicable. Rules that speakers actually apply to form words that are not currently in use in a language are termed **productive.** English has examples of nonproductive morphemes as well; for example, the suffix *–tion* is not used by speakers to form new nouns, whereas the suffix *–ness* is.

Affixation

Words formed by the combination of bound affixes and free morphemes are the result of the process of **affixation.** Although English uses only **prefixes** and **suffixes,** many other languages use **infixes** as well. Infixes are inserted within the root morpheme. Note that English really has no infixes. At first glance, some students think that *–ful* in a word like *doubtfully* is an infix because it occurs in the middle of a word, however, that *doubtfully* has a hierarchical structure that indicates that the *–ful* suffix attaches not to the affix *–ful* but rather to complete word *doubtful.* Thus *–ful* attaches to the word *doubt* as a suffix and does not break up the morpheme *doubt.*

As mentioned before that **Prefixes** are some affixes have to be added to the beginning of a word. **A**nd a few examples are the elements *un-, re-, im-, mis-* which appear in words like *unhappy, recourse, impolite, misrepresent.* The other affix forms are added to the end of the word which is called as **Suffixes.** And a few examples are the elements *–ful, -less, -ish, -ism, -ness,* which appear in words like *joyful, careless, girlish, terrorism,* and *kindness.* And the third type of affix, not normally to be found in English, but fairly common in some other languages. Those are called **Infixes** and, as the term suggests that it is an infix which is incorporated inside another word. Yule (1987:56) It is possible to see the general principle at work in certain expressions, occasionally used in fortuitous or aggravating circumstances by emotionally aroused English speakers: *Hallebloodylujah!, Absogoddamlutely!* And *Unfuckinfbelieveble!* We could view these 'inserted forms as a special version of infixing. However, a much better set of examples can be provided from Kamhmu, a language spoken in South East Asia. These examples are taken from Merrifield *et al.* (1962):

('to drill')	*see – srnee*	('a drill')
('to chisel')	*toh – trnoh*	('a chisel')
('to eat with a spoon')	*hip – hrniip*	('a spoon')
('to tie')	*hoom – hrnoom*	('a thing with which to tie')

It can be seen that there is a regular pattern whereby the infix *–rn-* is added to verbs to form corresponding nouns. If this pattern is generally found in the language and we know that the form *krnap* is the Kamhmu word for 'tongs', then we should be able to work out what the corresponding verb 'to grasp with tongs' would be. It is *kap.*

Other example is Tagalog, one of the major languages of the Philippines, uses infixes quite extensively. For example, the infix *–um-* is used to form the infinitive form of verbs:

Verb Stem		*Infinitive*	
[sulat]	*write*	[sumulat]	*to write*
[bili]	*buy*	[bumuli]	*to buy*
[kuhal]	*take, get*	[kumuhal]	*to take, to get*

Reduplication

Reduplication is a process of forming new words either by doubling a entire free morpheme (**total reduplication)** or part of it **(partial reduplication).** In English, total reduplication occurs only sporadically and it usually indicates intensity:

That's a big, big house! (*big* is drawn out)

Young children will frequently reduplicate words or parts of words. Some English examples are *lugglety – pigglety, hoity – loity,* and *hocus – pocus.* However, note that these partial reduplications are not a single morpheme. Other languages, however, do make use of reduplication more extensively.

Indonesian uses total reduplication to form the plurals of nouns:

Singular		*Plural*	
[rumah]	*house*	[rumah-rumah]	*houses*
[ibu]	*mother*	[ibu-ibu]	*mothers*
[lalat]	*fly*	[lalat-lalat]	*flies*
[tomat]	*tomato*	[tomat-tomat]	*tomatoes*

Tagalog uses partial reduplication to indicate the future tense:

Verb Stem			*Future Tense*
[bili]	*buy*	[bibili]	*will buy*
[kain]	*eat*	[kakain]	*will eat*
[pasok]	*enter*	[papasok]	*will enter*

In conjunction with the prefix *–man* (which often changes the initial consonant of a following morpheme to a nasal), Tagalog uses reduplication to derive words for occupations.

[bili]	/man + bi + bili/	[mamimili]	*a buyer*
[sulat]	/man + su + sulat/	[manunulat]	*a writer*
[ʔisda]	/man + ʔi + ʔisda/	[manʔiʔisda]	*a fisherman*

Compounding

Compounding is a process that forms new words not from bound affixes but from two or more independent words or in other word said that it is a process of joining of two separate words to produce a single form. The words that are parts of the compound can be free morphemes, words derived by affixation, or even words formed by compounding themselves. Examples in English of these three types include:

Girlfriend	air conditioner	lifeguard chair
Blackbird	looking glass	aircraft carrier
Textbook	watch maker	life insurance salesman

Notice that in English compound words are not represented consistently in the orthography. Sometimes they are written together, sometimes they are written with a hyphen, and sometimes they are written separately. We know, however, that compounding forms *words* and not just syntactic phrases, regardless of how the compound is spelled, because the stress patterns are different for compounds.

Think about how you would say the words *red neck* in each of the two following sentences:

1. The wool sweater gave the man a red neck.
2. The redneck in the bar dot drunk and started yelling.

Compounds that have words in the same order as phrases have primary stress on the first word only, while individual words in phrases have independent primary stress. Some other examples are listed below. (Primary stress is indicated by ˈ on the vowel).

Compounds	**Phrases**
ˈBlackbird	ˈblack ˈbird
ˈmakeup	ˈmake ˈup

Other compounds can have phrasal stress patterns, but only if they can't possibly be phrases. These same compounds might also have stress on the first word only, like other compounds. For example:

ˈeasy-ˈgoing	ˈeasy-going
ˈman-ˈmade	ˈman-made
ˈhomemˈade	ˈhomemade

The syntactic category of a word created by compounding depends to some extent on the categories of its parts. In general, two words of identical categories will make a compound of the same category. Also, the second part of compound seems to dominate when the categories of the parts differ.

Noun – noun	**Adjective – adjective**
Birdcage	deaf-mute
Wallpaper	easy-going
Playground	highborn

X – Noun	**X – Adjective**	**X – Verb**
blackbird	stone-deaf	outrun
wastebasket	colorblind	fingerprint
backwater	knee-deep	undergo

The meaning of a compound depends on the meanings of its parts, but almost any kind of meaning connection can be involved between the parts. For example, an *aircraft* is a craft made for use *in* the air, but an *airconditioner* is a conditioner *of* air. Similarly, an *airbrush* is a brush which *uses* air.

Blending

This combining of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called **blending.** However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. In some parts of the United States, there's a product which is used like *gasoline,* but is made from *alcohol,* so the 'blended' term for referring to this product is *gasohol.* If you wish to refer to the combined effects of *smoke* and *fog,* there is the term *smog.* Some other commonly used examples of blending are *brunch* (breakfast / lunch), *motel* (motor / hotel), and *telecast* (television / broadcast), also *chortle* (chuckle / snort). The British have, for a number of years, considered the feasibility of constructing a tunnel under the English Channel to France, and newspapers inevitably refer to this project by using the blended expression *Chunnel.* A fairly recent invention, based on the blending process, was President Reagan's version of economic policy, that is *Reaganomics.*

Clipping

The element of reduction which is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as **clipping.** This occurs when a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, often in casual speech. The term *gasoline* is still in use, but occurs much less frequently than *gas,* the clipped form. Common examples are *ad* has been clipped from *advertisement*, *fan* from *fanatic*, *exam* from *examination*, *dorm* from *dormitory, flu* from *influenza, lab* from *laboratory, prof* from *professor, plane* from *airplane,* and either *taxi* or *cab* from *taxi cab* which is itself a clipping from *taximeter cabriolet.*

Back Formation

A very specialized type of reduction process is known as **backformation.** Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually a verb) or in another word, backformation is forming a verb from existing noun. And backformation makes use of a process called *analogy* to derive new words, but in a rather

backwards manner. A good example of backformation is the process whereby the noun *television* first came into use and then the verb *televise* was created from it. Other examples of words created by this process are: *edit* from 'editor', *donate* from 'donation', *supervise* from 'supervision', *opt* from 'option', *emote* from 'emotion', and *enthuse* from 'enthusiasm'.

Acronyms

These words are formed by taking the initial sounds (or letters) of the words of a phrase and uniting them into a combination which is itself pronounceable as a separate word. These acronyms often consists of capital letters, as in NATO, an acronym for North Atlantic Treaty Organization, UNESCO is an acronym for the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, IBRD, an acronym for International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. But can lose their capitals to become everyday terms such as *laser* ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), *radar* ('radio detecting and ranging') and *scuba* ('self contained underwater breathing apparatus'). You might even hear talk of a *snafu* which is reputed to have its origins in 'situation normal, all fouled up'.

Coinage

One of the least common processes of word – formation in English is **coinage.** Words may also be created without using any of the methods described above and without employing any other word or word parts already in existence; that is, they may be created out of thin air, or the invention of totally new terms. Our fanciful creation of *somp* would be one example. Words like *aspirin* and *nylon,* originally invented trade names or brand names. Such trade names or brand names as *Xerox, Kodak, Kleenex,* and *Exxon* were made up without reference to any other word, as were the common words *pooch* and *snob.* Those words have quickly become everyday words in the language.

Borrowing

One of the most common sources of new words in English is the process simply labeled **borrowing.** That is, the taking over of words from other languages. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of loan-words from other languages, including *alcohol* from Arabic, *boss* from Dutch, *croissant* from French, *lilac* from Persian, *piano* from Italian, *pretzel* from German, *robot* from Czech, *tycoon* from Japanese, *yogurt* from Turkish and *Zebra* from Bantu. Other languages, of course, borrow terms from English, as can be observed in the Japanese use of *suupaamaaketto* ('supermarket') and *rajio* ('radio'), or Hungarians talking about *sport, klub* and *futbal,* or the French discussing problems of *le parking,* over a glass of *le whisky,* during *le weekend.*

A special type of borrowing is described as **loan–translation,** or **calque.** In this process, there is a direct translation of the elements of word into the borrowing language. An interesting example is the French term *un gratte-ciel,* which literally translates as 'a scrape sky', and is used for what. In English, is normally referred to as a *skyscraper.* The English word *superman* is thought to be a loan-translation of the German *Ubermensch,* and the term *loan-word* itself is believed to have come from the German *Lehnwort.* Nowadays, some Spanish speakers eat *perros calientes* (literally 'dogs hot'), or *hot dogs.*

Conversion

A change in the function of a word, as, for examples when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction) is generally known as **conversion.** Other labels for this very common process are 'category change' and 'functional shift'. A number of nouns, such as *paper, butter, bottle, vacation,* can, via the process of conversion, come to be used as verbs, as in the following sentences: *He's papering the bedroom walls; Have you buttered the toast?; We bottled the home-brew last night; They're vacationing in Frence.*

This process is particularly productive in modern English, with new uses occurring frequently. The conversion can involve verbs becoming nouns, with *guess, must* and *spy* as the sources of *a guess, a must* and *a spy.* Or adjectives, such as *dirty, empty, total, crazy* and *nasty,* can become the verbs *to dirty, to empty, to total,* or the nouns *a crazy* and *a nasty.* Other forms, such as *up* and *down,* can also become verbs, as in *They up the prices* or *We down a few beers.*

Morphological Misanalysis (False Etymology)

Sometimes people hear a word and misanalyze it either because they "hear" a familiar word or morpheme in the word, or for other, unknown reasons. This misanalyses can introduce words or morphemes. For example, the suffix *–burger* results from misanalyzing *hamburger* as *ham* plus *burger.* (*Hamburger* is a clipping from *Hamburger Steak). –Burger* has since been added to other types of foods: *cheeseburger, pizzaburger, salmonburger,* and *steakburger.* Another example concerns the creation *(a) holic* from a peculiar analysis of *alcoholic.* This suffix can be found in words like *workaholic* and *sugarholic.* It is not clear whether such misanalyses arise from actual miasunderstanding or from intentional or creative extension of the morphological possibilities of the language.

Proper Names

Many places, inventions, activities, etc, are named for persons somehow connected with them; for instance, Washington, D.C. for George Washington – and District of Columbia for Christopher Columbus, German *Kaiser* and Russian *tsar* for Julius Caesar, and *ohm* and *watt* for George Simon Ohm and James Watt.

Multiple Process

Although we have concentrated on each of these word-formation processes in isolation, it is possible to trace the operation of more than one process at work in the creation of a particular word. For example, the term *deli* seems to have become a common American English expression via a process of first 'borrowing' *delicatessen* from German and then 'clipping' that borrowed form. If you hear someone complain that *problems with the project have snowballed,* the final term can be noted as an example of 'compounding', whereby *snow* and *ball* have been combined to form the noun *snowball,* which has then undergone 'conversion' to be used as a verb. Forms which begin as 'acronyms' can also undergo other processes, as in the use of *lase* as a verb, the result of 'backformation' from *laser.* In the expression, *waspish attitudes,* the form *WASP* ('White Anglo-Saxon Protestant') has lost its capital letters and gained a suffix in the 'derivation' process.

Many such forms can, of course, have a very brief life-span. Perhaps the generally accepted test of the 'arrival' of recently formed words in a language is their published appearance in a dictionary. However, even this may not occur without protests from some, as Noah Webster found when his first dictionary, published in 1806, was criticized for citing

words like *advocate* and *test* as verbs, and for including such 'vulgar' words as *advisory* and *presidential*. It would seem that Noah had a keener sense than his critics of which new word-forms in the language were going to last.

Chapter VII

S Y N T A X

Fatchul Mu'in

Introduction

Syntax refers to "the whole system and structure of a language or of languages in general, usually taken as consisting of syntax and morphology (including inflections) and sometimes also phonology and semantics.". It includes the syntax, but it's not limited to that. The syntax of a language is also referred as , "the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language.", " the grammatical structure of words and phrases to create coherent sentences.

Syntax is roughly about word order. Grammar has two overlapping meanings: 1. Everything about how a language works, including syntax as a subset. 2. How words are inflected, conjugated, declined according to aspect, degree, gender, mood, number, person, tense, etc. One part of grammar is called *Morphology*. It has to do with the internal economy of words. So a word like *bookkeepers* has four morphemes (*book, keep, -er, -s*) and is put together with morphology. The other part is called *Syntax*. It has to do with the external economy of words, including word order, agreement; like the sentence *For me to call her sister would be a bad idea* and its syntactic transform *It would be a bad idea for me to call her sister*. That's syntax. English grammar is mostly syntax.

From the other perspective, the syntax is defined as the study of arrangements of words into phrases, clauses, and sentences or syntactical constructions. The smallest units of syntax are words. When two or more words are arranged in a certain way, the result refers to syntactical construction. In other words, it can be said that a syntactical construction is a construction in which its immediate constituents (IC-a) are words (or free morphemes). An immediate constituent (IC) refers to a constituent (or element) that directly form the construction.

As has been mentioned before, the smallest units of syntax are words. Then, words will be discussed in the following.

Based on one perspective, grammarians classify the words into eight types of parts of speech in the English language: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. The part of speech indicates how the word functions in meaning as well as grammatically within the sentence. An individual word can function as more than one part of speech when used in different circumstances. Understanding parts of speech is essential for determining the correct definition of a word when using the dictionary. Meanwhile, structural linguists classify words into two great classes: content and function words.

Firstly, the parts of speech cover: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. Let us explain them in following:

1. Noun

A noun is a word for a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns are often used with an article (*the*, *a*, *an*), but not always. Proper nouns always start with a capital letter; common nouns do not. Nouns can be singular or plural, concrete or abstract. Nouns show possession by adding *'s*. Nouns can function in different roles within a sentence; for example, a noun can be a subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or object of a preposition.

> *The young **girl** brought me a very long **letter** from the **teacher**, and then she quickly disappeared. Oh my!*

See the TIP Sheet on "Nouns" for further information.

2. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. A pronoun is usually substituted for a specific noun, which is called its antecedent. In the sentence above, the antecedent for the pronoun *she* is the girl. Pronouns are further defined by type: personal pronouns refer to specific persons or things; possessive pronouns indicate ownership; reflexive pronouns are used to emphasize another noun or pronoun; relative pronouns introduce a subordinate clause; and demonstrative pronouns identify, point to, or refer to nouns.

3. Verb

The verb in a sentence expresses action or being. There is a main verb and sometimes one or more helping verbs. ("*She can sing*." *Sing* is the main verb; *can* is the helping verb.) A verb must agree with its subject in number (both are singular or both are plural). Verbs also take different forms to express tense.

4. Adjective

An adjective is a word used to modify or describe a noun or a pronoun. It usually answers the question of which one, what kind, or how many. (Articles [a, an, the] are usually classified as adjectives.)

5. Adverb

An adverb describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, but never a noun. It usually answers the questions of when, where, how, why, under what conditions, or to what degree. Adverbs often end in -ly.

6. Preposition

A preposition is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to form a phrase modifying another word in the sentence. Therefore a preposition is always part of a prepositional phrase. The prepositional phrase almost always functions as an adjective or as an adverb. The following list includes the most common prepositions:

7. Conjuction

A conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses, and indicates the relationship between the elements joined. Coordinating conjunctions connect grammatically equal elements: and, but,

or, nor, for, so, yet. Subordinating conjunctions connect clauses that are not equal: because, although, while, since, etc. There are other types of conjunctions as well.

8. INTERJECTION

An interjection is a word used to express emotion. It is often followed by an exclamation point such as: *Oh!... Wow!... Oops!*

Content and Function Words

Secondly, the structural linguists classify words in two great classes, namely: Content and Function Words. The first class is known as content words and the second one is known as function words. The first group include : (1) nouns, (2) verbs, (3) adjectives, and (4) adverbs. Whereas, the second group include words such as (1) auxiliary words (can, may, must, shall, and will), (2) determiner articles (a, the, this, that, many, some, etc), (3) prepositions (on, at, in, above, etc), (4) qualifiers (very, somewhat, quite, etc), interrogators (when, how, who, etc), (5) negators (not, never), (6) subordinators (is, as, although, etc), and (7) coordinators (and, or, but, etc). Both content words and function words are used to form sysntactical constructions.

Content words are different from function words in some cases. These content words have some characteristics as follows. *Content words* have *precise lexical meanings*, namely: meanings of words as found in a dictionary or when they occur in isolation such as meanings of 'Ali,' 'kicked,' and 'dogs.' 'Ali', for instance, refers to 'a certain human being called 'Ali', 'kicked' means 'hitting by using one's foot which happened in the past time', and 'dogs' refers to 'more than one four-footed animal'; whereas, *function words* do not have clear lexical meaning such a word 'of.' 'Of' may mean 'possession' (for instance, the house of my father) and it may mean 'relationship of an action and its object' (for example, the running of the boy).

Content words are different from function words concerning their frequencies of occurrence. The former has a low frequency of occurrence, and the latter has a high frequency of occurrence. For instance, a certain kind of content words like 'chair' (noun), 'write' (verb), 'green' (adjective), and 'clearly' (adverb) are not always found or used in dialogue (conversation) or a writing activity. On the other hand, a certain kind of *function word* like 'of' (preposition) is often used in utterance or discourse, both when people speak and write.

The difference between content and function words concerns their numbers. The former is said to be high in number, and the latter is known as those which are limited in number. In this relation, we cannot imagine the number of nouns or verbs. There must be many words categorized as nouns or verbs (also, adjectives or adverbs). On the other hand, the number of 'auxiliary words' can be easily counted by hand.

The difference between content and function words concerns their formal markers. The former have formal markers. A noun, for instance, can be identified by using its formal markers such as inflectional suffixes (for example, -s in dogs, derivational suffixes (for example, -ment in statement), and its position after noun determiners (for instance, the- in the book). Whereas, the latter do not have formal markers that can be used to identify them. In this relation, we do not have 'a marker' or ' a means' to determine a word 'in'; there is nothing in the word 'in' that tells that it is a preposition.

Lastly, the difference between content and function words in what we often call open and closed classes of words. This is to say that the former is said to be open classes of words, and the latter are known as closed classes of words. When words are open, they mean that they may

change from time to time; the number of contents can increase in line with the development of culture and technology. When words are closed in nature, they mean that they hardly ever increase in their number.

Syntactical Constructions

Syntactical construction may be in the form of phrases, clauses, or sentences. A phrase or sentence can be analyzed based on its *immediate constituents (IC-s).* This term was introduced by Bloomfield, who illustrated how it was possible to a sentence *(Poor John ran away)* and split it up into two IC-s (*Poor John* and *ran away*, and each IC can be further analyzed into its IC-s. So *Poor John* consists of *Poor* and *John*; and *ran away* consists of *ran* and *away.* When the constituent(s) can be further analyzed into its(their) IC-s, the constituent(s) are identified as *ultimate constituent(s).* In this relation, it can be said that *Poor, John, ran,* and *away* are the *ultimate constituents* of the sentence *Poor John ran away.*

Types of Syntactical Constructions

There are two types of syntactical constructions. They are (1) endocentric construction and (2) exocentric construction.

An endocentric construction is a construction in which at least one of the IC-s belong to the same form class as the whole construction. For instance, a construction 'green book.' To identify whether this construction is endocentric or not, we can test by using the following sentence.

Green book is on the table.

When we delete 'book,' the sentence will be :

Green is on the table *

Of course, and the sentence is not accepted because there is a sentence with an adjective as its subject.

When we delete 'green,' the sentence will be :

Book is on the table.

This sentence is acceptable. This shows us that one of the IC-s of the construction 'green book' e.g. 'book' belongs to the same form class as the construction 'green book.' In other words, an IC 'book' can replace the position of 'green book.' Therefore, the construction is called 'endocentric construction.'

An exocentric construction is a construction in which none of the IC- s belongs to the same form class the whole construction. For instance, we have a construction '…in the room.' We can test in the same way as we did before. We use 'in the room' in a sentence:

They slept *in the room*.

Let us pay attention to 'in the room.'

When we delete 'in,' the sentence will be:

They slept *the room* (*)

This is not a complete sentence, and therefore, it is not accepted. When we delete 'in,' the sentence will be :

They slept *in* (*)

The sentence is also not complete and therefore, it is not accepted. Because none of the IC-s belongs to the same form class as the construction 'in the room,' it is called 'exocentric construction.' In this case, we can say that either 'in' or 'the room' can replace the position of the construction 'in the room.'

Sub-types of Endocentric Construction

There are three sub-types of endocentric construction. They are (1) attributive construction, (2) appositive construction, and (3) coordinative construction.

An attributive construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is called 'a modifier (M)' and the second one is called 'a head (H)' such as in the construction 'green book.' An IC 'green' is a modifier and an IC 'book' is a head. Some words that can be functioned as 'modifiers' are adjectives, verbs in past participle and verbs in present participle, and nouns such as 'strong' in 'the *strong* boy', 'finished' in 'we need the *finished* products', *and* 'swimming' in 'he is swimming in the *swimming pool'*, and 'stone' in 'a stone house' respectively.

English has four possible ways of making attributive construction: M – H such as 'green house', 'my book', swimming pool, etc, (2) H – M such as 'number two', 'the woman in blue jean', etc., (3) M – H – M such as 'as soon as possible', 'the best friend of mine', etc., and (4) H – M – H such as ' do not talk', 'will never die', etc. An appositive construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a noun or noun phrase, and the second one is a noun or noun phrase. The function of the second one is to clarify the first one. In a written form, the first noun or noun phrase and the second one are separated by a comma (,) such as a construction *'Aryati, the student of ULM*, is always on time.

A coordinative construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first one is combined with the second one by using coordinators such as 'and, or, but, both…and, either…or and neither….nor'. The example of the construction is '*you and I* will attend the meeting.' Sub-types of Exocentric Construction

There are three sub-types of exocentric construction. They are :(1) directive construction, (2) complementation construction, and (3) predicative construction.

A directive construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a director and the second one is its object. The *director* may be in the form of verbal element such as 'give' that is followed by its object 'money' to form a construction 'give money'; it may be in the form of preposition such as 'on' that is followed by its object 'the chair' to form a construction 'on the chair'; or it may be in the form of conjunction 'after' that is followed by its object 'he went home' to form a construction 'after he went home'.

A complementation construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a copula or copulative verb 'be,' and the second one is its complement. The following is some examples of this type of construction:

(I) am a teacher be (am) + a noun as a complement (He) is strong. be (is) + an adjective as a complement

(They) are in the room à be (are) + an adverb of place as a complement

Some verbs are similar in their function to a copulative verb 'be. They are 'become (become angry), get (get dark), go (go mad), grow (grow old), turn (turn red). In one case, the verbs have almost the same meaning as 'be.' That is to say that a sentence 'I am angry' is similar in meaning to a sentence 'I become angry.' In other cases, they are different from 'be.' In this relation, when the sentence is changed into a negative or an interrogative sentence, it is altered differently. For instance, a negative form of the sentence 'I am angry' is 'I am not angry'; whereas, a negative form of the sentence 'I become angry' is 'I do not become angry.'

A predicative construction is a construction that consists of two IC-s. The first IC is a subject and the second one is a predicate. This construction refers to what we have known as a sentence. The two essential things in the sentence are the uses of a subject and a predicate or a noun/noun phrase plus a noun/noun phrase. The following examples show the kind of construction:

1. He is angry He (subject) + is angry (predicate)

2. He sings well He (subject) + sings well (predicate)
3. People elect him a president. He (subject) + elect him a president (predicate).

Analysis of Syntactical Construction

We have said that a sentence can consist of a predicate and its arguments. So in a sentence such as (1):

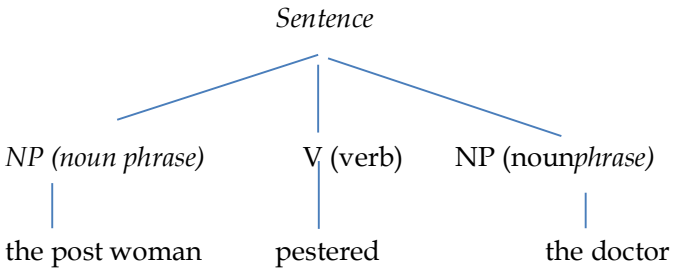
(1) Prudence pestered Dennis

We have the verb pestered as the predicate which relates the two arguments Prudence, the agent and Dennis, the patient. Now consider a slightly more complex case:

(2) the post woman pestered the doctor

This could mean exactly the same thing as (2), on the assumption that Prudence is a post woman and Dennis is a doctor. In this case, the arguments seem to be the post woman and the doctor, a sequence of words made up of a determiner followed by a noun. But what status do these sequences of words have in the sentence? It seems as though they function as single words do in (1), inasmuch as they constitute the same arguments as *Prudence* and *Dennis* do. Thus these two words seem to go together to make up a unit which is the functional equivalent of the proper nouns in the original sentence. This unit is called a **phrase**. We can represent this as follows:

(3)



Thus, a sentence has more internal structure to it than we have so far been assuming. Not only can sentences contain words and other sentences, but they can also contain phrases.

