

Nanik Mariani
Fatchul Mu'in & Yusuf Al Arief

AN INTRODUCTION TO
LINGUISTICS

Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni
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An Introduction to Linguistics

Nanik Mariani, Fatchul Mu'in & Yusuf Al Arief

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Nanik Mariani, Fatchul Mu'in & Yusuf Al Arief

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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 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 the relationship between psychology and linguistics can be observed through different psychological perspectives applied to language study. These are Behaviorist psychology and Cognitive psychology.

Behaviorist psychology associated with figures like B.F. Skinner, views language as a form of human behavior. It focuses on observable behaviors and emphasizes the role of environmental stimuli and reinforcement in language acquisition and use. In this perspective, language activities are seen as learned behaviors through conditioning and shaping processes. Behaviorist theories have contributed to understanding language learning through concepts such as operant conditioning, imitation, and reinforcement.

Cognitive psychology examines language from the perspective of cognitive processes, including attention, memory, perception, and problem-solving. Language acquisition and use are considered as complex cognitive activities involving mental representations, processing, and comprehension. Cognitive theories explore how individuals acquire linguistic knowledge, organize language in their minds, and generate and understand sentences. This perspective emphasizes the role of mental processes, such as attention, memory, and problem-solving skills, in language learning and production.

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. Nativism, associated with linguist Noam Chomsky, proposes that humans have an innate language acquisition device (LAD) or a universal grammar that is biologically inherited. According to this view, the ability to acquire and use language is genetically determined and specific to humans. Nativists argue that the human brain is pre-wired with linguistic knowledge and principles, which facilitate language learning. They believe that the universal grammar provides the foundational structures and rules that allow children to acquire language rapidly and effortlessly.

The rationalist perspective, often associated with philosopher René Descartes, emphasizes the role of the human mind or reason in acquiring knowledge, including language. Rationalists argue that knowledge is not solely derived from sensory experience but also originates from innate cognitive processes and mental faculties. From this perspective, language acquisition is viewed as a result of innate cognitive abilities and reasoning, with the human mind being the source of knowledge.

Both the nativist and rationalist perspectives share the belief that language acquisition is influenced by innate factors. While the nativist perspective specifically highlights the role of the LAD and universal grammar, the rationalist perspective emphasizes the role of the human mind and reasoning abilities.

It's important to note that these perspectives have been influential in shaping the study of language acquisition and have spurred considerable debate and research. Contemporary theories and research often incorporate elements from both perspectives, acknowledging the interplay between innate factors and environmental influences in language development. The field of language acquisition continues to explore the complex interaction between genetic predispositions, cognitive processes, and environmental input in the acquisition and use of language.

Rationalists, including Descartes, argue that knowledge is not solely derived from sensory experience but also originates from innate cognitive processes and mental faculties. However, the concept of "innate ideas" is more associated with philosophers like Plato and Descartes, rather than Chomsky's linguistic theories. Innate ideas refer to the belief that certain fundamental concepts or knowledge are present in the mind from birth.

The notion of the LAD is specifically associated with Chomsky's nativist perspective rather than rationalism. Chomsky proposed the existence of a hypothetical innate language faculty or LAD that enables children to acquire language effortlessly. According to Chomsky, the LAD provides children with the ability to grasp the universal grammatical principles underlying all languages.

Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance is a fundamental concept in his linguistic theories. Competence refers to the underlying knowledge of language and its rules possessed by native speakers, while performance refers to the actual use of language in specific contexts, which may be influenced by various factors such as memory limitations or speech errors.

Chomsky introduced the concepts of deep structure and surface structure to explain the transformational rules involved in language production and comprehension. Deep structure refers to the abstract underlying representation of a sentence's meaning, while surface structure represents the actual syntactic form of a sentence as it is spoken or written.

In summary, while there are connections between rationalism and Chomsky's linguistic theories, it is important to distinguish between the specific ideas associated with each. Rationalism emphasizes the role of the mind and innate ideas in acquiring knowledge, while Chomsky's nativist perspective focuses on the innate language faculty (LAD) and the distinction between competence and performance, as well as the concepts of deep and surface structures in language analysis.

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.

the empiricist perspective, as exemplified by philosopher John Locke, posits that all knowledge is derived from experiences or the socio-cultural environment. According to Locke's concept of "*tabula rasa*" or the blank slate, individuals are born without innate knowledge or ideas. Instead, their minds are like empty vessels that are shaped and filled through sensory experiences and interactions with the surrounding environment.