To make the drawing of the structures clearer in what follows, we will use the symbol *S* to stand for sentences and the symbol *P* to stand for phrases. Though it should be made clear that these symbols have no place in the system, we will eventually develop and are used now as mnemonics which stand for something we have yet to introduce properly.

Two questions arise immediately: do sentences contain any more phrases than those indicated in (3), and what can phrases contain? To be able to answer these questions, we must first look a little more closely at the properties of phrases in general. The first thing to note is that just as words have distributions in a sentence, so do phrases. This is obvious from the above example, as the phrases the post woman and the doctor distribute in the same way that the nouns Prudence and Dennis do:

wherever it is grammatical to have Prudence, it will be grammatical to have the postwoman and where it is ungrammatical to have Prudence it will be ungrammatical to have the postwoman:

a. Prudence is considerate the postwoman is considerate

b. I saw Prudence I saw the postwoman

c. they spoke to Prudence they spoke to the postwoman

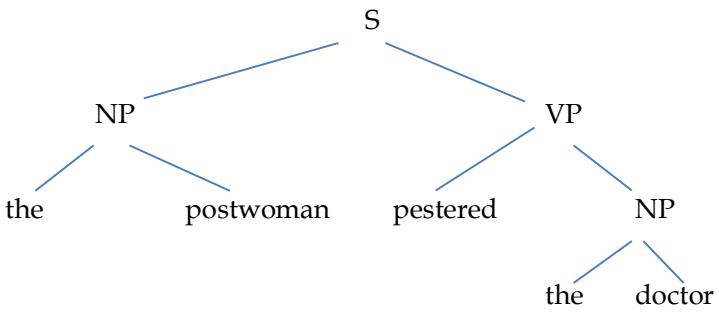
d. *we Prudence Dennis *we the postwoman Dennis

With this in mind, consider the following:

(4) a Prudence pestered Dennis on Wednesday

b Prudence persisted on Wednesday

It seems that in the position where we have pestered Dennis we can have the verb persisted. This is not surprising as the verb pestered is used transitively in (4a), with a nominal complement (Dennis) whereas persisted is used intransitively in (4b), without a complement. However, if intransitive verbs distribute the same as transitive verbs plus their complements, this means that transitive verbs and their complements form a phrase that has a distribution in the same way that a determiner with its nominal complement distributed like certain nouns. Thus a more accurate description of the sentence than (3) would be



Syntactic Devices

The arrangement of words does not always refer to syntactical construction. Not all combinations of words are said to be syntactical constructions. For instance, *'books many,' 'many book,' 'he sing,' 'the president gave his agree,' and 'I go school.'*

In improving the arrangements of the words above, we need some syntactic devices. We use a *word-order* for improving 'books many'; this arrangement must be changed into 'many books.' We use an inflectional suffix –s to make 'he sing' syntactic; this arrangement must be turned into 'he sings.' We use a derivational suffix –ment to improve *'the president gave his agree'* and the resultant form is 'the president gave his agreement.' At last, we use a function word 'to' to make 'I go school' acceptable and after 'to' is inserted, the resultant form will be a syntactical construction, namely: 'I go to school.'

Chapter VIII

TRANSFORMATIONAL-GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

Fatchul Mu'in

What is Grammar?

A grammar is defined as a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis. The term *producing* may be replaced by *generating*. Therefore term *generative* grammar is used. Speaker's language knowledge (=grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) enable to produce a grammatical sentence, and transform it into some new sentences.

By a grammar a speaker will be able to generate all the well-formed syntactic structures (e.g. phrases and/or sentences) of the language. This grammar will have a finite (or limited) number of rules, but will be able to generate an infinite number of well-formed structures.

Each adult speaker of a language clearly has some type of 'mental grammar', that is, a form of internal linguistic knowledge which operates in the production and recognition of appropriately structures expressions in that language. Second concept of a grammar is that it refers to linguistic etiquette, that is, the identification of the proper or best structures to be used in a language. Third concept of a grammar is that it involves the study and analysis of the structures found in a language, usually with the aim of establishing a description of the grammar of a given language as distinct from the grammar of any other language.

Transformational-Generative Grammar

A speaker who knows a language, he can speak and be understood by oth- ers who know that language. This means that he is able to produce sounds which signify certain meanings and to understand or interpret the sounds by others (Fromkin, Victoria and Robert Rodman, p.1-2). In other words, we can say that when someone knows a language, he can make sentences in accordance with his purposes. Starting from a word book, he may pro- duce phrases such as: a book, the book, many books, etc.; based on the phrases he may produce some sentences such as: It is a book, there is a book on the table; the book is yours; and there are many books in the room, etc.

A grammar includes phrase-structure rules, lexical-insertion rules, and transformational rules. The grammar can be thought of as a machine which generates all the possible sentences of the language. A grammar con- taining such rules is called a generative grammar. When the rules include transformational rules, we have a transformational-generative grammar (Fromkin, Victoria and Robert Rodman, p.224).

Kinds of Sentences

In short, a sentence can be said as a group of words, at least, that consists of two words used as the subject and its predicate. Such a sentence is a simple one; it only consists of a subject and its predicate (verb) and some- times followed by an object or a complement. Beside such a pattern of sentence, we are necessary to understand several kinds of sentences to- gether with their patterns. The sentences can be classified into several kinds.

The sentences may be classified according their purpose, time (tense) and their complexity of

structures or construction, kind and number of their clauses. If the sentences are classified according to their purpose, they can be in four kinds: (1) declarative, (2) interrogative, (3) imperative, and (4) exclamatory sentences.

If the sentences are classified according to their tenses, they can be in: (1) past, (2) present, and (3) future tenses. The sentences in the past tense can be classified into: (1) simple past tense, (2) past continuous tense, and (3) past perfect continuous tense; those in the present tense can classified into: (1) simple present tense, (2) present continuous tense, (3) present perfect tense, and (4) present perfect continuous tense; and those in the future tense can be classified can classified into: (1) simple future tense, (2) past future tense, (3) future perfect tense, (4) future continuous tense, and (5) future perfect continuous tense.

If the sentences are classified according to their complexity of con- struction, they are (1) simple sentences, (2) compound sentences, (3) com- plex sentences, and (4) compound-complex sentences.

Let us consider the following sentences:

1. The newspapers refused to report the murder.
2. They were afraid to report the murder.
3. The newspapers refused to report the murder because they were afraid to report the murder.
4. The newspapers refused to report the murder because they were afraid to.

If we discuss the above sentences, for instance, based on the purpose of producing the sentences, we can say that those sentences are classified into the declarative sentences; based on the tense to express the sentence, those sentences are in the simple past tense; and based on the complexity of their structures, the first two sentences are simple sentences, and the second two sentences are categorized as compound sentences.

The speaker's linguistic knowledge enables the speaker to combine the two sentences (1 and 2) into a compound sentence (3): *The newspapers refused to report the murder because they were afraid to report the murder.*

The speaker, then, delete the second verb phrase (report the murder) to avoid from repetition. Thus, the sentence he produces is : *The newspapers refused to report the murder because they were afraid to (4.)*

Langue and Parole

The study of speech sounds in a language is not an end in itself in linguis- tics. The goal is to find out what speech sound units are used to distin- guish and also to convey meaning, and how they are combined to form sentences. In other words, it is aimed at revealing the underlying system of the language.

Ferdinand de Saussure, a notable Swiss linguist, calls it langue or the language system as apposed to parole or the act of speaking. To him langue is the totality of a language, which can be deduced from an examination of the memories off all the language users; it is something like a combina- tion of grammar + vocabulary + pronunciation system of a community. However, langue in itself has no reality unless it is manifested through the actual, concrete act of speaking on the part of individual. When the actual, concrete act of speaking is conducted, the parole is manifested (Ramelan, 1984).

Linguistic Competence vs Linguistic Performance

The dichotomy of langue and parole is almost similar to the transformationalist's dichotomy of linguistic competence and linguistic per- formance. Linguistic competence refers to the speaker and hearer's knowl- edge about language, while linguistic performance is quite the same as parole, i.e. the actual use of the language which can be directly observed.

Deep Structures and Surface Structures

Deep structure refers to one that provides an explicit meaning of the sentence or its constituent, a meaning which is often not contained in any explicit way in the surface structure. Deep structure provides meaning; sur- face structure provides form of the sentence.

Thus we can say that the deep structure of a sentence gives its mean- ing because the deep structure contains all of the information needed to determine the meaning of a sentence. The most important question of all is : How is the deep structure of a sentence becomes a surface structure? A deep structure becomes a surface structure via transformations.

Transformation

Transformation is defined as a process which converts deep structures into surface structures. There are some kinds of transformations:

1. Interrogative Transformation

As has been stated above, based on the purpose of producing a sentence, a speaker may want to give a question to another. If he wants to do this, firstly he determines an interrogative sentence in his mind and then he constructs his sentence in an interrogative sentence. His deep structure can be drawn as: Question + Declarative Sentence. Let us take an example below:

Question + Anyone can solve this problem.

This interrogative transformation changes the word order of the deep structure so as to generate the surface structure.

Can anyone solve this problem?

2. Negative Transformation

In producing a sentence, a speaker may deny, for instance, the desirability of the study of Plato by undergraduates. Before producing the sentence, he determines a negative sentence in his mind and then he constructs his sentence in an negative sentence. His deep structure can be drawn as:

Negative+ Declarative Sentence.

Negative + Undergraduates should study Plato.

The negative transformation changes the deep structure into the surface structure by converting the Negative constituent into not and inserting it after should. The surface structure is :

Undergraduates should not study Plato.

The sur-face structure is called intermediate structure. The surface structure Undergraduates should not study Plato would become an inter- mediate structure if the final surface structure were to be Undergradu ates shouldn't study Plato. The transformation which may (optionally) apply to a structure such as that above is the contraction transformation. The conversion of "not" into "n't" is done via the contraction transfor- mation.

3. Passive Transformation

The interchanged constituents must be noun phrases. The passive transformation can interchange noun phrases regardless of the num- ber or kinds of words that each includes. This property of the passive transformation is, in fact, an example of a general property of all trans- formations: the ability to operate on constituents such as noun phrases without being affected by the words which make up the con- stituent.

1. a. Frank distrusted Kamamazov.

b. Karamazov was distrusted by Frank.

2. a. Daisy puzzled Winterbourne

b. Winterbourne was puzzled by Daisy.

Although 1a is an active sentence in which the. subject is "Frank," and 1b is a passive sentence in which the subject is "Karamazov," we know that the two sentences are synonymous.

The same statement may be made about 2a and 2b. The explana- tion for this is that, in each pair, the a and b sentences have identical deep structures, and, for present purposes, we will assume that they are identical. If the passive transformation is not applied to it, the above structure is equivalent to the surface structure of sentence 2b. If the passive transformation is not applied to it, the above structure is equiva- lent to the surface structure of sentence 2b.

If you compare the deep and surface structures above, you will see that the following changes have been made by the passive transforma- tion:

First, the constituents "Daisy" and "Winterbourne" have been in- terchanged. Second , "was", a form of "be", has been introduced.

Finally, the preposition "by" has been inserted before the constituent"Daisy". The passive transformation can be described as the process which interchanges the constituents "Daisy" and '"Winterbourne." But, obviously, this is not enough, for it only defines what occurs in a spe- cific sentence. (The passive transformation, of course, not only inter- changes the two constituents, but also introduces a form of "be" and adds the preposition "by." When we speak of the interchange of con- stituents by the passive transformation, we assume the other alterations of the phrase structure.)

4. Reflexive Transformation

Before discussing this kind of transformation, let us consider the following sentences; These sentences are often called reflexive sentences.

1. a. I shot myself.
   b. You shot yourself.
   c. He shot himself.
   d. She shot herself.
   e. We shot ourselves.
   f. They shot themselves.

These sentences, of course, involve the uses of reflexive pronouns. What is the interpretation of reflexive pronoun? This pronoun is al- ways understood as referring to a noun phrase previously mentioned in the sentence. So, we cannot say:

*Elisa shot themselves.

The sentence is not grammatical because of the use of inappropri- ate reflexive pronoun themselves. The reflexive pronoun must be changed into herself to make the sentence grammatical. So, the sentence be- comes Elisa shot herself.

In this relation, we can assume that the deep structures of the six sentences contain noun phrases identical to the subject noun phrases. The six sentences are derived from their deep structures as follows:

1. a. *I shot I.
   b. *You shot you.
   c. *He shot he.
   d. *She shot she.
   e. *We shot we.
   f. *They shot they.

   These deep structures have to be transformed by the reflexive trans- formation. This kind of transformation is applied whenever two noun phrases appear in the same simple sentence are identical. When it is applied, the second of the identical noun phrases is converted into the corresponding reflexive pronoun.

5. Imperative Transformation

An imperative sentence involves a speaker as first person, and his hearer as second person. The first person may be in the singular (I) or plural form (we), and the second person (you) can be used either in the singular or plural form.

This imperative sentence is produced for the sake of asking or commanding someone to do something. The person producing the sentence is the first person and the sentence itself is addressed to the second person. For instance, a sentence Go home! involves you as the subject of sentence. In fact, the sentence is generated from (You) go home!. Let us consider the following sentences:

1. a. wash the car!
   b. wash the windows!
2. a. He washed the car.
   b. Those girls washed the car.

The sentences 1a and 1b are the imperative sentences. These sen- tences do not have an explicit subject as the sentences 2a and 2b do. The subject of the former sentences is implicitly stated, namely: you and not he or some other noun phrase.

There are sentences which are both imperative and reflexive. Their deep subject must be you. For instance,

3. a. Wash yourself!
   b. Wash yourselves!

The sentences above must originally have involved the subject phrases containing you as the subject of the deep structures.

You wash you! (singular) You wash you! (plural).

In this relation, at least two transformations had to be applied to convert the deep structures into surface structures. The first is the reflex- ive transformation which must be applied. The results are :

You wash yourself! You wash yourselves!

The second, the imperative transformation, must be applied to change the sentences into the imperative ones, by deleting the subject you of the reflexive sentences to generate the sentences as stated above:

a. Wash yourself!
b. Wash yourselves!

6. Particle Movement Transformation

Particles look like prepositions, but they are different from prepo- sitions in several ways. For instance, particles can occur on both sides of the Noun Phrase direct object such as in:

(1). a. The detective looks up the address.
b. The detective looks the address up.

And prepositions do not occur on this way:

(2). a. The detective ran up the stairs.
b. *The detective ran the stairs up.

Through the particle movement transformation, a particle as in the sentence 1a can be repositioned to directly follow the direct object as in the sentence 1b.

7. Adverbial Phrase-Movement Transformation

A sentence may involve an adverb or adverbial phrase such as:

He opened the present eagerly.

The adverb eagerly is positioned after the noun phrase (the present). This kind of transformation can move an adverb to a position either at the beginning of the sentence or at the beginning of the verb phrase. The results are:

He eagerly opened the present,
Eagerly he opened the present.

8. Indirect-Object Transformation

This kind of transformation can be explained by using the fol- lowing example:

Father gave me some money.

When the sentence is changed, the result is :

Father gave some money to me.

The transformation shows that the direct object 'some money' is placed after the verb 'gave'. In this case, 'to' is used before the objective pronoun 'me'

9. Joining two or more sentences into one sentence

There are also transformations that change two or more sentences into one. That is, they join sentences together. The results may be com- pound sentences or complex sentences or combination of compound and complex sentences.

a. The man is my brother.
b. The man came to dinner.

The transformation places the second sentence after man in the first sentence and then replaces the man in the second sentence by who. The result is:

The man who came to dinner is my brother.

Deep Structure, Surface Structure and Ambiguity

Structural linguistics cannot make explicit the kind of relations between sentences; and it cannot solve the problem of ambiguity because it only results one IC analysis on the sentence with two different interpretations. On the other hand, Transformational-Generative Grammar (TG Grammar) can make explicit the kind of relations between and can solve the problem of ambiguous sentence.

The following sentences are ambiguous ones; they give two mean- ings (two deep structures):

1. *The shooting of the hunters occurred at dawn* can have two meanings.
   a. The hunters were shot at dawn. In this relation, the sentence is trans- formed from : *Somebody shot the hunters. The shooting occurred at dawn.*
   b. The hunters went shooting at dawn. In this relation, the sentence is transformed from: *The hunters shot somebody. The shooting occurred at dawn.*
2. John is difficult to love.
   a. John may have a personal problem. Because of his personal prob- lem he is difficult to love someone
   b. John may have determined some criteria of a girl he wants to love. The girl who does not fulfill the criteria is rejected. He is difficult to be loved.

Conclusion

A grammar includes phrase-structure rules, lexical-insertion rules, and trans- formational rules. The grammar can be thought of as a machine which generates all the possible sentences of the language. A grammar contain- ing such rules is called a *generative grammar.* When the rules include trans- formational rules, we have a *transformational-generative grammar.*
In this discussion, some aspects related to TG Grammar are presented such as langue vs. parole, competence vs performance, deep and surface structures, kinds of transformation, and ambiguities in sentences.

Chapter IX

SEMANTICS

Nanik Mariani

Semantics is the study of linguistic meaning; that is, the meaning of words phrase, and sentences. Many people may have the impression that a word's meaning is simply its dictionary definition. A little thought should show, however, that there must be more to meaning than just this.

It is true that when someone wants to find out what a word means, an easy and practical way to do it is to look the word up in a dictionary. Most people in our culture accept dictionaries as providing unquestionably authoritative accounts of the meanings of the words they define.

The role of dictionaries as authorities on meaning leads many people to feel that the dictionary definition of a word more accurately represents the word's meaning than does an individual speaker's understanding of the word. However, we must face the fact that a word means what people use it to mean. A word's meaning is determined by the people who use that word, not, ultimately, by a dictionary.

Unlike pragmatics, semantics is a part of grammar proper, the study of the internal structure of language. (Other areas of grammar are phonology, morphology, and syntax; these are covered in Chapters 6, 7, 8). Unfortunately, because semantics is the most poorly understood component of grammar, it can be one of the most difficult areas of linguistics to study. The fact is that no one has yet developed a comprehensive, authoritative theory of linguistic meaning. Nonetheless, we can discuss some of the phenomena that have been thought to fall within the domain of semantics and some of the theories that have been developed to explain them. It is important to keep in mind, however, that much of what follows is tentative and subject to a great deal of debate.

Let's first consider some observations we can make about the meaning of words and sentences.

(1) The word *fly* has more than one meaning in English. The word *moth* does not.
(2) The word *hide* can mean the same thing as *conceal.*
(3) The meaning of the word *fear* includes the meaning of the word *emotion,* but not vice versa.
(4) The words *sister* and *niece* seem to be closer in meaning than the words *sister* and *girl.*
(5) In the sentence *Monica believes that she is genius. She* refers either to *Monica* or to someone else. However, in the sentence *Monica believes herself to be a genius. Herself* can refer only to *Monica.*

(6) If someone were to ask you to name a bird, you would probably think of a robin before you would think of an ostrich.
(7) The sentences *A colorless gas is blue* and *Oxygen is blue* are both false, but they are false for different reasons.
(8) The sentence *John's wife is six feet tall* is neither true nor false, if John does not have a wife,

The observations in (1 – 8) are all essentially semantic in nature. That is, they have to do with the meaning of words and sentences. As is standard procedure in linguistics, we will assume that these phenomena are systematic; that is, they are rule-governed. What we will try to do now is construct a set of categories and principles that will at least partially explain these phenomena. Keep in mind that what follows is a (partial) theory designed to account for the observations in (1 – 8). It may eventually be replaced by other theories, but it is the best we have, given the present.

Meaning

Long before linguistics existed as a discipline, thinkers were speculating about the nature of meaning. For thousands of years, this question has been considered central to philosophy. More recently, it has come to be important in psychology as well. Contributions to semantics have come from a diverse group of scholars, ranging from Plato and Aristotle in ancient Greece to Bertrand Russell in the twentieth century. Our goal in this section will be to consider in a very general way what this research has revealed about the meanings of words and sentences in human language.

The basic repository of meaning within the grammar is the lexicon, which provides the information about the meaning of individual words relevant to the interpretation of sentences. We know very little about the nature of this type of meaning or how it should be represented. Nonetheless, it is worthwhile to review briefly some of the better-known proposals and their attendant problems.

So as mentioned before that Semantics and Pragmatics are concerned with aspects of meaning in language. Generally, work in **semantics** deals with the description of word-and sentence-meaning, and, in **pragmatics** deals with the characterization of speaker-meaning.

Neither God nor Humpty Dumpty

Before we investigate these two areas, we should be clear about what aspects of 'meaning' we are discussing. We cannot assume that there is some God-given, meaningful connection between a word in a language and an object in the world. It cannot be the case that we know the meaning of the word *chair,* for example, because this label has some natural, 'God-given' connection to the object you are sitting on. In order to hold that view, you would be forced to claim that God is an English speaker and that labels such as *chaise* (French), *Stuhl* (German), and *sedia (*Italian) are, in some senses, 'unnatural' ways of referring to the same object. Instead, a more reasonable approach would lead us to see the word *chair* as a term which is

arbitrary (that is, has no natural connection to the object), but which is conventionally used by English speakers when they wish to refer to that type of object that we sit on.

This notion of the meaning of words being based on a convention within the language should also lead us to avoid the view of word-meaning expressed by Humpty Dumpty in Lewis Carroll's *Through the Looking Glass:*

"When I use a word," Humpty Dumpty said in a rather scornful tone. "It means what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less."

If applied generally, this suggestions is surely a recipe for chaos in human language. Could one really say *That melon is blue* and choose it to mean 'That chair is comfortable'? It might work in some rather special, probably humorous, situation, but the notion that we can make words mean whatever we personally choose them to mean cannot be a general feature of linguistic meaning.

Reference

The study of reference, like the study of sense, can be divided into two areas: speaker-reference and linguistic-reference. **Speaker-reference** is what the speaker is referring to by using some linguistic expression. For example, if I utter the sentence *Here comes President Reagan,* factiously, to refer to a big lady coming down the sidewalk, then the speaker-reference of the expression *President Reagan* is *the big lady.* Speaker-reference, because it varies according to speaker and context, is outside the domain of semantics; instead it is part of pragmatics. **Linguistic-reference,** on the other hand, is the systematic denotation of some linguistic expression as part of a language. For example, the linguistic expression *President Reagan* in the sentence *Here comes President Reagan* refers in fact to the public figure Ronald Reagan. Linguistic-reference, in contrast to speaker-reference, is within the domain of semantics, since it deals with reference that is a systematic function of the language itself, rather than of the speaker and context. Let's now consider some concepts that seem to be useful in thinking and talking about reference (**referent, extension, prototype,** and **stereotype**); then we will take a look at some different types of linguistic reference (**coreference, anaphora,** and **deixis**).

Referent

One well-known approach to semantics attempts to equate a word's meaning with the entities to which it refers – it r**eferents**. According to this theory, the meaning of the word *dog* corresponds to the set of entities (dogs) that it picks out in the real world. Although not inherently implausible, this idea encounters certain serious difficulties. For one thing, there is a problem with words such as *unicorn* and *dragon,* which have no referents in the real world even though they are far from meaningless. A problem of a different sort arises with expressions such as *the Prime Minister of Great Britain* and *the leader of the Conservative Party,* both of which refer (in 1989 at least) to Margaret Thatcher. Although these two expressions may have the same referent, we would not say that they mean the same thing. No one would

maintain that the phrase *Prime Minister of Great Britain* could be defined as 'the leader of the Conservative Party' or vice versa.

Extension and Intension

The impossibility of equating a word's meaning with its referents has led to a distinction between **extension** and **intension.** Whereas a word's extension corresponds to the set of entities that it picks out in the world, its intension corresponds to its inherent sense, the concepts that it evokes. Some examples are given in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1: Extension versus intension

Phrase	Extension	Intension
Prime Minister of Great Britain	Margaret Thatcher	Leader of the majority party in Parliament
World Series champions (1988)	L.A. Dodgers	Winners of the baseball championship
Capital of California	Sacramento	City containing the state legislature

Thus, the extension of *woman* would be a set of real word entities (women) while its intension world involve notions like 'female' and 'human'. Similarly, the phrase *Prime Minister of Great Britain* would have as its extension an individual ('Margaret Thatcher'), but its intension would involve the concept 'leader of the majority party in Parliament'. The distinction between a word's intension and its extension does not allow us to resolve the question of meaning. It simply permits us to pose it in a new way; what is the nature of a word's inherent sense or intension?

- **Prototype**
  A "typical" member of the extension of a referring expression is a prototype of the expression. For example, a robin or a bluebird might be a prototype of *bird;* a pelican or an ostrich, since each is somewhat a typical, would not be.

- **Stereotype**
  A list of characteristics describing a prototype is said to be a stereotype. For example, the stereotype of *bird* might be something like: has two legs and two wings, has feathers, is about six to eight inches from head to tail, makes a chirping noise, lays eggs, builds nests, and so on.

- **Coreference**
  Two linguistics expressions that have the same extra linguistic referent are said to be coreferential. Consider, for example, the sentence *The Earth is third planet from the Sun.* The expressions *The Earth* and *the third planet from the Sun* are coreferential because they

both refer to the same extralinguistic object, namely the heavenly body that we are spinning around on right now. Note, however, that the expressions *the Earth* and *the third planet from the Sun* do not "mean" the same thing. Suppose, for example, a new planet were discovered between Mercury (now the first planet from the Sun) and Venus (now the second planet from the Sun). If so, then the Earth would become the fourth planet from the Sun, and Venus would become the third. Thus, the linguistic expressions *the Earth* and *the fourth planet from the Sun* would become coreferential. Note, moreover, that if we were to claim that these two expressions "mean" the same thing, then we should be able to substitute *the third planet from the Sun* for the Earth in a sentence like *The Earth is the fourth planet from the Sun,* assuming of course, our discovery of a new planet between Mercury and Venus. This substitution procedure would give us *the third planet from the Sun* is *the fourth planet from the Sun.* (Recall that an asterisk indicates an unacceptable form). As this example illustrates quite clearly, the fact is that *the Earth* and *the third planet from the Sun* each have separate meanings in English, even though they now happen to be coreferential.

This notion that coreference is distinct from meaning is slippery, so let's look at another example. Consider the following questions: (a) *Does a likeness of Andrew Jackson appear on a $20 bill?;* (b) *Does a likeness of the seventh president of the United States appear on a $20?* The fact is that Andrew Jackson was the seventh president of the United States. Thus, *Andrew Jackson* and *the seventh president of the United States* are coreferential. However, if the two expressions had the same "meaning", then it would be impossible to explain the fact that there are fluent speakers of English who can answer question (a) correctly, but not question (b).

- **Anaphora**

A linguistic expression that refers to another linguistic expression is said to be anaphoric or an anaphor. Consider the sentence *Mary wants to play whoever thinks himself capable of beating her.* In this sentence the linguistic expression *himself* necessarily refers to *whoever,* thus *himself* is being used anaphorically in this case. Note, moreover, that it would be inaccurate to claim that *whoever* and *himself* are coreferential (i.e. that they have the same extralinguistic referent). This is because there may in fact not be anyone who thinks himself of capable of beating Mary, that is, there may not be any extralinguistic referent for *whoever* and *himself.*

It is common, however, for coreference and anaphora to coincide. Consider, for example, the sentence *Roger Mudd thinks that President Reagan believes himself to be invincible.* The expressions *President Reagan* and *Himself* are coreferential since they refer to the same extralinguistic object, namely Ronald Reagan. At the same time, *himself* is an anaphora since it necessarily refers to the expression *President Reagan.* Note that there is no reading of this sentence such that *himself* can be constructed as referring to the expression *Roger Mudd.* In sum, coreference deals with the relation of a linguistic expression to some entity in the real world, past, present, or future; anaphora deals with the relation between two linguistic expressions.

- **Deixis**

An expression that has one meaning but refers to different entities as the extralinguistics context change every 24 hours. If, on November 28, 1946, X says to Y: *I'll see you tomorrow,* then the referent for *tomorrow* is November 299, 1946. If, on the other hand, X says the same thing to Y on June 6, 1965, then the referent for *tomorrow* is June 7, 1965; and so on. Among the most interesting deictic expressions in English are the personal pronouns: *I, me, you, he, him,* and so on. If, for example, I say to my cat Midnight Muffaletta. *I see you,* then *I* refers to the writer and *you* refers to Midnight Muffaletta. If, however, President Reagan says to the same thing to his wife, then *I* refers to Ronald Reagan, and *you* refers to Nancy Reagan; and so on. In other words, deictic expressions have a "pointing" function; the point to entities within the context of the utterance.

Note, however, that anaphora and deixis can intersect. Consider, for example, the sentence *President Reagan believes that he is invicible.* The expression *he* can refer either to the expression *President Reagan* or to some other male in the context of the utterance. When, as in the first case, a pronoun refers to another linguistic expression, it is used anaphorically; when, as in the second case, it refers to some entity in the extralinguistic context, it is used deictically.

Semantic Features

Still another approach to meaning tries to equate a word's intension with an abstract concept consisting of smaller components called **semantic features.** So, how would a semantic approach help us to understand something about the nature of language? One way it might be helpful would be as a means of accounting for the 'oddness' we experience when we read 'English' sentences such as the following:

The hamburger ate the man
My cat studied linguistics
A table was listening to some music

Notice that the oddness of these sentences does not derive from their syntactic structure. According to some basic syntactic rules for forming English sentences (such as those presented in **syntax**), we have well-structured sentences:

The hamburger ate *the man*
NP V NP

This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. Since the sentence *The man ate the hamburger* is perfectly acceptable, what is the source of the oddness we experience? One answer may relate to the components of the conceptual meaning of the noun *hamburger* which differ significantly from those of the noun *man,* especially when those nouns are used as subjects of the verb *ate.* The kinds of nouns which can be subjects of the verb *ate* must denote entities which are capable of 'eating'. The noun *hamburger* does not have this property (and *man* does), hence the oddness of the first sentence above.

We can, in fact, make this observation more generally applicable by trying to determine the crucial component of meaning which a noun must have in order to be used as the subject of the verb *ate.* Such a component may be as general as 'animate being'. We can then take this component and use it to describe part of the meaning of words as either +*animate* (= denotes an animate being) or –animate (= does not denote an animate being).

This procedure is a means of analyzing meaning in terms of **semantic features.** Features such as +*animate,* -*animate*; +*human,* -*human*; +*male,* -*male,* for example, can be treated as the basic features involved in differentiating the meanings of each word in the language from every other word. If you were asked to give the crucial distinguishing features of the meanings of this set of English words (*table, cow, girl, woman, boy, man*), you could do so by means of the following diagram:

	Table	*cow*	*girl*	*woman*	*boy*	*man*
Animate	-	+	+	+	+	+
Human	-	-	+	+	+	+
Male	-	-	-	-	+	+
Adult	-	+	-	+	-	+

From a feature analysis like this, you can say that at least part of the basic meaning of the word *boy* in English involves the components (+*human,* +*male,* -*adult*). You can also characterize that feature which is crucially required in a noun in order for it to appear as the subject of a verb, supplementing the syntactic analysis with semantic features:

The _____ *is reading a book*
N (+*human*)

This approach then gives us the ability to predict what nouns would make the above sentence semantically odd. Examples would be *table,* or *tree,* or *dog,* because they all have the feature (-*human*).

Lexical relations

The approach which has just been outlined is not without problems. For many words in a language it may not be so easy to come up with neat components of meaning. If you try to think of which components or features you would use to distinguish the nouns *advice, threat* and *warning,* for example, you will have some idea of the scope of the problem. Part of the problem seems to be that the approach involves a view of words in a language as some sort of 'containers', carrying meaning-components. Of course, this is not the only way in which we can think of the meaning of words in our language. If you were asked to give the meaning of the word *conceal,* for example, you might simply reply "it's the same as *hide*", or give the meaning of *shallow* as "the opposite of *deep*" , or the meaning of *daffodil* as "it's a kind of *flower*". In doing so, you are not characterizing the meaning of a word in terms of its component features, but in terms of its relationship to other words. This procedure has also

been used in the semantic description of languages and is treated as the analysis of **lexical relations.** The types of lexical relations which are usually appealed to are defined and exemplified in the following sections.

- **Synonymy**
  Synonyms are two or more forms, with very closely related meanings, which are often, but not always, intersubstitutable in sentences. Examples of synonyms are the pairs *broad – wide, hide – conceal, almost – nearly, cab – taxi, liberty – freedom, answer – reply.*
  It should be noted that the idea of 'sameness of meaning' used in discussing synonymy is not necessarily 'total sameness'. There are many occasions when one word is appropriate in a sentence, but its synonym would be odd. For example, whereas the word *answer* fits in this sentence: *Karen had only one answer correct on the test,* its near-synonym, *reply,* would sound odd.

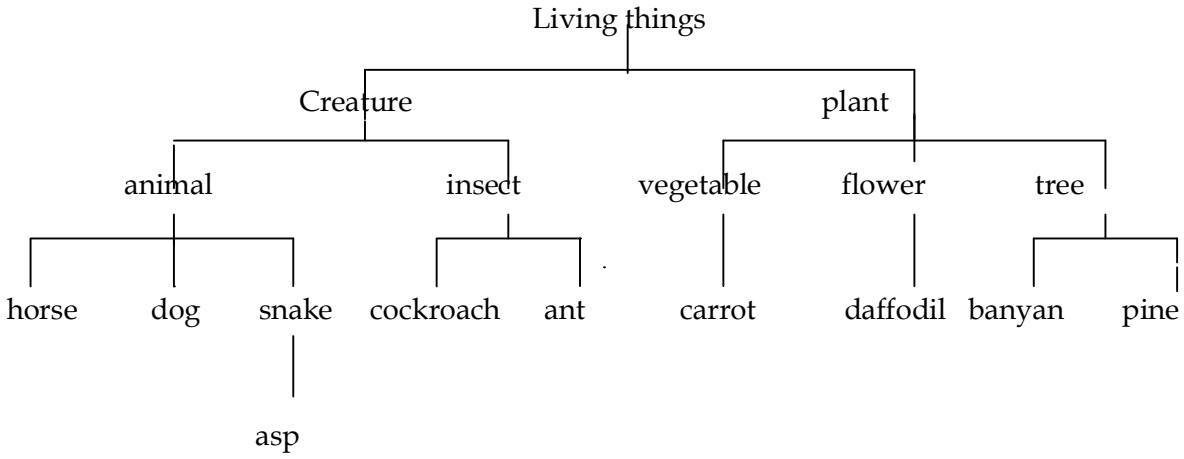
- **Antonymy**
  Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms, and commonly used examples are the pairs *quick – slow, big – small, long – short, old – young, above – below, male – female, alive – dead.*
  Antonyms are usually divided into two types, those which are 'gradable', and those which are 'non – gradable'. **Gradable antonyms** are pairs that describe opposite ends of a continuous scale, such as the pair *big – small,* can be used in comparative constructions *bigger than – smaller than,* and the negative of one member of the pair does not necessarily imply the other. For example, if you say *that dog is not old,* you do not have to mean *that dog is young.* Another example is *hot* and *cold.* Not everything that can be hot or cold is, in fact, either hot or cold. A liquid, for example, may be neither hot nor cold; it can be in between, say, warm or cool. These antonyms do not constitute contradiction but **contrary** relationships. **Non-gradable antonyms,** on the other hand, which also called 'complementary pairs' or **Binary antonyms**, are pairs that exhaust all possibilities along some scale. *Dead* and *alive* are examples of binary antonyms. This is the familiar relationship of **contradiction,** where something and its negation concur. *Dead* and *alive* constitute a contradiction, because *dead* means not *alive.* There is no middle ground between the two. All men, for example, are either dead or alive. Non-gradable antonyms or binary antonyms can also say that comparative constructions are not normally used (the expressions *deader* or *more dead* sound strange), and the negative of one member does imply the other. For example, *that person is not dead* does indeed mean *that person is alive.*

- **Hyponymy**
  When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as **hyponymy,** and some typical example pairs are *daffodil – flower, dog – animal, poodle – dog, carrot – vegetable, banyan – tree.* The concept of 'inclusion' involved here is the

idea that if any object is a *daffodil,* then it is necessarily a *flower,* so the meaning of *flower* is 'included' in the meaning of *daffodil.* Or, *daffodil* is a hyponym of *flower.*

When we consider hyponymous relations, we are essentially looking at the meaning of words in some type of hierarchical relationship. You could, in fact, represent the relationships between a set of words such as *animal, ant, asp, banyan, carrot, cockroach, creature, daffodil, dog, flower, horse, insect, living things, pine, plant, snake, tree* and *vegetable* as a hierarchical diagram in the following way:

Figure 9.1: Illustration of hyponymy



From this diagram, we can say that '*horse* is a hyponym of *animal*' or that '*ant is a hyponym of insect*'. We can also say *that* two or more terms which share the same superordinate (higher up) terms are co-hyponyms. So, *horse* and *dog* are co-hyponyms, and the superordinate term is *animal.*

The relation of hyponymy captures the idea of 'is a kind of, as when you give the meaning of a word by saying "an *asp* is a kind of *snake*". It is often the case that the only think some people know about the meaning of a word in their language is that it is a hyponym of another term. That is, you may know nothing more about the meaning of *asp* other than that it is a kind of *snake.*

- **Homophony, Homonymy, and Polysemy**

There are three other, less well-known terms which are often used to describe relationships between words in a language. The first of these is **homophony.** When two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, they are described as **homophones.** Some examples are, *bare – bear, meat – meet, flour – flower, pail – pale, sew – so.*

The term **homonymy** is used when one form (written and spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings. Examples of homonyms are the pairs *bank* (of a river) – *bank* (financial institution), *pupil* (at school) – *pupil* (in the eye) and *mole* (on skin) – *mole* (small animal). The temptation is

to think that the two types of *bank* must be related in meaning, but they are not. Homonyms are words which have quite separate meanings, but which have accidentally come to have exactly the same form.

Relatedness of meaning accompanying identical form is technically known as **polysemy,** which can be defined as one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings which are all related by extension. Examples are the word *head,* used to refer to the object on top of your body, on top of a glass of beer, on top of a company or department; or *foot* (of person, of bed, of mountain), or *run* (person does, water does, colors do).

The distinction between homonymy and polysemy is not always clear cut. However, one indication of the distinction can be found in the typical dictionary entry for words. If a word has multiple meanings (polysemic), then there will be a single entry, with a numbered list of the different meanings of the word. If two words are treated as homonyms, they will typically have two separate entries. You could check in your dictionary and probably find that the different meanings of words like *head, get, run, face* and *foot* are treated as examples of polysemy, whereas *mail, bank, sole* and *mole* are treated as examples of homonymy.

These last three lexical relations are, of course, the basis of a lot of word-play, particularly used for humorous effect. The Pillsbury Flour Company once took advantage of homophony to promote a brand of flour with the slogan *Everybody kneads it.* And if you have come across this riddle: *Why are trees often mistaken for dogs?,* then you will have encountered the used of homonymy in the answer: *Because of their bark.*

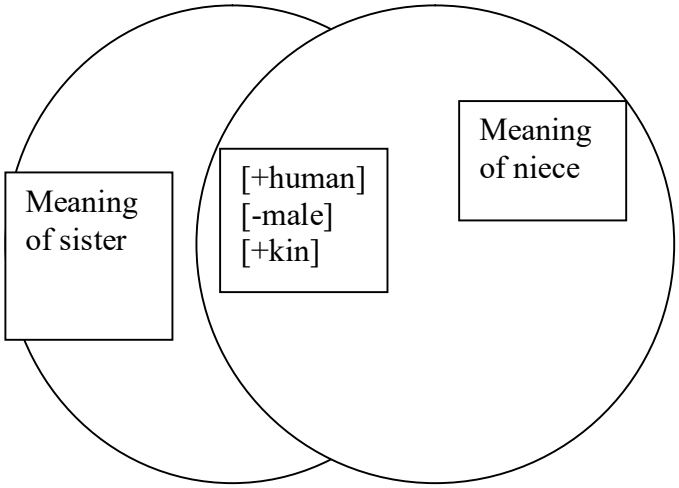
- **Overlap**

Two words **overlap** in meaning if they have the same value for some (but not all) of the semantic features that constitute their meaning. For example, the word *sister, niece, aunt,* and *mother* overlap in meaning. This phenomenon can be accounted for by stating that part of the meaning of each of these words is characterized as (+human/ -male/ +kin). If we were to add the words *nun* and *mistress* to the list above, then the meanings of this set of words would overlap by virtue of the fact that they all marked (+human/ -male). If we were to further add *mare* and *sow* to this list, then the meanings of this would overlap by being marked (-male), and so on. This relationship is displayed in the following diagram.

	Sister	niece	aunt	mother	nun	mistress	mare	sow
(human)	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
(male)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(kin)	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-

It is important, however, to distinguish overlap from hyponymy. With hyponymy, the meaning of one word is entirely included in the meaning of another. (The meaning of *pig* is entirely included in the meaning of *sow;* i.e., all sows are pigs, but not all pigs are sown). With overlap, on the other hand, the meanings of two words intersect, but neither one includes the other. The meanings of *sister* and *niece* intersect, but neither includes the other: Not all sisters are nieces, and not all nieces are sisters. Overlap is schematized in Figure 9.2. below:

Figure 9.2.: Illustration of overlap



Truth

The study of **truth** or truth condition in semantics falls into two basic categories: the study of different types of truth embodied in individual sentences (**analytic, contradictory**, and **synthetic**) and the study of different types of truth relations that hold between sentences (**entailment** and **presupposition**).

- **Analytic Sentences**

An analytic sentence is one that necessarily true as a result of the words in it. For example, the sentence *A bachelor is an unmarried man* is true not because the world is the way it is, but because the English language is the way it is. Part of our knowledge of ordinary English is that *bachelor* "means" *an unmarried man;* thus to say that one *is* the other must necessarily be true. We do need to check on the outside world to verify the truth of this sentence. We might say that analytic sentences are "true by definition". Analytic sentences are sometimes referred to as linguistic truths, because they are true by the virtue of the language itself.

- **Synthetic Sentences**

Sentences that may be true or false depending upon how the world is are called **synthetic.** In contrast to analytic and contradictory sentences, synthetic sentences are not true or false because of the words that comprise them, but rather because they do or do not accurately describe some state of affairs in the world. For example, the sentence *My next door neighbor, Bud Brown, is married* is a synthetic sentence. Note that you cannot judge its truth or falsity by inspecting the words in the sentence. Rather, you must verify the truth or falsity of this sentence empirically, for example, by checking the marriage records at the courthouse. Other examples of synthetic sentences include *Nitrous oxide is blue, Nitrous oxide is not blue, Bud Brown's house has five sides,* and *Bud Brown's house does not have five sides* . In each case, the truth

or falsity of the sentence can be verified only by consulting the state of affairs that holds in the world. Thus, synthetic sentences are sometimes referred to as *empirical truths* or *falsities,* because they are true or false by virtue of the state of the extralinguistic world.

The examples that we have considered so far seem fairly straight forward. Analytic and contradictory sentences are true and false respectively, by definition. Synthetic sentences, however, are not – they must be verified or falsified empirically. Nevertheless, some sentences do not fall neatly into one of these groups. Consider, for example, the sentence *Oxygen is not blue.* It is true. But is it analytic – true by virtue of the words that make it up (i.e., because it just so happens that oxygen has no color)? This can get to be a thorny issue and the experts don't always have a uniform answer to such questions. However, it would be probably be reasonable to treat such cases as synthetic truths rather than analytic truths, at least for the time being. This is because it is easy to imagine conditions under which the sentence *Oxygen is not blue* would be false. For example, suppose scientist froze oxygen and found that solid oxygen is in fact blue. Such a finding would not cause a change in the meaning of the word oxygen, but rather a change in our understanding of the substance oxygen. In contrast, consider the sentence *A colorless gas is not blue.* It is impossible to imagine a situation in which this sentence would be false. If a gas is colorless, it cannot be blue, if it is blue, it cannot be colorless. Thus it seems reasonable at least until more light can be shed on the subject, to consider sentences like *Oxygen is not blue* as synthetically true.

- **Entailment**

One sentence entails another. If the meaning of the first sentence includes the meaning of the second. (Note the similarity between entailment and hyponymy. Just as hyponymy describe an inclusive relation between two words, so entailment describes an inclusive relation between two sentences. The test for entailment is as follows: Sentence (a) entails sentence (b) if the truth of sentence (a) insures the truth of sentence (b) and if the falsity of sentence (b) insures the falsity of sentence (a). Consider the following sentences: (a) *Bill suffered a fatal heart attack* and (b) *Bill is dead.* In this case, sentence (a) entails sentence (b) because the truth of (a) insures the truth of (b) (if Bill suffered a fatal heart attack, he necessarily is dead) and the falsity of (b) insures the falsity of (a) (if Bill is not dead, he necessarily didn't suffer a fatal heart attack). The relationship of entailment is represented schematically Figure 9.3. That is, sentence (a) entails sentence (b) if the truth of (a) insures the truth of (b) and the falsity of (b) insures the falsity of (a).

Note, however, that the relation of entailment is undirectional. For instance, consider our example sentences again, but in the opposite order: (b) *Bill is dead* and (a) *Bill suffered a fatal heart attack.* In this case, sentence (b) does not entail (a) (if Bill is dead, he did not necessarily die of heart attack – he may have died of kidney failure or he may have been hit by a bolt lightning), and the falsity of (a) does not insure the falsity of (b) (if Bill did not suffer a fatal heart attack, it is not necessarily the case that he is not dead – he may , once again, have died of kidney failure or he might have been hit by a bolt of lightning). In short then, it should be clear that the relation of entailment is uninderictional.

This is not to say, however, that there cannot be a pair of sentences such that each entails the other. Rather when such a relation holds, it is called **paraphrase.** For example, the sentences *Biff and Tammy are good scouts* and *Tammy and Biff are good scouts* are paraphrases of each other. Likewise, *Tammy was driven home by Biff* is a paraphrase of *Biff drove Tammy home.*

Figure 9.3. Representation of entailment

- **Presupposition**

One sentence presupposes another if the falsity of the second renders the first without a truth value. A sentence without a trurh value is one that cannot be judged true or false. Questions, for example, are typical of sentences without truth values. What sense would it make to say that a sentence like *Do you have blue eyes?* Is true or false? Likewise, imperatives have no truth value. It wouldn't make any sense to say that a sentence like *Shut up!* Is either true or false.

Now, let's consider an example of presupposition and examine how this concept relies on the notion of "sentence without a truth value". As stated before, one sentence presupposes another if the falsity of the second renders the first without a truth value. Consider the following sentences (a) *Unicorns have horns* and (b) *There are unicorns.* Sentence (a) presupposes (b) because if (b) is false, then (a) has no truth value. Note that if (b) is false – that is, if there are no unicorns – then it doesn't make sense to say that (a) *Unicorns have horns* is true or false. For (a) to be true, there would have to be such things as unicorns and they would have to have horns. On the other hand, for (a) to be false, there would have to be such things as unicorns and they would have to *not* have horns. Consider another example: The sentence *The King of Canada is tall* presupposes the sentence *There is a King of Canada* (or some other sentences expressing the same proposition: The King of Canada exists). Note that if *There is a King of Canada* is false, then *The King of Canada is tall* cannot be judged true or false.

Another property of presupposition is that a sentence and its denial (i.e., the negative version of sentence) have the same set of presuppositions. Thus if sentence (a) *unicorns,* then the denial of sentence (a) *Unicorns do not have horns* also presupposes sentence (b). If there are no unicorns, then *Unicorns do not have horns* also presupposes sentence (b). If there are no unicorns, then *Unicorns do not have horns* cannot be judged true or false.

It might be of some comfort to know that presupposition is a much more slippery concept than entailment. Consequently, more investigators agree on the semantic concept of entailment than on that of presupposition.

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CHAPTER X

PRAGMATICS

Nanik Mariani

Over the years pragmatics has become more and more important branch of linguistics, as the inadequacies of a purely formalist, abstract approach to the study of language has become more evident.

A major factor in sentence interpretation involves a body of knowledge that is often called **pragmatics.** This includes the speaker's and addressee's background attitudes and beliefs, their understanding of the context in which a sentence is uttered, and their knowledge of the way in which language is used to communicate information. As an example of this, consider the following pair of sentences.

1. a) The councilors refused the marchers a parade permit because they feared violence.

   b) The councilors refused the marchers a parade permit because they advocated violence.

These two sentences have identical syntactic structures, differing only in the choice of the verb in the second clause (*feared* in the first sentence vs. *advocated* in the second). Yet, the pronoun *they* is usually interpreted differently in the two sentences. Most people believe that *they* should refer to *the councilors* in (1a). but to *the marchers* in (1b). These preferences seem to have nothing to do with grammatical rules. Rather, they reflect beliefs we have about different groups within our society – in particular, that councilors are more likely to fear violence than to advocate it.

Traugott and Pratt (1980: 230) add another element determining speech situation is that how we conduct a communication. Pragmatics' goal is to understand the reason of a speech, what are the speaker's motif and goal? And no speech without a context. For example, the same sentence may be used for two different purposes in two different context:

2. a) A: Why don't you close that window?
      B: I let it open for Mimi, my cat
   b) A: Why don't you close that window?
      B: That's a good idea. I feel cold myself.

In dialog (2a), the expression "Why don't you close that window" is used merely as a question. A wants to know why B doesn't close a certain window. On the other hand, in dialog (2b) is used as a request. And this dialog, the weather is probably cold and A asks B to close the window.

3. A: How could you do that?
   B: It's very easy. All you need is a high motivation and hard work
4. A: How could you do that?
   B: I'm sorry. I didn't mean it.

In dialog (3), the expression "How could you do that" is used by A to show a mild surprise. It's just a matter of curiosity. While in dialog (4), the same expression is used to show a regret. A doesn't really want to know how B did a certain act, but it is used to show that A is really disappointed with B.

Aspects of Pragmatics:

1. **Performatives**

In 1955, the British philosopher, John L. Austin delivered the William James Lectures at Harvard. (These lecturers were published in 1962 as *How to Do Things with Words*). Austin's fundamental insight was that an utterance can constitute an *act*. That is he was the first to point out that in uttering a sentence, we can do things as well as say things. (Before Austin, philosophers held that sentence were used simply to say things). For example, If I utter the sentence *I have five toes on my right foot.* I am simply saying something about my foot. However, uttering the sentences in (5) constitutes more than just saying something; they constitutes doing something as well.

5. a) I *promise* I'll be there on time.
   b) I *apologize* for the way I acted.
   c) I *name* this "The Good Ship Lollipop."
   d) I *give* and *bequeath* to John L. Jones all my earthly possessions.
   e) I *bet* you $100 that it'll rain before 6:00 p.m.
   f) I now *pronounce* you man and wife.

Note that, if said under the right circumstances, each of the sentences in (5a – f) constitutes the *performance* of an act; (5a) constitute an act of promising; (5b) an act of apologizing; (5c) an act of naming; (5d) an act of giving; (5e) an act of betting; and (5f) an act of marrying. Consequently, the verbs in such sentences are known as *performatives.* Moreover, Austin noted that in order for a verb to be a performative, it must be *present tense* and it must have a *first person subject.* For example, consider sentences (6a – c).

6. a) I *promise* that I won't be late.
   b) I *promised* that I wouldn't be late. (past tense)
   c) John *promises* that he won't be late. (third person subject)

Uttering (6a) constitutes performing an action (i.e, making a promise). On the other hand, uttering (6b) or (6c) constitutes saying something: (6b) reports a past promise, and (6c) reports someone else's promise. Therefore, although (6a – c) all contain the same verb, only (6a) contains a performative.

2. **Speech Acts**

Searle, Kiefer and Bierwisch (1980:3) state that speech act theory firstly introduced by Austin in 1962 is a branch of the theory of communication. When people communicate, they may make a promise, give praise, negotiate, flatter, etc. It means that communication or conversation may fulfill much different function. There

have been many language philosophers taking language function into their consideration. Petrey (1990:1) as one of language philosophers notes that speech act theory addresses language's productive force, which depends entirely on where and when it is used. In other words, this theory examines the power of language in communities. While Searle (1969:6) states that the minimal unit of human communication is not sentence or other expression, but rather the performance of certain kind of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving orders, making a request, apologizing, welcoming, etc. To get success in performing these acts, a speaker has to fulfill a set of rules what he calls felicity conditions.

Austin (1962) devides sentences into constatives and performatives. He argues that words are not only something we use to say things but also to do things. The term constatives are for sentences with their primary function of saying something which may be true or false. For instance, a girl tells her friend, "I bought this nice pen at KOPMA shop." Her sentence is constatives because it tells something, namely, what she did and how she felt. The term performatives is used for sentences with their primary function of doing something. For example, 'betting'. When a speaker tells, "I bet you ten dollars", his utterance constitute a bet and obligate the loser to pay ten dollars to the winner. The attitude of the person performing the linguistic act – his thoughts, feelings, or intentions – is of paramount importance. Whereas the constative utterance is true or false, the performative utterance is felicitous or infelicitous, sincere or insincere, authentic or inauthentic, well invoked or misinvoked. For example, an "I do" at a marriage ceremony is insincere and misinvoked if the speaker is already married and has no intention of abiding by the conditions of the contract.

The utterances can perform three kinds of acts. They are locutionary, Illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. Locutionary act is the act of saying something and illocutionary act is the performance of an act in saying something. The interpretation of the locution is concerned with meaning, it produces an understandable utterance. And the interpretation of the illocution with force, it is informed with a certain tone, attitude, feeling, motive,or intention. Perlocutionary act is the act of producing some effect on the thoughts, feelings, or actions of the audiences, it has an effect upon the addressee. These three components are not altogether separable. For example, that a bartender utters the words, 'the bar will be closed in five minutes,' reported by means of direct quotation, he is thereby performing the locutionary act of saying that the bar (i.e. the one he is tending) will be closed in five minutes (from the time of utterance), and what is said reported by indirect quotation (notice that what the bartender is saying, the content of his locutionary act, is not fully determined by the word he is using, for they do not specify the bar in question or the time of the utterance). In saying this, the bartender is performing the illocutionary act of informing the patrons of the bar's imminent closing and perhaps also the act of urging them to order a last drink. Whereas the upshot of these illocutionary acts is understanding on the part of the audience, perlocutionary

acts are performed with the intention of producing a further effect. The bartender intends to be performing the perlocutionary acts of causing the patrons to believe that the bar is about to close and of getting them to order one last drink. In this case, he is performing all these speech acts, at all three levels, just by uttering certain words.

3. Locutionary, Illocutionary, and Perlocutionary Act

There is the act of utterance as the first level of hierarchy of acts. Language users recognize utterance acts, even in language that is completely unknown, in which they cannot distinguish the sentences, and what speaker's message is. It is done on the basic of brute perception by hearing the utterance spoken, seeing it signed or written, or feeling it impressed in Braille. Linguistics is concerned with utterances in which speaker uses a language expression and thereby performs a **locutionary act**.

Austin (1962:99) defines **locutionary acts** as the act of saying something which has literal meaning. Refering to Austin' notion of the locutionary act, Coulthard (1977:18) defines that locutionary act is the act of saying something in the full sense of 'say' and its interpretation is concerned with meaning of the speaker's utterance. Traugott and Patt (1980:229) define that locutionary act is the act of producing a recognizable grammatical utterance in the language.

In performing a **locutionary act**, a speaker uses and identifiable expression, consisting of sentence or sentence fragment from language, spoken with identifiable prosody which is composed of the pattern of pause, pitch level, stress, tone of voice, and the like; its counterpart in the written medium is punctuation and typography. Normally, a locution demands that the speaker and the hearer have knowledge of the grammar, lexicon, semantics, and phonology of the language.

As an example:

7. He said to me, "Shoot her."

The sentence is imperative. The meaning of "shoot" is shoot and referring by "her" is to her. In conclusion, **locutionary act** is the act of say something that has literal meaning.

Austin (1975:108) defines that basically **illocutionary act** is a linguistic act performed in uttering certain words in given context and its interpretation is concerned with force. Coulthard (1977:19) stresses that the **illocutionary act** is potentially under the control of its speaker. Traugott and Pratt (1980:229) view this act as the attempt to accomplish some communicative purposes such as promising, warning, arguing, announcing a verdict, betting, warning, making appointment, etc. Fraser (1983:35-44) states that we are linguistically communicating when we perform the illocutionary act. The speaker ordinarily intends his hearer to recognize his particular attitudes towards an expressed proposition.

The illocutionary force of an utterance or what is intended by an utterance is dependent on the context and particular utterance may have a different illocutionary force in different context. Leech (1983:208) further states illocutionary meaning is

simultaneously both assertive and directive. For example, a mother tells her teenaged daughter, "This house is like a ruined ship". The utterance may be intended as a claim that the house is very untidy and as an order to clean it up without delay. The utterance means as an excuse when the mother says it to her guest. The mother intends her excuse for making her guest be in frightful mess. Similarly, Hatch (1992:135) states that a single utterance can have more than one function. For example a girl utters, "I am trying to find my purse along the way to his room". Her utterance may be an expression concerning her wondering of losing her purse or a directive requesting another to help her to find it.

Searle (1969:69) points out that there is no clear or consistent principle or set of principle on the basis of which the taxonomy is constructed, and consequently a large number of verbs fail in the middle of the two competing "categories". However, Searle in Pratt (1977:80-81) classifies the illocutionary acts into five basic categories.

(1) *representatives:* **illocutionary acts** that undertake to represent state of affairs, whether past, present, future or hypothetical, e.g. predicting, telling, insisting, suggesting, or swearing that something is the case.

(2) *directive:* **illocutionary acts** designed to get the addressee to do something, e.q. requesting, commanding, ordering, pleading, inviting, daring and challenging.

(3) *commissives:* **illocutionary acts** that commit the speaker to doing something e.g. promising, threatening, vowing and offering.

(4) *expressives:* **illocutionary acts** that express only the speaker's psychological state, e.g. congratulating, thanking, deploring, condoling, welcoming and apologizing.

(5) *declarations:* **illocutionary acts** that bring about the state of affairs they refer to, e.g. blessing, firing, baptizing, bidding, passing sentence.

Van Ek in Hatch (1992:131-132) introduces six categories of speech act based on notional-functional syllabus that differ somewhat from Searle's

1. Importing/seeking factual information: identify, ask, report, say, think *X*.
2. Express/discover intellectual attitudes: state whether you or ask if others agree or disagree, know or don't know, remember or forget, are capable or not capable, consider *X* logical, consider others obliged to do something, ask or give permission, accept or decline an offer or an invitation.
3. Express/inquiry about emotional attitudes: question other's interest or lack of interest, surprise, hope, disappointment, fear or worry, preference, gratitude, sympathy, intention, want or desire.
4. Express/question moral attitudes: express or request apology or forgiveness, approval or disapproval, appreciation, regret.
5. Suassion: suggest, request, invite, instruct, advise or warn someone to (not) do something, offer or request assistance.
6. Socializing: greet, take leave, introduce, attract attention, propose a toast, congratulate, begin a meal.

Reffering to Austin's notion of **perlocutionary act** stated above, Coulthard (1977:18-19) and Pratt (1977:81) define that **perlocutionary act** is the act performed as a consequence of the locutionary and illocutionary acts causing a change in the mind of listener so that he becomes 'alarmed', 'convinced', 'deterred', etc. (Coulthard 1977:18-19; Pratt 1977:81). For example, in saying "*Salak Manjalin* is the best variety of *salak* produced in Bangkalan", the speaker intends to argue that the best variety of *salak* produced in Bangkalan is *salak manjalin*. Simultaneously, by saying it, the speaker intends to produce the effect of convincing the hearer that it is the best variety of *salak* produced in Bangkalan.

On the other hand, Searle (1969:46) argues that it could be the case that many kinds of sentences used to perform illocutionary act have no perlocutionary effect associated with their meaning. Saying "Hello" and "I promise" are the most frequent examples Searle uses to reveal it. When someone says "Hello", he does not intend to produce any state or action on his hearer other than the knowledge that he is being greeted. He further supports Austin's notion saying that the perlocutionary effect is not always the result of illocutionary act intended by the speaker, it may be the unintended one. Austin calls the former perlocutionary objects, and the latter perlocutionary sequel. For example, by saying, "your paper needs improving", a professor intends to make the writer of the paper to make some improvement on the paper (perlocutionary object). Unfortunately, what he says makes the writer annoyed (perlocutionary sequel).

Austin (1962:119) further clarifies the characteristic of perlocutionary acts that they are not conventional. It means that the response achieved or the sequel can be attained by additional or entirely by non-locutionary means: thus intimidation may be reached by waving a stick or pointing a gun. Fraser (1983:54) notes that it is in contrast to illocutionary act which its success is determined by a set of conversational rules called felicity or appropriateness condition, if a perlocutionary effect is intended, there is no conventional way for speaker to guarantee that it will be brought about.

It can be concluded that **perlocutionary acts** are performed by saying something which produces certain effects on the hearers and there is no conventional way guaranteeing the success of its performance.

4. Felicity Conditions

To perform an illocutionary felicitously, it is not enough too utter a grammatical sentence. Searle (1969:66-67) suggest that felicitous performance of an illocutionary act depends on four categories of conditions, These conditions are called **appropriateness condition** or **felicity condition** consisting of propositional content rule, preparatory rule, sincerity rule and essential rule. The detail of the **felicity conditions** on certain types of illocutionary acts are shown in the following tables.

Table 4.1: The Felicity Condition on the Act of Requesting, and Asserting Stating, or Informing

Rules	Request	Assert, state, affirm
Propositional	Future act *A* of *H*	Any proposition *P*
Preparatory	1. H is able to do A S believe *H* is able to do *A* 2. It is not obvious to both *S* and *H* that H will do *A* in The normal course of event of His own	1. S has evidence (reason, etc) for the truth of *P* 2. It is not obvious to both *S* and *H* that H known (does not need to be reminded, etc)*P*
Sincerity	*S* wants H to do *A*	*S* believes *P*
Essential	Counts as an attempt to get H To do *A*	Counts as an undertaking to the effect that P represents as An actual state of affairs
Comment	Order and command have the Additional preparatory rule that *S* must be in position of Authority over *H*	

The propositional content rule on the performance of the act of requesting or ordering deals with futurity of the action (*A*) done by hearer (*H*). the preparatory rule concern with *H*'s ability in doing the action. The sincerity rule concern with the speaker (S) wanting *H* to perform the action. Its essential rule concern with fact that *S* intend his/her utterance as an attempt to get *H* to perform the ordered or requested act.

The propositional content rule on the act of stating, asserting, or informing carries the content of *S*'s utterance. It has to contain something to assert, to state or to inform. The preparatory rules on the act concern with the truth of the *S*'s utterance and whether *H* needs it. The essential rule concern with *S*'s belief in what he/she says. The essential rule on the act deals with the fact that *S* intend his/her utterance as an effort to express the actual state of matter.

Table 4.2: The Felicity Conditions on the Act of Questioning and Warning

Rules	Question	Warn
Propositional Content	Any proposition or propositional function	Future event or state, etc *E*
Prepatory	1. *S* does not know 'the Answer' i.e., does not know if The proposition is true, or, in the case of the propositional function, does not know information needed to complete the proposition truly	1. *H* has reason to believe *E* will occur and is not in *H*'s interest 2. It is not obvious to both *S* and *H* that *E* will occur

Sincerity	*S* want the information	*S* believes *E* is not in *H*'s best interest
Essential	Counts as an attempt to elicit The information from *H*.	Counts as an unsertaking to the effect that *E* not in *H*' best interest

The propositional content rule on the act of questioning requires that a speaker's (*S*) utterance constitutes *S*'s asking something to his/her (*H*). Its preparatory rule concern with condition of *S*, e.g. *S*'s not knowing the answer of what he/she asks and) and with condition of *H*, e.g. *H*'s not giving the information needed by *S* without being asked. The sincerity rule on the act concern with *S*'s sincerity in asking something to his/her hearer. The essential deals with *S*'s intention in questioning that is *S*'s intending his/her utterance as an effort to elicit information from *H*.

The propositional content rule on the performance of the act warning deals with the content of *S*'s utterance that has predicate the futurity of an event (*E)*. the preparatory rules concern with the condition of surrounding e.g. the futurity of the occurance of *E* and its badness for *H*. the sincerity rule concerns with *S*'s belief in the badness of *E* for *H*. the essential rule requires that *S*'s utterance counts as an undertaking of expressing the badness of *E* and *H*.

Table 4.3: The Felicity Condition on The Act of Promising and Advising

Propositional Content	Future act *A* of *S*	Future act *A* of *H*
Preparatory	1. *H* would prefer *S*'s doing *A* To his not doing *A* 2. *S* believes *H* would prefer *S*'s doing *A* to his not doing *A*	1. *S* has some reason to believe *S* will benefit *H* 2. It is obvious to both *S* and *H* that *H* will do *A* in the normal Course of events
Sincerity	*S* intends to do *A*	*S* believes *A* will benefit *H*
Essential	*S* intends that the utterance or Sentence *T* will take place him Under an obligation to do *A*	Counts as an undertaking to the effect that *A* is in *H*'s best interest

The propositional content rule on the act of promising deals with the content of a speaker's *(S)* utterance. The utterance has to predicate *S*'s future action (*A*). the preparatory rule concern with a hearer's (*H*) preference for *A*. the sincerity rule concern with *S*'s sincerity in uttering his/her promise. The essential rule concern with *S*'s sense of responsibility for doing *A*.

The propositional content rule on the act of advising deals with the content of *S*'s utterance that has predicate *H*'s future action (*A*). The preparatory rule concerns with *S*'s reasons for believing the benefit of *A* for *H* and *H*'s not doing *A* without being asked. The

sincerity rule is about *S*'s belief of *A* for *H*. the essential rule concern with essence of *S*'s undertaking of expressing what is best for *H*.

In certain situation, it is possible that one or more the felicity conditions is violated. For example, an English teacher for students of agriculture faculty order her students to do experimental work of genetics. Her act of ordering the students is infelicitous because she is not in position of authority over the student in term of genetic subject matter. It means that her performance of the act, ordering, violates one of the preparatory rules.

In conclusion, in performing an illocutionary act, people perform it with an illocutionary force. The illocutionary acts can be classified into five categories, representatives, directive, commisive, expressive and declaration. The non-defective performance of the illocutionary acts is determined by four felicity condition suggested by Searle : propositional content rule, preparatory rule, sincerity rule and essential rules. However, the conditions are possibly unfulfilled in certain situation.

5. Cooperative Principles

HP. Grice (1967) had an influential intuition that language is based on a form of cooperation among the speakers. For language to be meaningful, both the speaker and the hearer must cooperate in the way they speak and in the way they listen. Because communication has been perceived as a cooperation between the speaker and the hearer. Assumption and expectation about any topic and how to develop the communication are allotted between both the speaker and the hearer. It is supported by Grice's principle which has been described as Cooperative Principle (CP). Levinson (1983:101) states that, "The Cooperative Principle makes our contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which we are engaged".

Cooperative Principle is used as a guide for the speaker and the hearer in a verbal interaction so that it can go on smoothly and harmoniously. Misunderstanding, even failure in verbal interaction often occur because people merely have little proficiency in implicature. According to Grice, cooperative behavior in conversation can be described in terms of four conversational maxims:

1. Maxim of Quantity : try making your contribution just as informative as required and no more.
   - (i) Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange.
   - (ii) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
2. Maxim of Quality : try to make your contribution one that is true.
   - (i) Do not say what you believe to be false.
   - (ii) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
3. Maxim of Relevance: be relevant.
   - (i) Make your contributions relevant.
   - (ii) Says things that are pertinent to the discussion.

4. Maxim of Manner : be perspicuous, and specific.

(i) Avoid obscurity of expression.

(ii) Avoid ambiguity.

(iii) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

(iv) Be orderly.

The maxims of the Cooperative Principle can be used to describe how participants in a conversation derive implicature. For example, X is standing by an obviously immobilized car and is approach by Y.

8. X : I am out of petrol

Y : There is a garage around the corner.

X can conclude from Y's reaction that Y means that there is a garage around the corner that is open and sells gasoline. Y, however, has not mentioned these facts. X can only make these assumptions if she/he assumes that Y is acting in accordance with the Cooperative Principle and is adhering to the maxim of relevance.

As the maxims stand, there may be an overlap, as regards the length of what one says, between the maxims of quantity and manner; this overlap can be explained by thinking of the maxim of quantity in terms of units of information. In other words, if the listener needs, let us say, five units of information from the speaker, but gets less or more than the expected number, then the speaker is breaking the maxim of quantity. However, if the speaker gives the five required units of information, but is either too curt or long-winded in conveying them to the listener, then the maxim of manner is broken. An utterance understood literally seems to break one or more of the maxims, the utterer is nevertheless assumed to be obeying the cooperative principle, and the utterance interpreted in such a way that none of the maxims are broken..

In the following conversation, speaker B seems to be breaking the maxim of quantity:

9. A : Do you like John and Barbara?

B : I like John.

It can be interpreted that B's answer as suggesting that she/he does not like Barbara.

The Cooperative Principle is of particular interest when speakers do not follow it or break the maxim which Grice himself used the latter term, to flout a maxim, to describe situations in which a maxim is being deliberately disobeyed, with the intention that the hearer recognize that.

The reason why what one says makes sense in spite of some missing elements, is that these elements have been implicated, and these so-called *implicatures* are made possible by the cooperative behavior of the speaker and hearer. As these implicatures arise out of the observance or contravention of what Grice has called the conversational maxims, he has termed the "Conversational Implicatures".

6. Conversational Implicature

Studying the pragmatic aspects can be used to follow up the development of pragmatics itself as a linguistics study. Among the pragmatic aspects, implicature is one of the most important aspects in pragmatics . An implicature is a proposition hat is implied in an utterance in a context even though that proposition is neither a part nor an entailment of what was actually said. Grice distinguishes two types of implicature, depending on how they arise, conventional and conversational implicature (Gazdar, 1979: 38). Conventional implicatures are determined by linguistic constructions in the utterance. While conversational implicatures follow from maxims of truthfulness, informativeness, relevance and clarity that speakers are assumed to observe. As experts say, the concept of conversational implicature of Grice is one of the most important idea in pragmatics, which its function is to support the conversation to run smoothly.

An inferential process bears conversational implicature when the hearer does not catch the whole utterances that the speaker says. On the other hand, the speaker is sure of what he said and let the hearer believe in something and he did not do anything to stop the hearer from thinking it.

The salience of the concept of implicature in pragmatics is due to a number of sources. First, implicature stands as a paradigmatic example of the nature and power of pragmatic explanations of linguistic phenomena. Second, implicature provides some explicit account of how it is possible to mean more than what is actually said. Third, the notion of implicature seems likely to affect substantial simplifications in both the structure and the content of semantic descriptions. Fourth, implicature seems to be simply essential if various basic facts about language are to be accounted for properly, for example, particles like *well, anyway, by the way* require some meaning specification in a theory of meaning just like all the other words in English; but when we come to consider what their meaning is, we shall find ourselves referring to the pragmatic mechanisms that produce implicatures. Finally, the principles that generate implicatures have a very general explanatory power: a few basic principles provide explanations for a large array of apparently unrelated facts. For example:

10. P : Can you tell me the time?
    Q : Well, the milkman has come.

Conventionally, both sentences in the above conversation are not related each other, but the second speaker (Q) has known that the answer he gave can be clear and understood by the first speaker (P) because (Q) thinks that (P) knows what time the milkman usually comes. That conversation can be exchanged as follows:

11. P : Do you have the ability to tell me the time?
    Q : [pragmatically interpreted particle] the milkman came at some time prior to the time of speaking.

It is clear to native speakers that what would ordinarily be communicated by such an exchange involves considerably more, along the lines of the italicized material in (12):

12. P: Do you have the ability to tell me the time *of the present moment, as standardly indicated on a watch, and if so please do so tell me.*

Q: *No, I don't know the exact time of the present moment, but I can provide some information from which you may be able to conclude the approximate time, namely* 'the milkman has come'.

Clearly the whole point of the exchange, namely a request for specific information and an attempt to provide as much of that information as possible, is not directly expressed in (11) at all; so the gap between what is literally *said* in (11) and what is conveyed in (12) is so substantial that cannot be expected from a semantic theory to provide more than a small part of an account of how to communicate in using language. The notion of conversational implicature promises to bridge the gap by giving some account of how the italicized material in (12) are effectively conveyed.

The following sentences (13) and (14) are used as an illustration of the third salience:

(13) The lone ranger jumped on his horse and rode into the sunset.

(14) The capital of France is Paris and the capital of England is London.

The sense of *and* in (13) and (14) seems to be rather different: in (13) it seems to mean 'and then' but in (14) there is no 'and then' sense; and here seems to mean just the same parallel sense.

The simplification of the structures and the content of semantic description in conversational implicature can be seen clearly in the following example (15) and example (16):

(15) Maybe there is a life in the moon.

(16) Maybe there is a life in the moon and maybe there is not a life in the moon.

Based on the study of conversational implicature, sentence (15) has had the meaning which content as well as in sentence (16). Beside the structures, the content of the sentence (16) can be more simply stated as on the sentence (15).

Grice (in Levinson, 1983: 114-118) states that there are five characteristic properties of conversational implicature. Firstly, in a certain situation, conversational implicature can be either cancelled explicitly or contextually (**cancelable**). Implicatures can just disappear when it is clear from the context of utterance that such an inference could not have been intended as part of the utterance's full communicative import.. Secondly, there is no detachment between conversational implicature and the way to utter something (**non-detachable**). By this Grice means that the implicature is attached to the semantic content of what is said, not to linguistic form, and therefore implicatures cannot be detached from an utterance simply by changing the words of the utterance for synonyms. In other words, conversational implicature is usually used if there is no perfect way to say it so that the speaker will use the utterances embedding conversational implicature. Thirdly, implicatures are non-conventional, that is, not part of the conventional meaning of linguistic expressions. It means, conversational implicature is requiring the conversational meaning of the sentence used, but the content of the conversational implicature is not included in the conventional meaning of that sentence (**non-conventional**). Fourthly, it's called calculable. That is to say, for every putative implicature it should be possible to construct an argument which is showing how from the

literal meaning or the sense of the utterance on the one hand, and the co-operative principle and the maxims on the other, it follows that an addressee would make the inference in question to preserve the assumption of co-operation. In other words, the truth of the conversational implicature's content does not depend on what is said, but can be calculated how the action will say what is said (**calculable**). Finally, the content of the conversational implicature cannot be given the determined specific explanation. So implicatures can have a certain indeterminacy in at least some cases, incompatible with the stable determinate senses usually assumed in semantic theories (**indeterminate**).

The concept of implicature which asserted by Grice is the concept or the theory of how the people use the language. He states that the conversation is guided by a set of assumptions. Those assumptions are based on the rational consideration and can be formulated as a guidance in using the language effectively and efficiently in a conversation. The guidance is called a conversational maxim or general principles which guide the use of language efficiently based on the cooperation. The set of conversational maxims is described as Cooperative Principle (CP).

Conclusion

The issues of pragmatics can therefore be summarized essentially in relationship between language and context (particularly the participants) that are basic to an account of language understanding, because context is the key element of pragmatic studies. The purpose of a speech in a given context is to generate some kind of action. There is an intention to speech and to the way the speech is structured. Pragmatic meaning is concerned not with the truth values of sentences but with the success of communicative acts. Many areas of meaning cannot be handled without reference to context / implicatures. (Grice's theory: Communication is a cooperative activity, and any utterance is assumed to comply with the principles of cooperative interaction).

In this chapter we also learned about some aspects of pragmatics, such as Performatives, Speech acts, Locutionary Acts, Illocutionary Acts, Perlocutionary Acts, Felicity Condition, Cooperative Principles, and Conversational Implicatures.

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Chapter XI

DISCOUSE ANALYSIS

Yusuf Al Arief

Discourse analysis is sometimes defined as 'outside the sentence' language analysis. This contrasts with the more typical types of analysis of modern linguistics, which are mainly related to grammar studies: the study of smaller language bits, such as sounds (phonetics and phonology), word parts (morphology), meaning (semantics), and word order in sentence (syntax). Discourse analysts study larger pieces of language as they flow together (Tannen, Linguistic Society of America, 2019) .

Some discourse analysts consider the larger context of discourse to understand how it influences the meaning of the sentence. For example, Charles Fillmore shows that two sentences put together as a single discourse can have different meanings from each sentence taken separately. As an illustration, he asks you to imagine two independent signs in a swimming pool: "Please use the toilet, not the pool," said one. The others announced, "Pool for members only." If you consider each sign independently, they seem quite reasonable. But combining the two as one discourse makes you come back and revise your interpretation of the first sentence after you read the second.

Discourse and Frame

'Reframe' is a way to talk about returning and reinterpreting the meaning of the first sentence. Frame analysis is a type of discourse analysis that asks, what activities do the speakers do when they say this? What do they think they are doing by speaking this way at this time ? Consider how difficult it is to understand what you hear or read if you don't know who is speaking or what the general topic is. When you are reading a newspaper, you need to know whether you are reading news, editorials, or advertisements to interpret the text you are reading correctly. Many years ago, when the Orson Welles radio drama "The War of the Worlds" was broadcast, some listeners were late listening to panic, thinking they heard the end of the real world. They think the frame for news is not drama.

Taking a turn

Conversation is a company where one person talks, and another listens. Discourse analysts who study conversation note that the speaker has a system to determine when someone's turn ends and the next person's turn starts. This turn or 'floor' exchange is characterized by linguistic means such as intonation, pauses, and phrases. Some people wait for a clear pause before starting to talk, but others assume that 'subsiding' is an invitation to other people to come down to the floor. When the speaker has different assumptions about how the turn exchanges are signaled, they may inadvertently interfere or feel disturbed. On the other hand, speakers often take the floor even though they know other speakers haven't invited them to do so.

Hearing can also be marked in various ways. Some people expect to nod often and listeners' feedback like 'mhm', 'uhuh', and 'yeah'. Less than this you expect can create the impression that someone is not listening; more than you expect can give the impression that you are in a hurry. For some people, eye contact is expected to be almost continuous; for others, it should only be intermittent. The type of listener response that you can can change the way you talk: If someone doesn't seem interested or doesn't understand (whether they really are) or not, you can slow down, repeat, or explain excessively, giving the impression that you're 'downplaying'. Frederick Erickson has shown that this can occur in conversations between black and white speakers, due to different habits with respect to showing the listener.

Discourse Markers

'Discourse markers' are terms that linguists give to small words like 'good', 'oh', 'but', and 'and' which break our conversation into parts and show the relationship between parts. 'Oh' prepares the listener for something that is surprising or just remembered, and 'but' indicates that the sentence that is followed is contrary to the previous one. However, this marker does not always mean what the dictionary means. Some people use 'and' just to start new thoughts, and some people use 'but' at the end of their sentences, as a way to finish it gently. Realizing that these words can serve as important discourse markers to prevent the frustration that can be experienced if you expect each word to have its dictionary meaning every time it is used.

Speech analysis does not ask what the form of speech is but what it functions. Saying "Now I say man and wife" enforces marriage. Learning speech acts such as praise allows discourse analysts to ask what is considered praise, who gives praise to whom, and what functions they can serve. For example, linguists have observed that women are more likely to praise and get it. There are also cultural differences; in India, politeness demands that if someone compliments one of your possessions, you must offer to give the item as a gift, so praise can be a way to ask for something. An Indian woman who had just met the wife of his son from America was surprised to see his new daughter-in-law praise the beautiful sari. He commented, "What kind of girl is he marrying? He wants everything!" By comparing how people in different cultures use language, discourse analysts hope to contribute to increasing cross-cultural understanding.

UTTERANCE, TEXT AND DISCOURSE

What is utterance?

Utterance is considered as the smallest unit of speech. This can be defined as "natural language units that are limited by breath or pause." As such, it does not always mean complete meaning. Therefore, utterance can be in the form of clauses, one word, pauses, and even meaningful statements.

However, unlike sentences that can be in oral and written form, utterance only exists in oral form. However, they can be represented and described in written form using many methods. utterance, because it occurs mainly in oral speech, has several related features such as facial expressions, movements, and posture. These include stress, intonation, and tone of voice, as well as ellipsis, which are words that the listener enters in verbal language to fill the gap. In addition, utterances can also include voiced / unmute pauses such as "umm", tag questions, false beginnings, fillers like "etc.", deictic expressions like "there" with other simple words like "and," But, " etc.

In addition, "We use the term 'utterance' to refer to a complete communicative unit, which can consist of one word, phrase, clause and combination of clauses spoken in context, different from the term 'sentence' we ordered for units consisting of at least one main clause and the accompanying subordinate clause, and marked with punctuation (capital letters and full stop) in writing. " (Carter & McCarthy, 2008)

Therefore some examples of utterances can be:

"Umm, what am I ... No, don't mind."

"Yes, you know ... Errr"

What is Text?

Text includes some information, especially in written or printed form. Thus, it should be noted that the agent of a text is not important: there may or may not be an agent. And agents do not have a direct impact of the content on readers. For example, consider text in a subject textbook, essay, or press release where the information is only reported with or without an agent or speaker. The information presented in the text is usually not interactive, or does not contain indicative speech utterances. Thus, the reader only reads and is aware of the facts presented. As defined by the term Linguistic glossary, the text is "a sequence of paragraphs that represent an extended unit of speech." Therefore, grammatical cohesion is a fundamental factor in a text.

To analyze the contents of the text, one must be aware of the categories of language and grammar, and the information provided is in accordance with the meaning, the grammatical tools used, structure, meaning, etc. Therefore, by analyzing the overall structure of the text, one can understand the meaning of the text. Thus, textual analysis, in short, is a grammatical analysis of these cohesive sentences, which provides some information.

What is Discourse?

Discourse must be interactive, which means there is always an agent for information in the discourse. Simply stated, discourse is often a communication between people. Therefore, under linguistics and literary theory, discourse is defined as "social events of multiple layers of communication in various media: verbal, textual, visual and audial, which have interactive social goals."

Thus, interactive quality is a key requirement in discourse. In other words, the existence of an agent for information determines what discourse means. Therefore, unlike texts, discourse can have cohesive sentences as well as communication agent sayings . In other words, discourse describes the use of language for social purposes. This is the basic difference between text and discourse.

Therefore, to analyze a discourse, one must study the people or agents involved in communication (who to whom), their goals (social goals), and the media used (verbal, written, audio or visual). Thus, to understand the meaning of discourse, one must analyze these three basic elements in discourse.

Difference between Text and Discourse

The difference between text and discourse (Hardison, 2011) can be summarized as follows:

Definition

Text is usually in the form of written communication information, which is non-interactive. Conversely, discourse can come from oral, written, visual and audial forms, communicating information that is interactive.

Agent

Agent is not important for text. However, the agent is important, and that is the discourse. This is the main difference between text and discourse.

Nature

Also, the text is non-interactive; on the contrary, discourse is interactive.

Analysis Section

In a text, grammatical cohesion and sentence structure are analyzed while, in discourse, the agents involved in communication, social goals and the media used are analyzed to understand that meaning. This is an important difference between text and discourse.

Medium or Form

Furthermore, text is usually in written form while discourse can be in written, verbal, visual or audio form.

Example:

Examples of texts include press reports, road signs, documents, etc. Whereas discourse can take the form of dialogue, conversation, interaction in audio-visual programs, etc., anything that describes the social use of language.

CLASSIFICATION OF DISCOURSES

The discourse is written or oral communication. Discourse can also be described as an expression of thought through language. While discourse can refer to the smallest communication act, the analysis can be very complex. Some scholars in various disciplines theorize about the various types and functions of discourse. The word discourse comes from the Latin word discursus, which means "running to and fro." The definition of discourse thus originates from the physical act of transferring information "to and fro," the way a runner might. While every act of communication can be considered as an example of discourse, some scholars have divided the discourse into four main types: argument, narration, description, and exposition. Many communication actions include more than one of these types in rapid succession.

a) Argument: A form of communication intended to convince the audience that the writer or speaker is correct, using evidence and reason.
b) Narration: This form of communication tells a story, often by involving emotion and empathy.
c) Description: A form of communication that relies on the five senses to help the audience visualize something.
d) Exposition: Exposition is used to inform the audience about something with a relatively neutral language, that is, it is not intended to persuade or arouse emotions.

Other literary scholars have divided the types of discourse into three categories: expressive, poetic, and transactional.

a) Expressive: Expressive discourse consists of creative, but non-fiction literary writing actions. This can include memoirs, letters or online blogs.
b) Poetry: Poetic discourse consists of creative fiction writing. Poetic discourse includes novels, poetry and drama. These types of work often prioritize emotions, images, themes, and character development, as well as the use of literary tools such as metafunctions and symbolism.
c) Transactional: Transactional discourse is used to push things into action, such as advertisements that motivate customers to buy, or show customers how to use products through manuals. This type of discourse is generally not very dependent on literary tools.

Significance of Discourse in Literature

Any type of discourse is one of the most important elements of human behavior and formation. Much research has been done on the way the brain shapes thoughts into words and, indeed, the way communication forms the brain. Many studies specifically target the way different language speakers understand concepts differently. Thus, the creation and dissemination of discourse is the most important for the survival of humanity. Literature is one of the main ways to maintain the discourse record and create new ways to understand the world. By reading texts from other cultures and other time periods, we are better able to understand the way of thinking of the authors of these texts. Indeed, reading literature from

our own culture can further highlight the way we think and interact. Because every literary work ever made is an example of discourse, our understanding of discourse is very important to our understanding of literature.

CONTEXT, INTERPRETATION AND INTUITION

Context

In understanding information from direct arrangements around an item in the text and which provides information that can be used to understand the meaning of an item. Such instructions may be lexical or grammatical. In the context of context, instructions include verbal, paralinguistic, and non-verbal signs that help the speaker understand the full meaning of the speaker's words in the context.

Communication occurs in a context that offered help to the understanding through things like situations and settings, visual clues, gestures and actions. In such situations students can better utilize top-down processing to deduce meaning. At the same time the speaker can communicate less explicitly because many meanings are known from the context.
The meant the linguistic items have in the context of, for example, the word has w ithin a certain sentence, or sentence has in particular paragraph. The question Do you know the meaning of war? For example, it might have two different contextual meanings:
"Do you know the meaning of the word war?" when said by the language teacher to the student's class will be different from a soldier. It probably means that War results in death, injury and suffering, when a wounded soldier tells a politician who supports war.

Interpretation

Interpretation is t he act or explain or interpret the results of something: how s omething explained or understood. Interpretation involves the act of finding meaning that involves three stages: finding literal meaning based on semantic information, finding explicature or basic interpretations of utterance using contextual information and world knowledge, and discovering implicature or what is implied by utterance in its particular context.

Intuition

Intuition is a process that gives us the ability to know things directly without analytical reasons, bridging the gap between the conscious and unconscious parts of our minds, and also between instincts and reason. Our discomfort with the idea of relying on our instincts is based on thousands of years of cultural prejudice.
Our intuition comes from our spiritual core and can be felt first in the solar plexus area. Intuition waves travel to the hindbrain, where they are encoded into images and then passed on to the frontal brain, where speech, action, and thought arise. The solar plexus - also called the celiac plexus - is a complex system of radiating nerves and ganglia. It was found in the stomach hole in front of the aorta. It's part of the sympathetic nervous system.

Simply put, we can say that knowledge is the ability to know something without evidence. Sometimes it is known as "gut feeling," "instinct," or "sixth sense." ... Like our ability to think, sometimes our intuition is accurate and sometimes not.

APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE

Pragmatics

Pragmatics are sub-fields of linguistics and semiotics that study the ways in which context contributes to meaning. Pragmatics includes speech act theory, conversational implicature, conversation in interaction and other approaches to language behavior in philosophy, sociology, linguistics and anthropology (Mey, 2001) . Unlike semantics, which examines conventional or "coded" meanings in certain languages, pragmatics studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistic knowledge (grammar, lexicon, etc.) From speakers and listeners, but also in the context of speech, (Linguistic Society, 2017) any pre-existing knowledge about those involved, the intentions concluded from the speaker, and other factors . In that case, pragmatics explains how language users can overcome apparent ambiguity because meaning depends on the way, place, time, etc. of speech (Mey, 2001) . The ability to understand the meaning intended by other speakers is called pragmatic competence (Kim & et.al, 2002) .

Fields of Study

There are several areas of concern for pragmatists, such as:

a. The study of the meaning of the speaker does not focus on the phonetic form or grammar of the speech but on what the speaker intends and believes.
b. The study of meaning in context and the effect that context has on message. This requires knowledge of the speaker's identity, and the place and time of the speech.
c. The study of implicature: things that are communicated although not explicitly disclosed.
d. Study the relative distances, both social and physical, between the speaker to understand what determines the choice of what is said and what is not said .
e. The study of what is not intended, as opposed to the intended meaning: what is unspoken and unintentional, or unintentional.
f. Information structure, the study of how speech is marked to efficiently manage the common ground of entities referred to between speaker and listener
g. Formal Pragmatics, the study of aspects of meaning and usage whose context of use is an important factor using formal semantic methods and objectives.

Six functions of the Jakobson language

Roman Jakobson, extending Karl Bühler's work, described the six "constitutive factors" of a speech program, each of which represents the r privilege of an appropriate function, and only one which is referential (in context). speech program). The six constitutive factors and their corresponding functions are described below.

Context

Message

Addresser----------Addressee

Contact

Code

Jakobson states that there are six language functions. The description can be seen as follows:

Poetic

Emotive----------Conative

Phatic

Metalingual

The description of each function is as follows:

(1) Referential functions relate to Context factors and describe situations, objects or mental conditions. Descriptive statements of referential functions can consist of definite descriptions and deictic words, for example "Autumn leaves have all fallen now."

(2) Expressive functions (alternatively called "emotive" or "affective") relate to Addressers and are best exemplified by interjections and other voice changes that do not change the denotative meaning of speech, but add information about the internal state of the Addresser (speaker). , e.g. "Wow, what a great view!"

(3) Conative functions involve the recipient directly and are best illustrated by vocatives and imperatives, such as "Tom! Enter and eat!"

(4) The Poetic function focuses on "the message for its own interests" and is the operating function in poetry and slogans.

(5) The Phatic function is the language for interaction and is therefore associated with the Contact factor. Phatic functions can be observed in greetings and casual discussions about the weather, especially with strangers.

(6) Metalingual function (or called "metalinguistic" or "reflexive") is the use of language (which Jakobson called "Code") to discuss or describe itself.

Interactional Sociolinguistics

Interactional sociolinguistics is a linguistic sub-discipline that uses discourse analysis to learn how language users create meaning through social interaction (Tannen, An Introduction to Language and Lingusitics, 2006) . This is one way in which linguists see the intersection of human language and human society ; Other subfields that take this perspective are language planning, study of minority languages, quantitative sociolinguistics, and sociohistorical linguistics, among others (Tannen, Sociolinguistics, 1992) . Interactional sociolinguistics is a theoretical and methodological framework in the discipline of linguistic anthropology, which combines linguistic methodology with cultural considerations of anthropology to understand how language use informs social and cultural interactions.

Interactional sociolinguistics was founded by linguistic anthropologist John J. Gumperz (Tannen, An Introduction to Language and Lingusitics, 2006) (Gumperz, 1982) . Topics that might benefit from Interactional sociolinguistic analysis include: cross-cultural miscommunication, politeness, and framing.

In terms of research methods, interactional sociolinguistics analyzes recorded conversations or other audio or video interactions. Regarding discourse analysis methodology, where examples of interactional sociolinguistics can be isolated, there are many ways in which language can be analyzed. Although Gumperz pioneered the framework works a few decades ago it was still being used by today's anthropologists in their study.

Often researchers will focus on specific linguistic components. Some focus on the use of certain words including connotation and indexicality. An example of an anthropologist who uses this type of methodology in his work is Deborah Schiffrin who isolates 12 words for analysis in his study of the Jewish community and the use of his speech in Philadelphia (Schiffrin, 1987) . Linguistic analysis, methods such as examining the linguistic structure and the role it plays in conversation discourse, play a large role in using discourse analysis to build a relational framework (Schiffrin, 1987) . Analysis does not only focus on linguistic forms such as words, sentences, grammar, phonology, etc. But also on subtle cues such as prosody and registers which signify contextual presumptions.

Linguistic based analysis is not the only component that is useful for building examples of Interactional sociolinguistics. Culture also plays a big role in understanding this phenomenon. Many linguistic anthropologists understand that language and culture are not separate entities, but are actually processes that work together (Ahearn, 2012). These contextualization cues are culturally specific and are usually not realized.

Linguistic anthropology helps explain implied cultural features that are often unknown to the speakers. When participants in a conversation come from different cultural backgrounds , they may not recognize these subtle cues in each other's speech, which leads to misunderstanding (Gumperz, 1982) . This notion of misunderstanding, contextualization and culture has been explored using Gumperz's framework of Interactional sociolinguistics. One of the main ways the Gumperz framework is often used is in the context of jokes and how, when and why they are used by certain cultures in conversation.

One anthropologist who has conducted research using the interactional sociolinguistic methodology is Catherine Evans Davies. He uses his ethnographic research to understand how early language learners began to understand social interactions in that language by using jokes in conversations with native speakers (Davies, 2003) . In his work he discusses the usefulness of Gumperz's theory in his methodology because it emphasizes the analysis of conversations for the purpose of interpreting different linguistic practices, in this case humor and jokes. Jokes, and humor are not the only areas where interactional sociolinguistic discourse analysis is useful. This is a valid and effective research framework for anyone interested in how language interacts with culture and meaning. Karen Grainger uses it in her work which involves relationships between elderly caregivers. In her article Orientation on Reality in Institutions for the Elderly: Perspectives on Interactional Sociolinguistics, Karen

Grainger uses Interactional sociolinguistics to push back towards an older therapeutic process called " Reality Orientation ." (Grainger, 1998) In this work Grainger uses discourse analysis to examine several texts and ways of speaking that are followed by therapists. Utilizing the Gumperz framework in this way which shows that this type of therapy might create a greater gap between patients and staff. Here Grainger uses Interactional sociolinguistics to understand how power structures are established and maintained, intentionally or not. The theories behind interactional sociolinguistics have no limits on the fields and fields of study they can apply, because they provide answers to questions that always exist about the relationship between culture and language.

Ethnography of Communication

Ethnography of communication (EOC), originally called speech ethnography, is the analysis of communication in the broader context of social and cultural practices and the beliefs of members of a particular culture or speech community (Hymes, Introduction: Towards Ethnography of Communication, 1964) . This is a method of discourse analysis in linguistics that refers to the field of ethnographic anthropology. Unlike proper ethnography, the EOC takes into account both the communicative form, which may include but is not limited to spoken language, and its function in a given culture (Cameron, 2001) .

The general objectives of this qualitative research method include the ability to find out which actions and / or communication codes are important for different groups , what types of meanings the group applies to various communication activities, and how group members learn these codes, to provide insight into certain community. This additional insight can be used to improve communication with group members, understand group members' decisions, and distinguish groups from one another, among others.

Ethnography of Communication Origin

Dell Hymes proposes communication ethnography as an approach to analyze patterns of language use in speech communities, to provide support for his idea of communicative competence, which is a reaction to Noam Chomsky's difference between linguistic competence and linguistic performance (Hymes, Foundations in Sociolinguistics: A Ethnographic Approach 8. Ed, 1976) .

Originally created "speaking ethnography" in the 1962 eponymous paper by Dell Hymes, it was redefined in his 1964 paper, Introduction: Towards Communication Ethnography to accommodate the characteristics of non-vocal and non-verbal communication (Hymes, Introduction: Towards Ethnography of Communication, 1964) , although most EOC researchers still tend to focus on speaking because it is generally considered "to be a prominent means of communication - even primordial." (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002)

The term "communication ethnography" is intended to describe the characteristics that must be taken by the approach to language from an anthropological perspective. That is, according to Dell Hymes, he must 1) "investigate directly the use of language in the context of the situation so that it can find the right pattern for speech activity" and 2) "take the context of

the community, investigate its communicative habits as a whole." (Hymns, Introduction: Towards Ethnography of Communication, 1964) In other words, instead of divorcing the linguistic form of its function, the analysis of cultural or community communication , language and so on, must occur in connection with the sociocultural context of its use and the meaning function conveyed. As Deborah Cameron said, "If you focus primarily on the way a speech program is compatible with the entire network of cultural beliefs and practices, you will spend more time describing things that are outside the talk itself: who is the speaker, at where they are, what beliefs and customs are important in their lives. " (Cameron, 2001)

Usage

In their book Qualitative Communication Research Methods, communication scholars Thomas R. Lindlof and Bryan C. Taylor explain, "The ethnography of communication conceptualizes communication as a continuous flow of information, not as an exchange of segmented messages." (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002) According to Deborah Cameron, EOC can be considered as the application of ethnographic methods to the communication patterns of a group (Cameron, 2001) . Littlejohn and Foss recalled that Dell Hymes suggested that "culture communicates in different ways, but all forms of communication require shared codes, communicators who know and use codes, channels, settings, message forms, topics, and events created by message transmission." (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011) "The EOC study," according to Lindlof and Taylor, "results in a very detailed analysis of communication codes and their moment-to-moment functions in a variety of contexts. In this analysis, speech communities are formed in local and sustainable cultural performance performances. and morals. " (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002)

The EOC can be used as a means of studying interactions among members of a particular culture or "language community", which is any group of people who create and establish their own speech codes and norms. Gerry Philipsen explained, "Each community has its own cultural values about speaking and this is related to assessing situational conformity." (Philipsen, 1975)

The meaning and understanding of the presence or absence of speeches in different communities will vary. Patterns and local cultural norms must be understood to analyze and interpret the suitability of speech acts in a particular community. As such, "the statement that speech is nowhere valued equally in all social contexts suggests a research strategy for finding and describing cultural or subcultural differences in the value of speaking. Speaking is one of the other symbolic sources allocated and distributed in social situations appropriate for different cultural patterns. " (Philipsen, 1975)

Hymes also uses the EOC to oppose the strong view of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, the idea that one's language determines one's cognitive abilities. While Hymes believes that one's language influences one's worldview, he argues that the degree of influence depends "on the state of acquisition, and its place in one's linguistic list and community." (Hymns, Foundations in Sociolinguistics: Ethnographic Approach 8th. Ed, 1976)

SPEAKING Model

The model developed by Hymes as a framework for analyzing speeches in its cultural context is the mnemonic SPEAKING model. This model consists of sixteen components, which according to Hymes need to be considered in order to accurately and satisfactorily describe each particular speech event: message forms, message content, settings, scenes, speaker / sender, addresser, listener / receiver / audience, recipient, objectives (results), goals (objectives), keys, channels, forms of speech, norms of interaction, norms of interpretation, and genre. These sixteen components are organized into eight divisions to form the acronym SPEAKING (Hymes, Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach 8th. Ed, 1976) .

a) S - Settings and scene : where the speech program is in time and space
b) P - participant : who took part in the speech program, and in what role (eg speaker, recipient, audience, tapper)
c) E - ending : what is the purpose of the speech, and what is the intended outcome
d) A - sort of action : what speech act makes the speech, and order what they do in
e) K - key : tone or mode of appearance (serious or joking, sincere or ironic, etc.)
f) I - instrumentalities : what channels or communication media are used (e.g. Speaking, signing, writing, beating, whistling), and what language / variety is chosen from the list of participants
g) N - interaction norm : what are the rules for generating and interpreting speech acts
h) G - genre : what 'type' does a speech program have (for example interviews, gossip), and what conventional preexisting forms of speech are taken or 'cited' in producing the right contribution to speak (eg whether people quote from mythology or poetry or the scriptures?) (Cameron, 2001)

While the SPEAKING model is a valuable model for the EOC, as well as the descriptive framework most commonly used in communication ethnography, Cameron warns that the Hymes model should be used more as a guide than a template, because sticking it too narrow can create a limited view of the subject of its research. The ethnography of communication, according to Cameron, must try not only to "answer 'descriptive' questions such as 'what talk events happened in this-and-such community?' and 'what are the components of the X, Y and Z greeting events?' ", but also to explain" why certain events occur and why they have certain characteristics. " (Cameron, 2001)

Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis (CA) is an approach to study social interactions, including verbal and non-verbal behavior, in everyday life situations. CA began with a focus on ordinary conversation, but the method was later adapted to embrace more task-centered interactions and institutions, such as those taking place in the offices of doctors, courts, law enforcement, aid channels, educational arrangements, and mass media (Garfinkel, 1967) . As a

result, the term 'conversation analysis' has become wrong, but has continued as a term for a typical and successful approach in the analysis of sociolinguistic interactions.

Conversation analysis begins by preparing a problem related to the initial hypothesis. Data used in CAs is in the form of video or audio recorded conversations, collected with or without the involvement of researchers, usually from video cameras or other recording devices in the room where the conversation takes place (for example the living room, picnic area, or doctor's office). The researchers made detailed transcriptions of the records, which contained as many details as possible. After transcription, the researchers conducted a data-driven analysis aimed at finding patterns of repeated interactions. Based on the analysis, the researchers identified an order, rule or model to describe these patterns, enhance, modify or replace the initial hypothesis. While this type of inductive analysis based on the collection of exhibition data is the basis for fundamental work in CA, this method is often supported by statistical analysis in the application of CA to solve problems in medicine and elsewhere.

Basic Structure

Turn Taking Organization

The actions that shape conversation are implemented through speech turn, and therefore taking turns are a fundamental feature of conversation organization. The analysis of how turns takes focus on two main issues: i) what are the main units of turns; and ii) how these units are allocated among speakers. Fundamental analysis of turn-taking is explained in a paper widely known as "Simple Systematics" (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974)

a. Sacks et al. identify turn constructional units (TCUs) as fundamental building blocks. TCU can be a sentence, clause, phrase, or single word that can be recognized as a unit in itself depending on the context. An important feature of TCU is that they can be projected: that is, a listener can recognize what is needed for a unit to be complete. It is this projection that allows a split second time setting that is characteristic of ordinary human turn-taking. The TCU settlement point is now the turn-around (or TRP).
b. In the Sacks et al model, the allocation of units between speakers is implemented through a set of rules that are arranged hierarchically. At any given TRP: i) If the current speaker chooses the next speaker to speak at the end of the current TCU (based on name, views or contextual aspects of what was said), the selected speaker has the right and obligation to speak next. ii) If the current speaker does not choose the next speaker, other potential speakers have the right to choose their own (the first starter gets their turn), and iii) if options i and ii have not been implemented, the current speaker can continue with another TCU. At the end of the TCU, the option system takes effect again.

The turn taking model described here is designed to accommodate the various possible turns, the different number of conversation participants, and the circumstances in which the turns are made, and from conversations, and their topics are not in any way before they are determined beforehand. This system is implemented by the parties in conversation without external regulations (managed parties), and is based on local units. Designed to explain the

fact that many conversations occur without much silence or 'dead time' but also without much overlapping speech, the system described has many consequences.

a. It defines silence: Pause : The period of silence in the speaker's TCU. Gap : The period of silence between turns. Lapse : A period of silence when no sequence is in progress: the current speaker stops talking, does not choose the next speaker, and no one chooses himself. Deviations are generally associated with forms of visual release or other forms between speakers, although this period is short.
b. It states that the speaker who wants to make a long turn, for example to tell a story or illustrate an important story, must use some form of preface to get the green light stating that others will refrain from interfering during the course of the telling (the preface and the associated green light consists of "pre-sequence" .
c. This stipulates that the conversation cannot end correctly with 'just stop', but requires a special closing sequence.
d. This stipulates that certain types of gaps (following the 'currently choosing next' option) are responsible.
e. This stipulates that special resources are used in the case of overlapping talks .

This model also leaves puzzles to be solved, for example about how TCU boundaries are identified and projected, and the role played by the gaze and orientation of the body in managing turn taking. It also establishes the relevance of the problem to other disciplines: for example, the turnaround time of the turn sets up the 'bottle neck' cognitive problem in which prospective speakers must attend incoming speeches while also preparing their own contributions - something that imposes a heavy burden on human processing capacity, and which can have an impact on the structure of language .

The turn-taking model described by Sacks et al is a landmark in linguistics, and indeed it is the most quoted paper ever published in the journal Language. However, this is designed to model turns only in ordinary conversation, and not interaction in more specialized institutional environments such as meetings, courts, news interviews, mediation hearings. All of the latter, and many more, have organizations that take different turns that depart in various ways from the Sacks et al. Nevertheless it is very basic that we cannot take social action in any form without getting a turn to speak, and therefore turn-taking provides the ubiquitous background that shapes the performance of the action regardless of the particular turn-taking system that is being played.

Adjacency couple

Talk tends to occur in responsive partners; However, pairs can be divided into turn order. The adjuster pair divides the speech type into 'first pair part' and ' second pair part ' to form 'pair type'. There are many examples of adjacency pairs including Question-Answer, Offer-Acceptance / Rejection and Response-Praise.

Sequence Expansion

Sequence expansion allows conversations consisting of more than one adjacency pair to be built and understood as performing the same basic actions and various additional elements such as carrying out interactional work related to ongoing basic actions.

The sequence expansion is built in relation to the basic sequence of the first pair (FPP) and the second pair (SPP) where the core action takes place. This can occur before the basic FPP, between the basic FPP and SPP, and follows the basic SPP.

a) Pre-expansion: an adjacency pair that can be understood as the beginning of the main action. Generic pre-expansion is a call-answer adjacency pair, as in "Mary?" "Yes?" It is generic in the sense that it does not contribute to certain types of base adjacency pairs, such as requests or suggestions. There is another type of pre-sequence that serves to prepare the other person for the next speech act. For example, "Guess what!" / "What?" as an introduction to such announcements, or "What do you do?" / "None" as an introduction to invitations or requests.

b) Enter expansion: the adjacency pair that comes between FPP and SPP from the basic adjacency pair. Enter expansion interferes with ongoing activity, but is still relevant to that action (Jefferson, 1972) . Enter expansion allows the possibility for a second speaker, the speaker who has to produce SPP, to do interactional work that is relevant to the projected SPP.

An example is a typical conversation between a customer and a shopkeeper:

Customer : I want a turkey sandwich . (FPP basis)

Server : White or wholegrain ? (Enter FPP)

Customer : Wholegrain . (Enter SPP)

Server : OK . (SPP basis)

c. Post expansion: A turn or adjacency pair that comes after, but is still bound to, a basic adjacency pair. There are two types: minimal and non-minimal. The minimum expansion is also called the third order of closure, because it is one round after the SPP base (hence the third) which does not project further talks beyond their turn (hence closed). Examples of SCT include "oh", "I see", "okay", etc.

Silence

Silence can occur throughout the entire speech act, but in what context it occurs depends on what silence means. Three different assets can be implied through silence:

a) Pause: The period of silence in the speaker's turn.
b) Gap: The period of silence between turns.
c) Lapse: A period of silence when there is no sequence in progress: the current speaker stops talking, does not choose the next speaker, and no one chooses himself . Deviations are generally associated with forms of visual release or other forms between speakers, although this period is short.

Preference Organization

CAs can express structural preferences (ie practice-borne) in conversation for some types of actions (in the order of actions) than others. For example, responsive actions that agree with, or accept, positions taken by the first action tend to be done more easily and faster than actions that do not agree with, or reject, the position (Pomerantz, 1984) . The first is referred to as unmarked turns, meaning they are not preceded by silence or are produced with delay, mitigation, and account. The latter are called marked turns, which describe turns with opposite characteristics. One consequence of this is that approval and acceptance are promoted over their alternatives, and are more likely to be the result of an order. Pre-ordering is also a component of organizational preferences and contributes to these results.

Improvements

Improvement organizations explain how parties in a conversation deal with problems in speaking, listening, or understanding. The repair segment is classified by who started the repair (self or others), by who solved the problem (self or others), and by how it was revealed in a turn or turn. Organizational improvement is also a mechanism that aligns itself in social interactions (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) Participants in conversation seek to fix the source of the problem by starting and preferring self improvement, the speaker from the source of the problem, than others. to fix . Self-improvement initiatives can be placed in three locations in connection with the source of the problem, at the first turn, the transition room or at the third turn .

Main Dimensions

The main dimensions of CA include three terms:

a) Action: The organization of different actions from outside the conversation. This can include opening and closing conversations, evaluations, storytelling, and complaints.
b) Structure: All human social actions are structured and have rules, conversation is no different. To participate in a conversation, participants must obey these rules and structures to become active participants
c) Intersubjectivity: Regarding the manner in which participants' intentions, knowledge, relationships, and attitudes towards the object being discussed are created, maintained, and negotiated .

Systemic Functional Grammar

Systemic functional grammar (SFG) is a form of grammar description derived from Michael Halliday. This is part of a social semiotic approach to language called systemic functional linguistics. In these two terms, systemic refers to the view of language as "a network of systems, or sets of choices that are interrelated to make meaning"; functional refers to Halliday's view that language is what it is because of what it has developed to do. Thus, what he calls multidimensional language architecture "reflects the multidimensional nature of human experience and interpersonal relationships." (Halliday M., 1994).

Language Metafunctions

Right from the beginning in his language record, Halliday argues that it is inherently functional. His early works on English grammar refer to the "functional component" of language, as "the use of language in general, which, because it seems to determine the nature of a language system, needs to be included in our account of that system ..." (Halliday M., Diversity Functional in Language as Seen from Considerations of Modality and Mood in English, 1970) Halliday argues that the organization of functional languages "determines the forms taken by grammatical structures".

Halliday called the function of the language a metafunction. He proposes three general functions: ideational, interpersonal, and textual.

Ideational Metafunction

The ideational metafunction is a function of interpreting human experience. This is the way in which we understand "reality" (Halliday M., The Essential Halliday, 2009) . Halliday divides ideational into logical metafunction and experience. Logical metafunctionsics refers to grammatical resources for building grammatical units into complex, for example, to combine two or more clauses into complex clauses. The experience function refers to the grammatical resources involved in interpreting the experience flux through clause units.

The ideational metafunction reflects the contextual value of the field, that is, the nature of the social process in which language is involved (Halliday & Hasan, Language, context and text: Aspects of language in a semiotic social perspective, 1985) . Analysis of a text from the perspective of an ideational function involves investigation into choices in the grammatical system of "transitivity": that is, the type of process, the type of participant, the type of state, combined with the analysis of resources where clauses are combined. . Halliday An Introduction to Functional Grammar (in the third edition, with a revision by Christian Matthiessen) specifying a description of this gramm a vertical system (Halliday & Matthiessen, An Introduction to Functional Grammar, 2004) .

Interpersonal Metafunction

Interpersonal metafunction relates to aspects of tenor or text interactivity . Like the field, the tenor consists of three component areas: speaker / author persona, social distance, and relative social status . Social distance and relative social status only apply to spoken texts, although a case has been made that these two factors can also apply to written texts.

The speaker / writer personnel concerns the attitude, personalization and position of the speaker or writer. This involves seeing whether the writer or speaker has a neutral attitude, which can be seen through the use of positive or negative language. Social distance means how close the speaker is, for example how the use of nicknames shows their level of intimacy. Relative social status asks whether they are equal in terms of power and knowledge about a subject, for example, the relationship between mother and child will be considered unequal. The focus here is on speech acts (eg whether someone tends to ask questions and other speakers tend to answer), who chooses the topic, turns management, and how well the two speakers evaluate the subject.

Textual Metafunction

The textual metafunction is related to fashion; internal organization and communicative nature of a text. It consists of textual interactivity, spontaneity and communicative distance. Textual interactivity is examined by referring to disfluencies such as hesitator, pause, and repetition. Spontaneity is determined through a focus on lexical density, grammatical complexity, coordination (how clauses are linked together) and use of nominal groups. The study of communicative distance involves looking at text cohesion - that is, how it depends together, as well as any abstract language that it uses. Cohesion is analyzed in the context of a lexical and grammatical and intonational spec with reference to the lexical chain and, in the speech list, tone of voice, tonicity, and tone. The lexical aspect focuses on the sensory relations and lexical repetition, while the grammatical aspect sees the repetition of meaning shown through references, substitutions and ellipsis, and the role of connecting adverbs. Systemic functional grammar deals with all these areas of meaning equally in the grammatical system itself.

Children's Grammar

Michael Halliday describes seven language functions related to the grammar used by children:

a) instrumental functions function to manipulate the environment, causing certain events to occur;
b) the language setting function is event control;
c) representational function is the use of language to make statements, convey facts and knowledge, explain, or report to represent reality as the speaker / writer sees it;
d) the interactional function of language functions to ensure social maintenance;
e) personal function is to express emotions, personality, and "gut level" reactions;
f) heuristic functions used to gain knowledge, to learn about the environment;
g) imaginative functions function to create systems or imaginary ideas.

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Chapter XII
SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Fatchul Mu'in

INTRODUCTION

A language is not only studied from the internal viewpoint but also the external one. Internally, it is studied based on its internal structures; whereas, externally, it is based on the linguistic factors in relation to those beyond the language.

A study of internal language structures (or, it is based on the sub-systems of a language) will result in the sub-discipline of linguistics such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. It is conducted through theories and procedures belonging to the discipline of linguistics; it is not related to the problems beyond the language.

Linguistics

Linguistics is defined as the scientific study of language. From different viewpoints, as a science, linguistics can be divided into several branches, among others, descriptive linguistics and historical/comparative linguistics (if it is based its methodology), synchronic and diachronic linguistics (it is based on its aspect of time), and phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics (if it is based on a language as a system).

Sociolinguistics

Term *sociolinguistics* is a derivational word. Two words that form it are sociology and linguistics. Sociology refers to a science of society, and linguistics refers to a science of language.

A study of language from the perspective of society may be thought of as linguistics plus sociology. Some investigators have found it to introduce a distinction between sociolinguistics and sociology of language. Some others regard sociolinguistics is often referred to as the sociology of language.

Sociolinguistics is defined as:

The study is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. In other words, it studies the relationship between language and society. 21

It explains we people speak differently in different social contexts. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provide a lot of information about the language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people signal aspects of their social identity through their language (Holmes, 2001)

Sociolinguistics is "the study that is concerned with the interaction of language and setting" (Eastman, 1975; 113). It is the study that is concerned with investigating the relationship between language and society with the goal of a better understanding of the structure of language and of how languages function in communication (Wardhaugh, 1986: 12)

Socio-cultural Aspects

Both the community and society requires a group of people. They communicate and interact with and others. They have a membership consciousness based on the common goals, and their behavior is ordered and patterned. If they live in a given area, have the same culture and living styles, and can collectively act in their effort to reach a particular goal, they will be known as a community.

Not all groups of people occupying certain areas are known as societies; but they are known as communities such as those who are in local communities, schools, business firms, and kinship units; and they are only sub-systems of a society.

Thus, society is any group of people being relatively self-sufficient, living together in a long period of time, occupying a certain area, having the same culture, and conducting most of the activities in the group.

Parsons (1966: 20) states that a society is in the first instance "politically organized"; it must have loyalties both to a sense of community and to some "corporate agency" of the kind we ordinarily consider governmental and must establish a relatively effective normative order within a territorial area.

A society in which some groups of people are living may show what we call social stratification. A term *social stratification* used to refer to any hierarchical ordering of a group within a society (Trudgill, 1983).

A system of social stratification is not always similar to one another; it may be represented in *caste*s (such as in India); it may be represented in different social classes: high class, middle class, and lower class (such in United States); and it may be represented in some terms such as elite group vs. common people, "*kawula vs. gusti*" (such as in Indonesia). A society in which its members are stratified shows social *classes* followed by *social status and role.*

Social class may be defined primarily by wealth, or by circumstances of birth, or by occupation, or by criteria specific to the group under investigation. If wealth is a criterion, this may be calculated in terms of money, or in terms of how many pigs, sheep, or blankets an individual or family possesses, or how much land they claim. Social status is often largely determined by social class membership (Troike and Blackwell, 1982: 87).

A married man automatically has a status as a husband of his wife and as a father of child(ren); in his office, he may be a director; and in his neighborhood, he may be a religious leader. According to Soerjono Soekanto, the social role is a dynamic aspect of status (Soekanto, 1982: 236-237).

Thus, the man has three statuses: a father, a director, and a religious leader. When he fulfills his duties and responsibilities in accordance with his single status, he plays one role. Whatever the groups are called, each of them must occupy a position in social rank or have a social status. Therefore, a member of a given social rank or social status plays a role in accordance with his status.

Social relationships among people in society are based on some rules, values, etiquette, etc. In communication, for instance, people are ordered by rules (of speaking); they are guided by values (of how to behave in a good manner) than can be conducted through etiquette (of using a language).

Social Units of Language Use

a. Speech Community

An important concept in the discussion of communication is the *speech community*. It refers to a group of people who use the same system of speech signals. Speech community must meet three criteria: (1) it is any group within a society which has anything significant in common (including religion, ethnicity, race, age, deafness, sexual orientation, or occupation), (2) it is a physically bounded unit of people having range of role-opportunities (a politically organized tribe or nation), (3) it is a collection of similarly situated entities that something in common.

b. Speech Situation

A speech situation is a situation in which a speech occurs. Within a community, we may detect many situations associated with (or marked by the absence of) speech. Such situations will be described as ceremonies, fights, hunts, meals, lovemaking, and the like.

According to Dell Hymes, a speech event refers to activities or aspects of activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech. An event may consist of a single speech act, and it often comprises several speech acts.[1]

d. Speech Act

A speech act is the minimal term of the speech event. It represents a level distinct from the sentence, and cannot be identified with any single portion of other levels of grammar, nor with segments of any particular size defined in terms of other levels of grammar. An utterance may have the status of command depending on a conventional formula. When we ask someone to leave the building, we may say: *"Go!"* not *"Go?"* An interrogative sentence *"Can you help me?"* may be meant to ask someone to do something; *"what time is it?"* may be meant to remind that the listener comes very late.[2]

e. Speech Styles

The term *style* refers to a language variety that is divided based on the criterion of formality. This criterion tends to subsume subject matter, the audience of discourse, and the occasion. Based on the criterion, Martin Jose (in Brown, 1982: 192) recognizes the speech into *frozen*, *formal, consultative, casual and intimate styles.*

We may try to relate the level of formality chosen to a number of factors: (1) the kind of occasion, (2) the various social, age, and other differences that exist between the participants, (3) the particular task that is involved, e.g., writing or speaking, and (4) the emotional involvement of one or more of the participants (Wardhaugh, 1986: 48).

f. Ways of Speaking

A way of speaking refers to how a language speaker uses in accordance with the behavior of communication regulated in his speech community. This means that he has to apply the "regulation" of using his language. Using a language, a speaker of language needs to consider *to whom he speaks*.

[1] Gumperz and Dell Hymes, eds., 1972: 56
[2] ibid

In relation to the *ways of speaking* Dell Hymes states that the point of it is the regulative idea that the communicative behavior within a community is analyzable in terms of determinate ways of speaking, that the communicative competence of persons comprises in part a knowledge of determinate ways of speaking (in Gamperz and Hymes, eds., 1972: 57).

g. Components of Speech

A language-use occurring in a speech community must be in relation to speech situations, speech events, speech acts, and speech styles, as well as components of speech. Those form an integrated part in the communicative behavior. Dell Hymes (in Gumperz and Hymes, 1972: 59-65) states the speech is in some components, being grouped together under the letters of the word SPEAKING. SPEAKING here stands for S=Setting, P=Participants, E=Ends, A=Act sequence, K=Key, I=Instrumentalities, N=Norms, and G=Genres. A further explanation will be explained later.

Social Functions of Language

Forms of sentences of a language generally serve a specific function. The sentences are created, among others, on the basis of purposes. The purposes of creating sentences are (a) to inform something or someone to the audiences; the sentences created are called statements (declarative sentences), (b) to question about something or someone; the resultant forms are interrogative sentences, (c) to ask or command someone to do something; the resultant forms are imperative sentences, and (d) to show a surprise on someone or something; the resultant forms are exclamatory sentences.

Traditionally, there are three functions of a language. These three functions of a language are actually related from one to another. For the sake of discussion, they are discussed in separate ways. The prime function of a language has been assumed to be *cognitive;* a language is used to express ideas, concepts, and thought. The second function is said to be *evaluative;* a language has been viewed as a means of conveying attitudes and values. The third function of a language is referred to be *affective;* a language is used by its speakers to transmit emotions and feelings.

According to Mary Finocchiaro, there are six functions of a language are; they are as follows: *(a) Personal.* The personal function enables the user of a language to express his innermost thoughts; his emotions such as love, hatred, and sorrow; his needs, desires, or attitudes; and to clarify or classify ideas in his mind, (b) *Interpersonal.* The interpersonal function enables him to establish and maintain good social relations with individuals and groups; to express praise, sympathy, or joy at another's success; to inquire about health; to apologize; to invite, (c) *Directive.* The directive function enables him to control the behavior of others through advice, warnings, requests, persuasion, suggestions, orders, or discussion, (d) *Referential.* The referential function enables him to talk about objects or events in the immediate setting or environment or in the culture; to discuss the present, the past, and the future, (e) *Metalinguistic.* The metalinguistic function enables him to talk about language, for example, "What does ……..mean?", and (f) *Imaginative.* The imaginative function enables him to use language creatively in rhyming, composing poetry, writing, or speaking (1989:1-2).

Social Dimensions Influencing Language Use

Starting from the factors above, language use is determined by social dimensions: (a) social distance scale: how well we know someone, (b) a status scale: high-low status in social life; superior-subordinate status, and (c) a formality: formal-informal; high-low formality.

Social structure may either influence or determine the linguistic structure and/or behavior. The age-grading phenomenon can be used as evidence. In this relation, for instance, young children speak differently from other children; and children speak differently from mature. Consequently, there are some varieties of the same language (dialects, styles, speech levels, etc.) and ways of speaking, choices of words, and rules for conversing. Linguistic structure and/or behavior may either influence or determine the social structure.

Sociolinguistics studies a language and its varieties, and how they are used in the speech community in relation to the socio-cultural background of the language use itself.

LANGUAGE USE

Language use may occur in using of single language and two or more languages. Those two types of language use may bring about some consequences of both linguistic and socio-cultural phenomena.

Language use in a Single Language

The idea of language use with a *single language* seems only to be illustrated theoretically. This is because, in a sociolinguistic perspective related to multilingualism in society, single language use is very difficult to do. This may only be done in an official speech by a government leader based on a written text. The facts in the community show that we often encounter, or even we do, the phenomenon of code-switching. The single language use can only happen when all members of the speech community are monolingual speakers.

Language use in two or more languages

This subtopic under language use is closely related to linguistic phenomena. These are bilingualism or multilingualism, code-switching or code-mixing, interference, and borrowing.

Language is an essential part of human lives. It is used as a means of communication and interaction. There are several languages used in a given society. Human beings may speak only in one language (his native language); they may speak two languages (native and national language), and they may have mastery of more than two languages (native, national, and foreign languages).

A new-born child, initially, does not have an ability to speak or to talk using a language; therefore, crying is used for the sake of communication. His ability to speak his native language/first language/mother-tongue is achieved through a process of language acquisition. This is to say that he wants to acquire a language that is used in his immediate socio-cultural environment, e.g., mother, father, family, and people around him. When he is in the age of pre-school, he can speak in his native language, or local language, or first language. This means that he comes to be a monolingual speaker. In this age, being able to speak using his mother tongue is enough for him. For the next time, being a master of one language is not enough; he needs another language to be able to attend his lessons at school (elementary school). The new socio-cultural environment makes him learn to have the ability of another language (e.g., Indonesian language, for children). This is said when Indonesian children have a mastery of the Indonesian language their second language, they are called as bilinguals.[3]

[3]Fatchul Mu'in. 2008. "Bilingualism and its Aspects" in: pbingfkipunlam.wordpress.com/2008/10/18/

BILINGUAL AND BILINGUALISM

A language is used by its speakers for the sake of communication and interaction. Initially, a newborn child tries to master one language used in his immediate social environment, such as family (father and mother) and surrounding people. In the age of pre-elementary school, he may have a mastery of one language; or, he may have a mastery of his mother tongue or native language. At the age level, he can be said as being a monolingual speaker. For him, to be able to use one language is sufficient.

In the next development, when he wants to go to elementary school, the new social environment 'forces' him to learn another language until he has a mastery of the language (Indonesian language, for example). When he can be stated as having a mastery of the Indonesian language, he is called a bilingual speaker.

According to Weinreich, bilingual is a person who is involved in alternately using two languages. In this case, it can be said that before someone can be stated as a bilingual speaker, of course, he has to master two languages. Mastering two languages enable him to use two languages alternately. That is to say that in one situation he uses one language, and in the other situation he uses the language. Therefore, he, then, can be stated as a person involved in what is called as *bilingualism, the practice of alternately using two languages* (Weienreich, 1968: 1).

Bilingual

A bilingual is a person involving himself in using two or more languages alternately. In this relation, before being bilingual, someone has to master more than one language, at least, two languages. Mastery of two languages makes him enable to use of two languages in an alternate way. This means that he may use a given language in a given situation, and he uses another language in another situation (Weinreich, 1953: 1).

A bilingual as suggested by Haugen is a person who is unnecessary to alternately use two languages, but he only *understands* one language besides his own first language or mother-tongue. According to Haugen, an *ideal* bilingual is a person who understands two or more languages and is able to internalize the whole productive linguistic patterns or grammar and lexical elements of the languages in at least two *speech communities* (Fishman, ed., 1972:20).

A bilingual also refers to a person who has a passive knowledge of the other language. He is called a passive bilingual. This means that he has the ability to use linguistic knowledge in the speech community of native speakers of the language" (Mackey, in Fishman, ed., 1972: 555).

The extent of bilingual competence differs from one person to another. Different categories of individual bilinguals are distinguished in relation to the mastery of the languages. These are:

- Active bilinguals: who are able to understand both languages, speak, read, and write them.
- Passive bilinguals: who can understand both languages but cannot easily speak them, and can not read or write them (Khadidja, 2013: 31)

Mastering two or more languages is frequently not in the same degrees between one and another. Therefore, there are some characteristics of their bilingualism. There are three types of bilinguals: compound, coordinate, and subordinate bilinguals.

First is a bilingual whose bilingualism is in the same degree between one and another. He is a compound bilingual. His mastery of the native language and another language are in the same fluency and accuracy. He fulfills "native-like control of two languages" as suggested by Leonard Bloomfield. He states: "In this case where this perfect foreign [second]-language learning is not accompanied by loss of the native language, it results in bilingualism, native-like control of two languages" (Bloomfield, 1935:56).

Thus, compound bilingual is an individual who learns two languages in the same environment so that he/she acquires one notion with two verbal expressions.[4] *A Compound* bilingual is a bilingual who does not have the independent grammatical patterns for their second language. In this relation, people may learn their second language in such ways that these will be free from (or compounded to) the first language. In the learning process, they are taught the English equivalent for each Indonesian word. At last, they may become *balanced bilinguals* and their daily conversation might be indistinguishable from those of native speakers of the second language they have learned.[5]

Second is a coordinate bilingual. He acquires the two languages in different contexts (e.g., home and school), so the words of the two languages belong to separate and independent systems. Each word belongs to one specific concept and has its own meaning. Thirdly, a subordinate bilingual is a person who has a mastery of two languages in which one of them is dominant.[6] This is to say that for the subordinate bilingual, one of the languages dominates over the other.

Without distinguishing the degree of bilingualism, Weinreich suggests a concept of bilingual as a "*person who is involved in alternately using two languages*". This is to say that before a language speaker is stated as a bilingual speaker, he must have a mastery of two languages. Through the mastery two languages, he may use alternately two languages. The alternate use of language depends on where (place) and when (time) he uses a given language, and he uses another language (Weinriech, 1968).

A person may have the ability or mastery of two languages; he may **be able to** speak in two languages, but he tends only to speak by using one language in practice. The individual person may speak by using two languages, but the competence of his two languages is on different levels from one to another. He may be very good at the oral production of the first language; therefore, when speaking (conversation) he uses the first language. Then, he will use his second language for writing and reading. The essential distinction is therefore between **language ability** and **language use**. This is sometimes referred to as the difference between **degree** and **function** (Baker, 2001)**.** At an individual level, there is a distinction between a person's ability in two languages and the use of those languages.

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[4]D'Acierno, Maria Rosaria. 1990. *Three Types of Bilingualism*. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED321574

[5] Karl C. Diller (1970) "Compound" and "Coordinate" Bilingualism: A Conceptual Artifact, Word, 26:2, 254-261, DOI:10.1080/00437956.1970.11435596

[6] Ibid

Bilingualism

A discussion on *bilingualism* must be related to a person who has mastery of two or languages, known as a *bilingual*. Bilingualism is initially based on the existence of a person who has a mastery of two languages. This bilingual language user functions his mastery of two languages for his personal needs. A group of language users creates a speech community in which more than one language is used. The same case occurs in the bilingualism phenomenon. We should also distinguish between bilingualism as an individual or personal characteristic and bilingualism in a social group of language users (speakers), speech community, region and/or country.

Some experts have different views on *bilingualism.* Let us look at William F. Mackey's review on the term *bilingualism,* as follows:

The concept of bilingualism has become broader and broader since the beginning of the century. It was long regarded as an equal mastery of two languages. Bloomfield considered bilingualism as "*the native-like control of two languages*". Haugen broadened this to *the ability to produce "complete meaningful utterances in the other language*". Moreover, it has been now been suggested that the concept be further extended to include simply "*passive-knowledge*" *of the written language or any "contact with possible models in a second language and the ability to use these in the environment of the native language*. This broadening of the concept of bilingualism is due to the realization that the point at which a speaker of a second language becomes bilingual is either arbitrary or impossible to determine. It seems obvious, therefore, that if we are to study the phenomenon of bilingualism we are forced to consider it as something relative. We must moreover include the use not only of two languages but also of any number of languages. We shall, therefore, consider bilingualism as *the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual* (Mackey, in Fishman, ed., 1972: 555).

Based on the concepts of bilingualism above, we can see that there is a distinction between one given by Bloomfield and the other ones given by other experts. Bloomfield's definition of bilingualism as "*the native-like control of two languages*" implies the same fluency and accuracy as those of language use of each of its native speakers. Furthermore, Bloomfield states: "In the extreme case of foreign-language learning the speaker becomes so proficient as to be indistinguishable from the native speaker around him. This happens occasionally in adult shifts of language and frequently in the childhood shift ….. In these cases where this perfect foreign-language learning is not accompanied by loss of the native language, it results in bilingualism, native-like control of two languages" (Bloomfield, 1935:56).

Thus, based on Bloomfield's idea, *'native-like control of two languages'* comes into being when the learner does not lose his native language. However, the use of two languages by the bilingual speaker is always influenced by socio-cultural factors underlying the two languages. If two languages are alternately used, it means that they are said to be in contact. Essentially, language contact is one of the aspects of cultural contact. Weinreich, then, states: "In a great majority of contact between groups speaking different mother tongues, the groups constitute, at the same time, distinct ethnic or cultural communities. Such contact entails biculturalism (participation in two cultures) as well as bilingualism, diffusion of cultural traits as well as of linguistic elements" (1968:5 and 89).

Based on Weinriech's ideas above, it can be said that the alternate use of two languages, the culture and/or linguistic elements underlying the language used by the bilingual speaker

may be involved in one of two languages. Istiati Soetomo (1985:2) states: "If a bilingual speaker will send a message to his listener, he will meet two factors. First, it is the factor in the speaker's competence in the language system. In this relation, can he distinguish and select each of the language systems, so that when he uses one of the languages, the other language system does not influence his speech act? If he is incompetent, while he uses one of two languages, the other one may be involved in his speech. This results in interference and/or code-switching/code-mixing.

On the other side, if he is competent to separate one system from another when he uses one of two languages, it means that his speech act is in a single language; he does not make interference, code-switching or code-mixing. Second, it is the consideration of communication. A man as a means of communication uses a language in his effort to interact one with another. In reality, he is not free from rules of using language agreed by speech communities in which he lives and interacts with the other members of the community in accordance with the values (way of life). This consideration will determine whether he will use a single-language, make interference, switch code or mix code".

A speech act conducted by a bilingual speaker whose mastery of languages can be categorized as "*the native-like control of two languages,*" will occur when he only considers his speech from the side of language use without considering non-linguistic factors, such as participants, topics, setting, and socio-cultural factors. However, non-linguistic factors often involve in his speech act. These factors may result in a deviation in language use.

We, then, regard to '*the native-like control of two languages*' as a type of bilingualism. This type of bilingualism can be said as the ideal one. Another definition of bilingualism, as it is stated above refers to '*the practice of alternately using two languages*'. This kind of bilingualism does need a criterion of "equal mastery of two languages". If someone has the ability to use another language (either actively or passively), he can be called as a bilingual speaker. If he uses the two languages alternately, it means that he is involved in bilingualism.

Thus, bilingual speaker may or not have an equal mastery of two languages. If his mastery of two languages is said to be equal between one and another, he will be categorized as a *compound bilingual; and if is not, coordinate or subordinate bilingual speaker.* Based on the degree of languages mastery, we can say that there are compounds, coordinate and subordinate bilingualism.

As having stated above, the concept of bilingualism has become broader and broader. That is to say that it does not only refer to the mastery or use of two languages but of more than two languages. Therefore, the concept of bilingualism may imply to multilingualism. In this relation, William F. Mackey, as stated above, defines it as the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual (Mackey, in Fishman, ed., 1972: 555).

Degree, Function, Alternation, and Interference

William F. Mackey states that bilingualism is a relative concept. Being a relative concept, (a) it involves the question of *degree.* How well does the individual know the languages he uses? In other words, how bilingual is he?. The discussion on the question of degree will determine whether he is a compound, coordinate, or subordinate bilingual speaker, (b) it involves the question of *function*. What does he use his languages for?. What role have his languages played in his total pattern of behavior?. The discussion on the question of function is related to the uses of his languages in the speech community. For instance, a speaker will use one of his languages in his family environment; and he will use the other in the other social environments such as school,

market, etc., (c) it includes the question of *alternation*. To what extent does he alternate between his languages? How does he change from one language to the other, and what conditions?. This discussion on the question of alternation is concerned with code-switching/code-mixing and its influencing factors such as partcipants, topics, etc., and (d) it includes the question of *interference.* How well the bilingual keep his languages apart? To what extent does he fuse them together?. This discussion on the question of alternation will cover all kinds of linguistic deviations made a bilingual speaker as a result of his familiarity of more than one language.

Bilingualism is also seen from the viewpoint of a social group of language users (speakers), speech community, region and/or country. A region, for instance, in which two or more languages are used, will establish what is known as *diglossia.*

Diglossia may be broadly defined as a linguistic situation in which different language varieties, being genetically related or unrelated, hold different statutes and fulfil different functions which are determined by official language policy and social agreements in the community.[7]

A *diglossic* situation exists in a society when it has two distinct codes which show clear functional separation; that is, one code is employed in one set of circumstances and the other in an entirely different set.[8] Acoording to Ferguson (Wardhaugh, 1986: 87), diglossia is a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by an sector of the community for ordinary conversation.

Diglossia refers to language situation in which two distinct codes show clear funtional separation; that is, one is employed in one set of circumstances and the other in an entirely different set (Wardaugh, 1986 : 87). Troike and Blackwell suggest that a diglossic situation refers to a situation in which two mor mere languages (or varieties of the same language) in a speech community are allocaed to different sosial functions and contexts. When Latin is the language of education and religious services in England, for example, English and Latin are in a diglosic relationship (1986 : 56).

Furthermore, Janet Holmes discusses diglossia using two terms, namely: in norrow and broad senses. In the narrow sense, diglossia has three crucial features:

1. Two distinct variaties of the same language are used in the community, with one regarded as a high (H) variety and the other a low (L) variety.
2. Each variety is used for quite distinct functions; H and L complement each other.
3. No one uses the H variety in everyday conversarion (Holmes, 2013 : 27).

The relationship between H and L varities are as follows:

1. There is a specilization of function for H and L.

[7] Khadidja, Ait Habbouche. 2013. *Language Maintenance and Language Shift among Kabyle Speakers in Arabic Speaking Communities The Case of Oran.* Oran : University of Oran

[8] Wardhaugh, 2006. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics 5th ed. Oxford : Blackwell Publishing, page 89.

H as a higher level of prestige than L, and is considered superior.

2. There is a literary heritage in H, but not in L.

There are different circumstances of acquisation; children learn L at home, and H in school.

3. The H variety is standardized, with a tradition of grammatical study and established norms and ortography (Troike and Blackwell, 1986 : 57).
4. The grammar of H variety is more complex, more highly inflected.
5. H and L varieties share the bulk of their vocabularies, but there is some complementary distribution of terms.
6. The phonology of H and L is a single complex system (Wardaugh, 1983)

The following table is an illustration of some functions of the H and L varieties:

Sermon in church or mosque	H	
Instructions to servants, waiters, workmen, clerks		L
Personal letters	H	
Speech in parliament, political speech	H	
University lecture	H	
Conversation with family, friends, colleagues		L
News broadcast	H	
Radio „soap opera“		L
Newspaper editorial, news story, caption on picture	H	
Caption on political cartoon		L
Poetry	H	
Folk literature		L

(Khadidja, 2013 : 28)

A key defining characteristic of diglossia is that the two varietis are kept apart functionally. One is used in one set of circumstances and the other in an entirely different set. For instance, the H varieties are used for delivering sermons and formal lectures, especially in a parliament or legislative body, for giving political speeches, for broadcasting the news on radio and television, and for writing poetry, fine literature, and editorials in newspapers. In contrast, the L variaties are used instructions to workers in low-prestige occupations ot to household servants, in conersation with familiars, in 'soap operas' and popular program on the radio, in captions on political cartoons in newpapers, and in 'folk literature'. On occasion, one may lecture

in an H variety but answer questions about its contents or explain parts of it in an L variaety so as to ensure understanding (Wardhaugh, 1986 : 88).

The concept of using two or more languages is referred to as *bilingualism.* According to Leonard Bloomfiled in his book *Language* (1973), bilingualism is defined as "*the native-like control of two languages*", and according to Weinriech in *Languages in Contact,* bilingualism is described as "In a great majority of contact between groups speaking different mother tongues, the groups constitute, at the same time, distinct ethnic or cultural communities. Such contact entails biculturalism (participation in two cultures) as well as *bilingualism*, diffusion of cultural traits as well as of linguistic elements"(Weinreich, 1967).

According to William F. Mackey (1972), bilingualism is defined as "*the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual.* Based on the third concept, bilingualism also implies multilingualism. Based on Mackey's concept on bilingualism " the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual (Mackey, in Fishman, ed., 1972: 555), we can that there are, at least, two languages mastered and used by individual speaker. This speaker is said to be a bilingual. In other words, bilingual speakers are required in bilingualism.

Diglossia is a characteristic of speech communities rather than individuals. In a diglossic situation, there must be two varieties or codes of a language. In broad sense, if languages are said to be varieties of all the human languages, diglossic situation can be extended to be one where two languages are used for different functions in a speech community, especially one language is used for H functions and the other for L functions. According to Troike and Blackwell (1986), the most important thing is that in speech community, there may be (1) both bilingualism and diglossia, (2) diglossia without bilingualism, (3) bilingualism without diglossia, and (4) neither bilingualism nor diglossia.

Code-Switching

We may refer to a language or a variety of a language as *code*. This is useful because it is neutral. This is to say that such terms as *language, standard language, dialect, style, speech level, register, pidgin, Creole, and the other variety of the language* can be called as *codes*. In other words, the term *code* is meant to refer to one of the varieties in language hierarchy. If a language is a variety of human languages, we, for example, will know that English, Javanese, Banjarese, Arabic, and Indonesia languages respectively, are *codes*. In reality a language has a number of varieties, and its varieties (*dialect, style, pidgin, Creole, speech level, register, etc)* are also referred to as *codes*. In this relation, Fishman states that each language variety can be identified its sound systems, vocabularies, grammatical features, and meaning (Fishman, 1972 : 5).

According to William F. Mackey, bilingualism is a relative concept. Being a relative concept, it involves the questions of *degree, function, alternation, and inteference.* If a code switching is conducted by a bilingual speaker, it involves the question of *function*: "What does he use his languages for?. What role have his languages played in his total pattern of behavior?". The discussion on the question of function is related to the uses of his languages in the speech community. For instance, a speaker will use one of his languages in his family environment; and he will use the other in the other social environments such as school, market, etc.

This aspect of bilingualism is closely related to the question of *alternation:*" To what extent does he alternate between his languages? How does he change from one language to the other,

and what conditions?". This discussion on the question of alternation is concerned with code-switching/code-mixing and its influencing factors such as partcipants, topics, etc.

The use of language in a situation of bilingualism and/or multilingualism often involves the problems of who speaks, what language, to whom and when (Fishman, 1972:244). In such situation, we often look at a speaker changes his language or a variety of the same language for one to another. This language change depends on a situation or a necessity of using a language or its varieties.

When a language is regarded as a system of code, the language change from one to another is known as a *code switching*. For instance, a speaker uses Indonesian language, and then he changes it to the other one. This language phenomenon is known as a *code switching.*

However, as illustrated above, there may be some possibilities of language varieties of the same language either in the forms of dialects, speech levels, styles or registers. Also, as steted above, all languages and/or varieties are known as *codes*. In this relation, the concept of *code switching* covers a switching of one language to another, that of one dialect to another, that of one speech level to another, that of one style to another, and that of one register to another.

Nababan argues that the concept of code switching involves a speech event in which one changes a functional style (for instance, an informal one) to another (for instance, a formal one), or changes a dialect to another one (1984:31).

Furthermore, as it is known, Javanese language has what we call the complex speech levels. Therefore, the concept of code switching can be extended to be the change of one speech level to another. This kind of code switching occurs, for instance, at the time someone speaks in the language using a formal and honorofic speech level *(krama)*, and suddenly he changes it to Indonesian language in a formal style, and he returns again to *krama*, then to *ngoko,* and at last he uses Indonesia language, etc.

The concept of code switching is distinguished from that of the code mixing. The former occurs because of various factors: participants (who speaks and to whom he speaks), topics he talks (discusses), channels of communication he uses, and purposes he intends. In this relation, Fishman argues that uses of two or more languages and/or varities of the same language is influenced by " Who speaks, What language, to Whom, and When (1972). In the other side, Istiati Soetomo states that the code switcing is determined by speaker's communicative consideration. The communicative consideration is taken based on the fact that in speech event he is always influenced by the cultural, social, personality, and behavioral subsystems of the human action system (1985:26).

The code mixing refers to a speech situation in which a speaker mixes two or more language or varieties of the same language in a speech act without determined factors; he behaves in such a way for his sake of easiness; or it is as his habit to use mixing languages (1985:88).

Different types of code switching have been recognized in relation to the kind of switch:

- Extra-sentential code switching: The insertion of a tag, such as phrase markers, Exclamations from one language into an utterance that is entirely in another language.

- Inter-sentential code switching: Switching at clause or sentence boundary. One clause in a language, the other being in another language.

- Intra-sentential code switching: It is switching within clause boundary. Some specialists call it code mixing. It is the most important kind of alternation as it is the most difficult in terms of interpretation.[9]

Dell Hymes (in Gumperz and Hymes, 1972 : 59-65) states the speech are in the sixteen components, being grouped together under the letters of the word SPEAKING. SPEAKING here stands for (S)etting, (P)articipants, (E)nds, (A)act sequence, (K)ey, (I)nstrumentalities, (N)orms, and (G)enres. The further explanation is as follows:

The first letter is *S* covering setting and scene; s*etting* refers to the time and place of a speech act and, in general, to the physical environment, and refers to the psychlogical setting or the cultural definition of an occasion as a certain type of scene. The second one is *P* referring to speaker or sender of message, addressor, hearer/receiver/audience, and addressee. The third one is *E* referring to *ends* as goal and as outcomes. The fourth one is *A* referring to *act sequence* consisting of message form and message content. The fifth one is *K* referring to key that is introduced for the tone, manner, or spirit in which an act is done. The sixth one is *I* referring to instrumentalities; it covers channels and forms of speech. A channel is a choice of oral, written, telegraphic, semaphore, or other medium of transmission of speech; while, a form of speech refers to a variety of language. The seventh one is N referring to norms; they cover the norm of interaction and that of interpretation. The last one is G referring to genres. By genres are meant categories such as poem, myth, tale, proverb, riddle, curse, prayer, oration, lecture, commercial, editorial, etc.

A speaker will select one of the multiple languages and/or varieties of the same language available within the linguistic repertoire (referring to a totality of a language and its varieties) of a speech community and interaction strategies in any specific context. Knowing the alternatives and the rules for appropriate choice from among them are part of speaker's communicative competence. This one will determined that he will use one of the languages or the varieties of the same language in accordance with the *domain* in which a speech act occurs (Troike and Blackwell. 1986: 52). As a consequence, when he speaks in one domain using English language, he may changes his *code* to another in another domain.

Institutional support can be sought in domains such as education, religion, law and administration, and the media. Examples of this kind of support are: (a) the use of the minority language in education, e.g. bilingual education programmes, using or teaching the minority language in school, in pre-school, and in after-school programmes, (b) support by the law and administration, e.g. the right to use the language in court, the House of Assembly, in dealing with government offi cials, etc.,(c) the use of the language in places of worship, e.g. for services, sermons, hymns, chants, and (d) use of and support for the language in the media, e.g. TV programmes, radio programmes, newspapers, magazines. (Janet Holmes, 73).

A language is used for everyday interaction, without implying that it is appropriate only in informal domains. Also, a language is used in official institutional domains such as the law courts, offi cial government ceremonies and transactions, and in education (Janet Holmes, 105). It is now used in many entirely new domains, e.g., government, religion, agriculture, and aviation;

[9]Khadidja, Ait Habbouche. 2013. *Language Maintenance and Language Shift among Kabyle Speakers in Arabic Speaking Communities The Case of Oran.* Oran : University of Oran, page 24.

it is employed in a variety of media; and it is supplanting the vernaculars and even English in many areas Wardhaugh, 2006 : 79).

Factors determining domains may include the general subject under discussion (in religion, education, family, etc), the role-relationship between the participants (e.g. mother-daughter, boss-secretary), and the setting of the interaction (e.g. mosque, home, office) (Troike and Blackwell, 1986 : 56).

To understand more about Dell Hymes' components of speech covered in an abreviation of SPEAKING above, we may need a further explanation. In this relation, we can start from a certain speaker (from non-English speaking countries) who were trained in English (and have a mastery of English) uses English when discussing, lecturing, and publishing about linguistics in English. The speech act is conducted in front of his own students, although they are not fluent in that language. In the illustration, we can note two components of speech: partcipants (speaker and his audience), and a form of speech (a kind of language he is using).

The language choice (at the same the code switching occurs) is primarily in line with the topic he discusses. Discussing the topic, he uses English and does not use his own language.
This speech act can be interpreted that (1) the topic is linguistics, (2) the participants involved have communicative competence in English, and (3) the topic and participants determine the speaker to use English because of the audience. This may be because the participants (especially, the speaker) do not know the necessary terminology in their national language, or because they have come to believe it is more appropriate to use English to talk such sujects as grammatical analysis, and even to use English examples rather than their own Indonesian Language. In this case, it can be said that *topic* is often a primary diterminants of language choice (code switching of one language to another) in bilingual or multilingual contexts; bilingual speaker have often learned about some topics through the medium of one language and other topics through the medium of the second, and thus may only know the vocabulary to discuss a topic in one of their languages, or feel it is more "natural" to use one language for the particular topic.

In almost different view, Istiati Soetomo (1985:2) states: "If a bilingual speaker will send a message to his listener, he will meet two factors.

First, it is the factor on the speaker's competence of language system. In this relation, can he distinguish and select each of the language system, so that when he uses one of the languages, the other language system does not influence his speech act? If he is incompetent, while he uses one of two languages, the other one may be involved in his speech. This results in interference and/or code-switching/code-mixing. On the other side, if he is competent to separate one system from another when he uses one of two languages, it means that his speech act is in a single language; he does not make interference, code switching or code mixing.

Second, it is the consideration on communication. A man as a means of communication uses a language in his effort to interact one with another. In reality, he is not free from rules of using language agreed by speech communities in which he lives and interact with the other members of the community in accordance with the values (way of life). This consideration will determine whether he will use a single-language, make interference, switch code or mix code".

Based on the discussion above, we can conclude that: A monolingual speaker of a language may conduct code switching in the forms of the changes of (a) a dialect to another, (b) a speech level to another, (c) a style to another, and (d) a register to another of the same language. Other than those conducted by a monolingual speaker, a bilingual speaker may conduct code switching in the form of the change of a language to another.

Factors determining code switching are : (a) participants (who speaks and to whom he speaks), (b) topics he talks (discusses), (c) channels of communication he uses, (d) purposes he intends, (e) cultural system covering the aspects of constitutive symbol, of cognitive symbol, of expressive symbol, and of evaluative symbol, (f) social system covering status-role relationship, (g) personality system covering psycholical aspects of a speaker such attitude, identity, etc.

Furthermore,this part discusses: (1) concept of code-switching, (2) types of code-switching, (3) code-switching as sociolinguistic phenomenon.

Code and Code-Switching

Code-switching is a term used to refer to code alternation from one to another. A word *code* here is frequently understood in different ways. One student understands it as *a sign*; another student mentions it as *a password;* and another else regards it as *a symbol*. In sociolinguistic study, in fact, a code does not mean *sign, password,* or *symbol* but it refers to a language or a variety of language. A language itself may refer to Javanese language, Indonesian language, or English language; and a variety of language may refer to a dialect, a register, a speech level, or a language style. Therefore, code-switching may refer to *language-switching, dialect-switching, or speech level-switching*.

According to its terminology, code-switching is defined as the use of more than one language, variety or styles of language by a speaker within discourse or utterance, or between different speakers/interlocutors or situations (Romaine,1992:110). Mostly, code-switching occurs in bilingual speech communities. Speakers who have mastery of two or more languages are known as bilingual speakers. This means that they are known for their ability to code switch (conduct code-switching) or code mix (conduct code-mixing) from one code (e.g. language) to another code (e.g. another language) during their communication.

(b) Types of Code-Switching

Code-switching refers to a phenomenon in language use. This phenomenon can occur in speech communities in which two or more languages, or (in Javanese speech community, for instance) language varieties are used within a communication and interaction.

Some scholars give names with different types and degrees of code-switching. For instance, Blom and Gumperz (1972) identify code-switching in two types: situational and metaphorical code-switching. *First is a situational code-switching*; this type of code-switching refers to one that may be influenced by situation change in speech events such as the change of participants, topic of discussion, and setting. *Second is a metaphorical code-switching*; this type of code-switching refers to the conversational in which code-switching within a conversation for assisting such conversational acts as request, complaint, refusal, etc. Also, based on the metaphorical type, code-switching may vary in accordance with functions of discourse, e.g. to include or exclude someone from a given conversation, to emphasize a certain idea, or to show intimate relationship (Blom and Gumperz, 1972). Metaphorical code-switching occurs to show how speakers use certain codes to convey information that goes beyond their real vocabulary, especially to define the social situation. Besides, it is used when a change of topic requires a change in the language used. On the other hand, if the speaker switches within a single sentence, one sentence is expressed in one variety and the next sentence in another variety (Kesraoui, 2017).

Code-switching as Sociolinguistic Phenomenon

Sociolinguistically, code-switching conducted by an adult bilingual is influenced by characteristics of interlocutors (listeners or audiences), the situation (settings of place and time), and the purpose (goal) of communication and interaction. Adult bilingual speakers may conduct code-switching for various meta-communicative purposes: for instance, to mark their ethnic identities and/or affiliations, to negotiate social status and roles, and to establish intimate interpersonal relationship, and to keep social distance between speaker and interlocutor(s). As has been known, the social functions of code-switching conducted by adult speakers are conditioned by community factors (Gamal, 2018).

Hymes suggests the factors influencing code-switching through his model of SPEAKING as follows:

a. **S** stands for **SETTING/SCENE.** This refers to a place where the speech act is delivered; also it refers to the all mood and context (serious or funny conversation)

b. **P** stands for **PARTICIPANTS.** The participants here are persons involved in the speech events, followed by their socio-cultural and/or sociolinguistic backgrounds.

c. **E** stands for **ENDS** (goals). These are the goals and/or the real outcomes to be achieved from the speech acts.

d. **A** stands for **ACT SEQUENCE.** This is indicated by chronological order of speech events. What happens at first, second, third, and so on; these are meant to exactly make the speech events unfold.

e. **K** stands for **KEY**. This refers to the formality of situation whether it is formal or not; in which the participants involved in the speech events are fine or sad.

f. **I** stands for **INSTRUMENTALITIES.** These refer to what linguistic and/or non-linguistic instruments are used for making the speech acts possible to do (such as by a phone call, or a given language (English is used by an Indonesian and an American who meet in Jakarta).

g. **N** stands for **NORMS.** Norms here refer to the rules or conventions *(linguistic etiquettes, honorific device)* that should be implemented in the speech events to present speaker's respect and politeness to his interlocutors.

h. G stands for GENRE. This refers to the type of kind of speech act used in speech events (a story, a small talk in an informal discussion, a reseach paper, a gossip, jokes, and a conversation on daily activities).

The following is an example of a verbal interaction between two people conducted in English. The factor of "*participants*" (Gumperz & Hymes, 1972) or "*Who speaks What* language *to Whom*" (Fishman, 1972) involved in a speech event may influence a code-switching phenomenon. A speaker with the mastery of more than one language suddenly inserts some terms in the forms of word, phrase, or sentences of his other language(s) to express the content of his own cultural values in his speech. This language phenomenon can be judged based on the source of the cause

of those terms from other languages. The inclusion of indigenous cultural values into his speech can be due to custom or ease of pronunciation. The behavioral system (as part of cultural system) guiding the speaker's behavior of speaking is said to the cause of using the terms with his own cultural values. The use of utterances : "Good morning, *ibu* and *bapak*" instead of "Goof morning, ladies and gentlemen", "Mr. Thom, this is *Pak* Wahyu, our dean" instead of "Mr. Thom, this is Mr. Wahyu, our dean" , etc. The speaker maintained Indonesian cultural values by using Indonesian addressing terms in English speaking context.

The personality system (part of the cultural system) also influences someone's language use. In the context of using Indonesian language, an Indonesian speaker may intentionally insert some elements of foreign languages (English, Arabic, or other languages) as his efforts to show his identity, attitude, motivation, experience, etc. in front of his listeners or audiences.

For instance, the use of name boards in English language terms such as "barber shop" instead of "*tukang potong rambut*", "sports center" instead of "*gelanggang olah raga*", "Ratu Plaza" instead of "*Toko Ratu*", "laundry" instead of "*binatu*", "Benyamin Residence" instead of "*Perumahan Benyamin*", etc. can represent the language user's identity, attitude, motivation, and experience (that are formed by his personality system).

Social system (part of the cultural system) may influence a speaker's act of speaking. Social system, among other things, refers to someone's social status and roles. ***Social status*** is the social position of someone in his socio-cultural environments**.**

From the viewpoint of sociology, everyone has *status,* event a set of **statuses referring to** *established social position(s).* The term *status* is not like popular use of the term; because it is not in relation to a prestige. Someone' social status may have to do with a higher status than the other as it is judged by a given community. Each *social status* is followed by social role or even a set of social roles. Social statuses can be obtained in some different ways. They can be both achieved and ascribed ones. ***An achieved status*** *is a social position acquired through personal effort.* Being an English Department student, a teacher, an architect, a dancer, a parent, or a lawyer are all called *achieved statuses*. Those individuals had to do something(s) to be each of those things. ***An ascribed social status is a social*** *position acquired involuntarily through birth.* Being a female, a male, a son, toddler, a brother, or a sister are all called *ascribed statuses*. Some achieved statuses may depend at least to some extent on ascribed statuses (Stolley, 2005: 44).

The same as social statuses, social roles are also central to social interaction and social structure. The two concepts of social status and social role go in hand in hand way. A social **role** is a *behavior expected of someone in a particular status.* Using the social status of a doctor, for instance, we can identify a set of role expectations. A doctor should come to the office or workplace on in time. He should examine competently his patients, and should be ready to discuss his patients' concerns. He must prescribe medicine based on the law. He must be responsible to his profession as a doctor. These examples can illustrate how the pasients expect a doctor to act or to behave. At the same time, these roles give an illustration on what is called a set of social roles**,** namely**:** *all of the roles that go with a single social status* (Stolley, 2005: 45).

He may have a number of social statuses. Starting from his family, he becomes a head of his household, a husband of his wife, a father of his children; in the larger social environment, he may become a head of *Rukun Tetangga* (Neighborhood Association) and -at the same time becomes- *Koordinator Urusan Kematian* (Coordinator of Death Affairs); in his working environment, he may become a lecturer having an additional task as a head of Study Program

and a member of faculty and university senate, etc. Each social status belongs to him is followed by the various social roles. A social role refers to an implementation of his right and obligation in accordance with his social status. Social status and social role are two sides of the same currency. This means that a social status cannot be separated from a social role. There is no a given social role to be conducted without a given social status; or otherwise, no social status can stand without a social role.

Someone named B shows his social statuses and roles in a verbal interaction. For instance, he is a lecturer -and at the same- a member of university senate may show his identity by using registers on democratic systems in universities (senate meeting, rector election, etc.) in his utterances, such as "*Mohon maaf, saya harus meninggalkan ruang ini untuk menghadiri rapat senat, membahas tata tertib pemilihan rektor*" (I'm sorry, I must leave this room to attend the senate meeting discussing conduct codes of rector election) in front of his audience. These utterances will remind his audience in order to be always aware of either his academic-social status (as a respected senate member) or the audience's social status (as an ordinary lecturer) in the social status relationship.

Summary on Code-switching

In language studies, a *code* is defined as a language or a veriety of language. In this relation, the language may refer to Javanese language, Banjarese language, Indonesian language, English language, or any other language; whereas, a variety of language may refer to a dialect, a style, a speech level, a register, or any other variety of language. Switching may be understood as a changing or alternating. Thus code-switching can be defined as a change or alternation from one language or one code to another (language or variety of language).

Code-switching refers to the practice of alternating between two or more languages or varieties of language in conversation. The factors influencing code-switching phenomenon can be traced back through Fishman' theory "Who speaks What language to Whom and When" or Hymes' model "SPEAKING" standing for S =Setting/Scene, P=Participants, E=Ends=goals, A=Act sequence, K=Key, I=Instrumentalities, N=Norms, and G=Genre.

Interference

As has been discussed before, a language user must have linguistic competence and linguistic performance for the sake of his oral and written communication. Linguistic competence refers to a mastery of grammatical patterns and other language components in a given language; this is also known as "human's underlying and unobservable language ability". Linguistic competence is the knowledge of language and its all components available in a person's mind, namely: it is knowledge providing ways to construct the right and acceptable grammatical utterances or provides a system for pairing sound and meaning.

Whereas linguistic performance refers to the actual manifestation of linguistic competence, or the real use of the language based on the linguistic competence a speaker has. Linguistic performance is the use of such knowledge of language in the real processing of sentences for the sake of their production and comprehension.

Interference is a language phenomenon as a result of bilingualism. Not all bilinguals have the same mastery of two or more languages. The fact shows that there are three types of bilinguals: compound, coordinate, and subordinate bilinguals. Diebold suggests the term

subordinate bilingual as *incipient bilingual, a person who is in the initial stages between two languages or in the process of learning his second language.*[10] This is to say that the use of those languages (or the languages are in contact) may result in *interference phenomenon*. So, bilingualism and bilingual have a close relationship to the language phenomenon.

If a language user is a bilingual, of course his mastery of two languages should be supported by linguistic competence towards the two languages. If his linguistic competence in L-2 is insufficient, his linguistic knowledge in L-1 is implemented when using L-2.

Concept of Interference

Interference refers to a linguistic phenomenon resulted from bilingualism. This linguistic deviation as referred to as interference is made by a person in process of learning L-2. He is often called as an incipient bilingual. Being in the process of learning L-2, he does not have the equal mastery of L-1 and L-2 yet. His mastery of two languages cannot be categorized as "native-like control of two languages" as suggested by Bloomfield (1935). When a speaker has the mastery of two languages whose linguistic competence is in the equal degrees between both languages, he will be spared from making linguistic deviation known as interference. Therefore, in general, interference is made by an *incipient bilingual*.

Interference can be defined as the use of formal elements of one language in the context of another. This is to say that interference may be in the linguistic levels of phonology, morphology, and syntax as well as semantics. The use of those linguistic levels in a given language can be explained by the effect of contact with another language (Troike and Blackwell, 1986).

A similar concept of interference is suggested by Mackey; he defines it as *"the use of features belonging to one language while speaking or writing another"*. The alternate use of two languages can bring about the use of linguistic features of one language in another.

In the effort of learning English, for instance, learners frequently face difficulties. According to Ramelan (1976:6), the difficulties faced by the learners are connected to learning new sound systems, new vocabulary, and various ways to arrange words into sentences.

The difficulties faced by learners can cause a number of errors in using the language being learned, both in speaking and writing. Dulay and Burt, for instance, posit that foreign language or second language learners always make errors. In this case, they state that "You cannot learn without goofing" (Richards, 1985:95). The term 'goof' as what they propose means a deviation from phonetic and grammatical patterns from the original language (namely English)

The error made by learners as the result of the application or the use of the elements of first language while speaking or writing in second or foreign language is called as interference. There are some points which affect the errors in using languages. *First,* before learning foreign or second language, learners have mastered their first language and use it based on the system of the language. Each language has their own system which is different from other languages. The system of first language which is different from the language system being learned can cause the occurrence of language errors on the language being learned. *Second*, in the process of learning second or foreign language, the language of instruction used is first language, so in learning the language learners still think by using their first language.

[10] http://www.translationdirectory.com/article419.htm

Interference may occur on the linguistic system including phonology, morphology, and syntax, as well as semantics. Moreover, interference may occur either both in spoken or written languages.

Types of Interference

Linguistic features may be in the forms of phonemes, morphemes, words, and meanings. If a language user applies phonological features of L-1 when speaking L-2, he will make a phonological interference. If he applies morphological features of L-1 when speaking or writing L-2, he will make a morphological interference. Types of interference depend on what features of L-1 are used in L-2. Thus, other than the phonological and morphological inteferences, there will be the syntactical and semantic interferences.

As has been stated, interference may occur in phonology, morphology, syntax or grammar, and semantics.

(1) Phonological interference

Phonological interference can be defined as the use of phonological element of one language when pronouncing another. In phonological level, the problem of interference concerns the manner in which a speaker perceives and reproduces the sounds of one language in terms of another. This interference occurs in the speech of bilingual as a result of the fact that there are different elements in sound system between one language and another, or between native and foreign language. In some cases, the native and foreign languages have the similarity in sound system and in grammatical system. However, in most cases, both languages have different either in sound system or in grammatical system. Different elements in phonological system between both languages may be of several kinds.

(2) Grammatical Interference

Every language has its own grammar. Grammar refers to a set of rules. These language rules enable a given user to arrange or combine words in the language (e.g. English or Indonesian) into larger utterances or units. Another term used to refers a given language grammar is syntax.

Some combinations of words are grammatical in English or another language (e.g. Indonesian), while others are ungrammatical. Every native speaker of English can easily determine that *Home computers are now much cheaper* is a possibly grammatical English sentence, whereas *Home computers now much are cheaper* is not grammatical. This is because the native speaker of English knows that a word much is wrongly placed in the second example. The native speaker's ability to recognize the rules of grammar of his own language has been established since his language acquisition and language learning. The ability to recognize such distinctions shows that the native speakers have already known the grammatical rules of English, eventhough they have never studied grammar formally. Similarly, native speakers of Indonesian will easily recognize *Ali pergi ke sekolah setiap hari* is a grammatical sentence; and *Ali pergi sekolah ke setiap hari* is an ungrammatical one. The native speakers of every language have ability to apply the grammatical rules every time they speak or write; that is, they can put or arrange words in the right order. Also, every time the native speakers of English interpret what others

say. They know that *Susan likes Tom* means something quite different from *Tom likes Susan.* Similarly, the native Indonesian speakers know that *Ali cinta Aminah* is in different meaning from *Aminah cinta* Ali (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2013 : 1).

(3) In semantic level

Interference occurs when a speaker introduces new semantic structures. Even though the semantic units may be the same in both languages, a foreign way of combining them may introduced as a new semantic structure. Both Indonesian and English, for instance, have comparable units for *mengandung – consist of*; but when an Indonesian speaker uses a sentence *Paragraf itu mengandung beberapa kalimat* he introduces into his speech a foreign semantic structure based on the English model *The paragraph is pregnant of several sentences* instead of *The paragraph consists of several sentences.*

(4) In lexical level

Interference may involve the introduction of morphemes of language A into B. For instance, an Indonesian commentator using the words such as *hand ball, kick off, off side, goal, keeper,* etc in an Indonesian-language foot ball broadcast; the other speaker may say *Banyak handicap dalam perjuangan ini or Dalam pembuktian kita perlu melakukan cross check,* etc.

Summary on Interference

A bilingual speaker may have the equal mastery of two languages. He may have the unequal mastery of two languages. He may make some deviations in using one language he is using for communication if he is not able to separate the systems existing in one language from the other. For example, when he speaks or writes in English language, in one case, he uses Indonesian language phonology, or morphology, or syntax, or the other language system. This is to say that his speech in English is interfered by the Indonesian language system. Thus, interference of Indonesian language system occurs in the speaker's speech or writing.

Integration

According to Mackey, interference is "*the use of features belonging to one language while speaking or writing another*". while integration is "*the use of features of one language as if they were part of the other*" (Fishman, ed., 1972:555).

If interference occurs in the speech of bilingual, language borrowing (often related to integration) does not only occur in the speech of bilingual, but also in that of monolingual. In integration phenomenon, the elements of one language are used as if those are part of the other. In this relation, those elements are used by monolingual speakers who may not have knowledge about the source language or used by bilingual speakers who regard those elements as part of their habits (Fishman, ed., 1972:569 and Weinreich, 1968:11).

In this relation, Weinreich says: "we find interference phenomena which, having frequently occurred in the speech of bilinguals, have become habitualized and established. Their use is no longer dependent on bilingualism. When a speaker of language X uses a form of foreign origin not as an on the-spot borrowing from the language Y, but because he has heard it used by others in X-utterances, this borrowing element can be considered, from the descriptive viewpoint, to have a part of language X (1968:11). When words, grammatical elements or sounds from one

language are incorporated in another language, we call this **borrowing.** The borrowing of a word does not presuppose knowledge of the language from which it is taken. Once borrowed, the borrowed element becomes part of the borrowing language. Therefore, speakers might not even be aware of the borrowed status of a word, especially when it is assimilated into the pronunciation system of their language.[11]

The English model undergoes various stages of adaptation. When the model is integrated in the receiving language it is called a replica. This complex process of adaptation is regulated by two linguistic operations: substitution and importation. These two linguistic operations are completely opposite: the first one denotes the difference between the lending and the borrowing language, the second one denotes the similarity between them. If the phonological systems are different, substitution is a common feature, because the speaker borrowing a foreign word has to replace the phoneme of the foreign language with its own.[12]

Language maintenance, Language shift, and language death

Language maintenance denotes the continuing use of a language in the face of competition from a regionally and socially more powerful language.[13] It is simply when a speech community preserves its native language from generation to generation in environments where conditions, consequently to a variety of factors, are hostile to the maintenance of the mother tongue. This implies that the language changes only by small degrees as a result of the limited contact with other languages. Consequently the features of the language (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and core lexicon) remain relatively intact.[14] *Language shift* is the opposite of this: it denotes the replacement of one language by another as the primary means of communication within a community. The term *language death* is used when that community is the last one in the world to use that language.[15]

Languages can die gradually, which is probably the most natural way for it to happen, but many times there are outside influences involving the struggles of a minority community against the majority society in which they live. The death of a language can start in the home, or it can start in some area as high up as the government or aristocracy. Probably the most common cause of language death is when a community that previously only spoke one language starts to speak another one. This is called "language shift". The community first becomes bilingual, not discarding their native tongue, but soon they start to use the new language more and more, until their native language is no longer used.[16] It is simply when a speech community preserves its native language from generation to generation in environments where conditions, consequently to a variety of factors, are hostile to the maintenance of the mother tongue. This implies that the language changes only by small degrees as a result of the limited contact with other languages. Consequently the features of the language (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and core lexicon) remain relatively intact.

[11] https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/multilingual-practices/0/steps/22665
[12] https://hrcak.srce.hr › file

[13] https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/multilingual-practices/0/steps/22665

[14] Khadidja, Ait Habbouche. 2013. *Language Maintenance and Language Shift among Kabyle Speakers in Arabic Speaking Communities The Case of Oran.* Oran : University of Oran

[15] https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/multilingual-practices/0/steps/22665

[16] https://alphaomegatranslations.com/foreign-language/what-causes-the-death-of-a-language/

Summary

Sociolinguistics is the language study in sociocultural perspectives. The use of language in the social context is mostly influenced by the sociocultural aspects. There are some phenomena of the language uses, among other things, (a) monolingualism, (b) bilingualism, and also (c) multilingualism. This condition may result in code-switching, code-mixing, interference, borrowing, language maintenance and language death.

Chapter XIII

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

Fatchul Mu'in

Psycholinguistics' is a combination of psychology and linguistics. Both are the branches of sciences. Psychology is defined as the systematic study of human experience and behavior or as the science that studies the behavior of men and other animals Knight and Hilgert in Abu Ahmadi, 1992). There are several branches of psychology, among others, social psychology, the psychology of communication, developmental psychology, educational psychology, and psychology of language. The last branch of psychology is often called as psycholinguistics.

What is psycholinguistics?

a. Psycholinguistics is a field of study that combines psychology and linguistics. It covers language development. (Lim Kiat Boey).
b. psycholinguistics is the study of human language –language comprehension, language production, and language acquisition (E.M. Hatch)
c. Another term is the psychology of language.

Based on the definitions of psycholinguistics above, our discussion will be focused on language acquisition, language development, language comprehension, and production

Language Acquisition

Relationship between psychology and linguistics can be seen from behaviorist psychology in which a language activity is considered as a part of human behavior; and from cognitive psychology in which acquiring/learning and using a language are discussed as cognitive processes.

All scientific studies must be based on philosophical reasoning. Let us try to trace back rational reasoning of psycholinguistics. For a new-child a language (first language) is acquired; after acquiring his mother tongue or first language, he may learn a second language. Some experts differ in language acquisition and language learning.

In this relation, let us try to discuss two branches of philosophy: nativism (Schopenhauer) or rationalism (Descartes) and empiricism (John Locke). Nativist/rationalist uses the former and empiricists use the latter. The nativist claims that individual development is much influenced or determined by hereditary factors; the rationalist claims that all knowledge derives from the human mind; he believes that the brain is the only source of knowledge. Thus, the ability to speak a language is genetically transmitted. For rationalists, Descartes, for instance, the mind is more active in gaining knowledge; human's perception of the external world rests upon some ideas. These ideas are *innate* and not

derived from experience and are sometimes said to be inherent in the human mind. In the human mind, there is 'a little black box,' which is then called 'Language Acquisition Device' (LAD). LAD refers to inborn or innate ability. Noam Chomsky is one of the supporters of rationalism in studying a language, in which he develops what is TG Grammar, among other things, he differs *competence and performance (langue and parole in* Ferdinand de Saussure's term). Also, he differs from two kinds of language structures: *deep and surface structures.*

Whereas, the empiricist believes that all knowledge derives from experiences or socio-cultural environment. John Locke believes that a newborn child is like tabula rasa; it is something like a piece of white paper on which we can make a drawing or picture or something in a written form. He learns everything from his environment. He discovers a particular language from his parents, family, and environment. This philosophical thought influences much on behaviorists' thought The empiricist admits the existence of LAD in a human's mind, but it is then considered as 'a potential seed' which has to be developed and nurtured in an appropriate place: a social community. A child can acquire language he has an adequate physical and cognitive endowment and because he grows up in a speech community. A child from birth is well equipped to perceive human speech but takes several years to learn to produce the speech sounds of his language correctly. As has been stated above, a newborn child is equipped with a language acquisition device, and it is supported by physical apparatus (called speech organs), enabling him to produce speech sounds (e.g., phones).

So, the ability to speak a language in human beings is not genetically transmitted, but it is culturally acquired and or learned from their elders or social environment. This means that a child will not automatically speak a language just because he is a human being, but because he has to acquire or learn it from his parents or people around him, though the process is not always consciously carried out. This also explains why there is no universal language spoken by all human beings in the world since the language spoken by man is culturally determined. This is to say that it depends on the community in which the child is grown up.

In the process of acquiring a language, children (1) do not learn a language by storing all the words and all the sentences in the mental dictionary. The list of words is finite, but no dictionary can hold all the sentences, which are infinite in number, (2) learn to construct sentences, most of which they have never produced before, (3) learn to understand sentences they have never heard before. They cannot do so by matching the "heard utterance" with some stored sentence, (4) must, therefore, construct the "rules" that permit them to use language creatively, and (5) are never taught these rules. Their parents are no more aware of the phonological, syntactic, and semantic rules that are the children.

Stages in Language Acquisition

As has been stated above, a newborn child cannot automatically speak a language. Linguistic knowledge develops through stages.

1. First sounds

At the time an infant is born, he can only produce sound through crying. When he is hungry or thirsty, he cries. When he is sick, he cries. When he wants her to accompany him, he cries. After several weeks (8 weeks), beside crying, he can coo; he can produce squealing-gurgling sounds. The kind of sound is vowel-like in character and pitch-modulated. The vowel-like cooing sounds begin to be interspersed with more consonantal sounds. In this stage, cooing changes into babbling.

2. Babbling

At the age of six months, children in all cultures begin to babble. Babbling refers to the child's effort to produce sounds by using his speech organs. According to Fromkin and Rodman (248), the sounds produced in this period seem to include the sounds of human languages. Most linguists believe that in this babbling period, infants provide a large variety of sounds, many of which do not occur in the language of the household. Deaf children also babble, and it is reported that their babbling up to the age of around six months seems very similar to that of normal children. Nondeaf children born of deaf parents who do not also speak babble. Thus, babbling does not depend on the presence of acoustic, auditory input. Hearing children born of non-speaking parents even babble. There are, however, at least two different schools of thought concerning babbling. One group believes that babbling is a necessary prerequisite for normal language acquisition. Others consider babbling about being less crucial.

When the minimum vocabulary is acquired, children have difficulties in pronouncing all the words; they represent words in terms of *phonemes.* The child's ability to generate patterns and construct rules is also shown in phonological development. In the first language, children may not distinguish between voiced and voiceless consonants, for example. When they first begin to construct one set –that is, when they learn that /p/ and /b/ are distinct phonemes- they also begin to distinguish between /t/ and /d/, /s/ and /z/, etc.

It is far from being called as a real language. In some crucial respects, it resembles the adult language. The sounds he produces are in long sequences of vowels and consonants such [pa pa pa], [ma ma ma], or [wa wa wa]. For one thing, babbled sequences are not linked to immediate biological needs like food or physical comfort; and those are frequently uttered in isolation for pleasure.

Babbling has at least two functions. Firstly, it serves primarily as practice for later speech. In this relation, a newborn child has been equipped with a language acquisition

device and speech organs. These enable him to speak a language that is, of course, preceded by producing speech sounds. The sounds created in this period seem to include a large variety of sounds, many of which do not occur in the language of the household.

3. Holophrastic Stage

In this stage of language acquisition, a child begins to understand a word as a link between sound and meaning. The words they acquire are the words that are most common in his everyday environment. The words show tremendous variability in pronunciation. Some may be perfect adult productions; others may be so distorted that they only to the child's closest companions. Still, others vary in their pronunciation from one occasion to the next. Because of his instability, psychologists have come to believe that children do not show an understanding of phonemes in their first words. Let us consider the one-year-old child who pronounces *bottle* as [ba] and *daddy* as [da].

A child begins to use the same string of sounds repeatedly to "mean" the same thing. At this point, he has learned that sounds are related to meanings and he is producing his first words. Most children seem to go through the "one = one sentence" stage. These one-word sentences are called **holophrastic sentences.**

4. Two-Word Stage

In this stage, around the time of a child's second birthday, he begins to produce two-word utterances. At first, these appear to be strings of two of the child's earlier holophrastic utterances (one-word sentences). At 18 months or so, many children start to produce two- and three-word utterances. These kinds of utterances are used for some purposes, such as requesting, warning, answering to question, informing refusing, etc. For instance, an utterance 'want cookie' (= I want a cookie) is meant to request; and 'red car' is intended to inform that the car is red (Steinberg, 1997: 7-8)

5. Telegraph Speech

The utterances of children longer than two words have unique characteristics. The small function words such as to, the, a, can, is, etc. are missing; only the words that carry the main message, namely: the content words are used. The utterances like 'cat stand up the table,' 'what that?', and ' no sit here,' etc. are lack of the function words. These are why they are called **telegraphic speeches.**

The telegraphic speech includes only morphemes and words that carry valuable semantic content. Gradually a child will begin to include function morphemes (bound morphemes) in his or her utterances. Children acquire them in a logical order. The present progressive verbal suffix–ing (*walking*) appears in children's speech before the third person present marker –s (as in *she walks*), and this marker –s is acquired well before the past tense marker –ed (as in *walked*). Around the time –ing appears. The suffix –s referring to the plurality (as in *shoes*), the possession (as in *John's*), and the present tense with the third person subject (as in *he walks)* are required, respectively.

At first, children's speech does not show plurality. This is to say that no plural marker is used at all. Nouns only appear in their singular forms. Next, irregular plural forms may appear for a while; a child may say instead of *man.* Then he discovers the morpheme –s and applies it to make plurality.
In some cases, overgeneralization occurs when he says *mans*. Then, he is able to produce plural forms correctly, except for irregular ones. Plurality is learned gradually.

Language and the Brain

In relation to human ability for language it is necessary to know something about the say the brain controls language. The following discussion shows some of the aspects of the way our brains store and use language.

1. Physical Features of the Brain

There are four major parts of the brain. They are –from the top of the spine upwards- medulla oblongata, the pons Varolii, the cerebellum and the cerebral cortex (cerebrum). These parts of the brain form an integrated whole by means of connected tissue in that order. The first three are concerned with essentially physical functions, including breathing, heartbeat, transmission, and coordination of movement, involuntary reflexes, digestion, emotional arousal, etc. The cerebral cortex is a layer of grooved, wrinkled and winding tissue.

The cerebral cortex is characterized by a division into halves, called hemispheres, which are connected by tissue called the corpus callosum. The corpus callosum is a connector for the hemispheres, and at the same time, the principal integrator of the mental processes carried out in the two hemispheres (the right and the left hemispheres).

The connections between the brain and the body are contralateral. This is to say that the left hemisphere controls the right side of the body, while the left side of the body is controlled by the right hemisphere. The contralateral connection also means that sensory information from the right side of the body is received by the left hemisphere, while the right hemisphere receives sensory information from the left side of the body.

2. Lateralization

The lateralization of language is related to the areas of the brain which are involved in the use of language. Language centers predominate in the left hemisphere in right-handed people and sometimes in the right hemisphere for left-handed people. The main language centers in the left hemisphere are Broca's areas (in the front part of the brain), Wernicke's area (towards the back), and the angular gyrus (which is even further back). (Seinberg, 1997: 180).

Each side of hemispheres fo the brain performs different cognitive functions. Damage to the left side of the brain resulted in impaired language ability while damage to the right side of the brain did not influence language ability. People with damage to the left hemisphere experience aphasia, an inability to perceive, process or produce language because of physical damage of the brain (Language Files, p. 228).

Language is lateralized; that the left hemisphere is the location of abilities that are used in producing language while the right hemisphere is essentially devoid of such

cognitive abilities. The split-brain persons, for instance, still could use speech and write in the disconnected left hemisphere but their right hemisphere had little such capacity (Seinberg, 1997: 181).

3. The Critical Period

By a critical period or age is meant here an age beyond which language learning will be difficult or even impossible (Seinberg, 1997: 184). It is also referred to as 'the period of time from birth to puberty.' A child must learn a language during this period to gain normal, native competence in the language. In this period, the children's left hemisphere is open to language learning. As the child's brain matures and the patterns of neural activity become set, the readiness for language learning which was once present becomes less and less available. This will result that it becomes much more difficult to learn a second language after the critical period than it was as a child; that children who learn two or more languages during the critical period usually can speak the languages without an accent; and that if a child is not exposed to language during childhood he/she may become impossible to learn language (Language Files, 229).

Bilingualism

Some experts have different views on bilingualism. Let us look at William F. Mackey's review on the term bilingualism, as follows: The concept of bilingualism has become broader and broader since the beginning of the century. It was long regarded as an equal mastery of two languages. Bloomfield considered bilingualism as "the native-like control of two languages." Haugen broadened this to the ability to produce "complete meaningful utterances in the other language."

Moreover, it has been now been suggested that the concept be further extended to include simply "passive-knowledge" of the written language or any "contact with possible models in a second language and the ability to use these in the environment of the native language. This broadening of the concept of bilingualism is due to the realization that the point at which a speaker of a second language becomes bilingual is either arbitrary or impossible to determine. It seems obvious, therefore, that if we are to study the phenomenon of bilingualism, we are forced to consider it as something relative. We must moreover include the use not only of two languages but also of any number of languages. We shall, therefore, consider bilingualism as the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual (Mackey, in Fishman, ed., 1972: 555).

In the previous chapter, bilingualism and its aspects have been discussed. The discussion on bilingualism is related to the socio-cultural aspects. Now, we discuss it with the psychological aspects.

From the viewpoints of psycholinguistics, the first and foremost question in relation to bilingualism is how two or more languages are acquired or learned. Children acquire two or more languages when they are exposed to these languages early in life. Typically, they are exposed to one language at home and another outside the home. Under such conditions, they eventually become more proficient in the language spoken outside than inside the home (Taylor, 329-330).

Based on the concepts of bilingualism above, we can see that there is a distinction between one given by Bloomfield and the other ones given by another expert. Bloomfield's definition of bilingualism as "*the native-like control of two languages*" implies the same fluency and accuracy as those of language used by each of its native speakers. Furthermore, Bloomfield states: "In the extreme case of foreign-language learning the speaker becomes so proficient as to be indistinguishable from the native speaker around him. This happens occasionally in adult shifts of language and frequently in the childhood shift ….. In these cases where this perfect foreign-language learning is not accompanied by loss of the native language, it results in bilingualism, native-like control of two languages" (Bloomfield, 1935:56

1. Advantage of Bilingualism

To be a bilingual speaker may be a necessity for a human being. A language is used by its speakers for the sake of communication and interaction. Initially, a newborn child tries to master one language used in his immediate social environments such as family (father and mother) and surrounding people. In the age of pre-elementary school, he may have a mastery of one language; or, he may have a mastery of his mother tongue or native language. At the age level, he can be said as being a monolingual speaker. For him, to be able to use one language is sufficient. In the next development, when he wants to go to elementary school, the new social environment 'forces' him to learn another language until he has a mastery of the language (Indonesian language, for example). When he can be stated as having a mastery of the Indonesian language, he is called a bilingual speaker. To be a bilingual speaker for a young child is beneficial. This is because the brain functions of a young child are more plastic than those of older people. Young children, especially in the first six years or so, maybe considered as in the critical period for language acquisition, especially for phonology and basic syntax (Taylor, 332). Most people consider bilingualism as something functional. For one thing, knowledge of another language enables them to communicate with members of other cultures. This provides a means for cooperation and understanding among nations and people (Steinberg, 1997: 246).

2. Disadvantage of Bilingualism

Some children have an opportunity to acquire a second language at school. The schoolchildren acquire a second language by being taught in a program, that is, by learning most of all school subjected in a second language; the native language may or may not be taught as a school subject. They acquire a second language mainly by exposure (Taylor, 1997: 338). Does learning a second language at an early age, while the child is still in the process of acquiring the native or first language, have a negative effect on a child's intelligence, thinking ability, creativity or cognitive areas. Research tended to find a negative impact (Steinberg, 247). In this relation, Taylor argues that bilinguals are slower than monolinguals, even when they are strongly dominant in one language, and trilinguals are still slower than bilinguals. The reasons can be : (1) a bilingual uses each language less frequently than a monolingual uses one language, (2) the two languages interfere with each other, (3) a bilingual has the extra cognitive tasks of determining which of two alternative linguistic systems he needs to use and of choosing one of the two, and (4) a bilingual's

vocabulary is enormous, as it includes words from two languages. By knowing and using two languages, bilingual faces a peculiar linguistic, cognitive problem. This problem may be in the form of language switching or interference.

Conclusion

Psycholinguistics, among other things, studies how a language is acquired or learned, and then used. In this case, it covers the topics of language acquisition and language learning, language and brain, and bilingualism (as a result of learning two or more languages.

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