Locke's notion of *tabula rasa* suggests that individuals acquire knowledge and develop their understanding of the world through perception, observation, and learning from their experiences. In this view, language acquisition is seen as a result of exposure to linguistic input and the gradual accumulation of linguistic knowledge through social interactions and environmental stimuli.

Empiricists emphasize the role of sensory experiences, social interactions, and cultural contexts in shaping an individual's knowledge, including language proficiency. They argue that language learning and development occur through observation, imitation, reinforcement, and conditioning, rather than being predetermined by innate structures or abilities.

It's important to note that contemporary perspectives on language acquisition and cognitive development often take into account a combination of both innate and experiential factors. The nature-nurture debate continues to be a topic of interest and research in understanding the complex interplay between genetic predispositions, cognitive processes, and environmental influences in language acquisition and overall

knowledge acquisition.

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

When an infant is born, he can only produce sound through crying. At the time of birth, infants do not possess fully developed speech capabilities. Therefore, their early vocalizations are primarily limited to crying, which serves to communicate their discomfort or needs. In addition, crying is a reflexive behavior that helps infants attract attention and elicit caregiving from adults.

However, it's important to note that infants are born with the potential for language acquisition. They have the innate ability to perceive and discriminate speech sounds from their environment. Through exposure to spoken language and interaction with caregivers, infants gradually develop their ability to produce and understand language.

In the early stages of language development, infants coo, and babble. Cooing typically occurs around 2-3 months of age when infants produce vowel-like sounds while babbling emerges around 6-8 months and involves the production of consonant-vowel combinations (e.g., "bababa," "mamama"). These early vocalizations serve as building blocks for later language development.

As infants continue to grow and interact with their caregivers and the surrounding environment, they acquire the necessary linguistic knowledge and motor skills to produce more complex speech sounds and eventually develop spoken language abilities.

~~It is worth mentioning that language development is a gradual and individual~~

process, with significant variations among infants. Therefore, the timeline and progression of language milestones can differ from one child to another.

Babbling

At the age of six months, children in all cultures begin to babble. Babbling is a common milestone in language development that typically emerges across cultures around six months of age. At this stage, infants start producing repetitive syllable-like sounds, often involving consonants and vowels. Babbling is an important precursor to spoken language and reflects the infant's exploration and vocalization experimentation.

The nature of babbling can vary among infants and cultures. For example, some infants may engage in reduplicated babbling, where they repeat the same syllable (e.g., "bababa" or "dadada"). In contrast, others may engage in variegated babbling, where they produce different syllables in a string (e.g., "bagidu" or "mamadaba"). These early vocalizations help infants develop their oral motor skills, coordinate articulatory movements, and gain familiarity with the sounds and rhythms of their native language.

Interestingly, while the timing of babbling onset is consistent across cultures, the specific sounds and patterns produced during babbling may reflect the phonetic characteristics of the languages infants are exposed to. The speech sounds, and language patterns influence infants in their environment, and their babbling gradually begins to resemble the speech patterns of their native language.

Babbling serves as an important stepping stone in language development, leading to the eventual production of meaningful words and sentences as infants continue to acquire and refine their language skills through further exposure, interaction, and language input from their caregivers and community.

Babbling refers to the child's effort to produce sounds using speech organs. According to Fromkin and Rodman (248), the sounds produced in this period seem to include the sounds of human languages. Some linguists believe that babbling plays a vital role in normal language acquisition. They view it as a necessary step in developing speech and language skills. According to this perspective, babbling allows infants to explore and practice a wide range of sounds, including those that may not be present in the language spoken in their environment. This diverse babbling experience is thought to contribute to the development of phonological awareness, motor coordination, and eventual mastery of the specific sounds of their native language.

On the other hand, some linguists consider babbling to be less central to language development. While they acknowledge that babbling can serve as a valuable learning experience, they argue that other factors, such as social interaction, exposure to meaningful language input, and cognitive development, are equally or more important for language acquisition. In addition, these linguists emphasize that some children who experience atypical language development, such as deaf children or children born to non-speaking parents, may still acquire language successfully despite variations or limitations in their

babbling.

2. Holophrastic Stage

In this stage of language acquisition, a child begins to understand a word as a link between sound and meaning. During the stage of language acquisition, typically known as the one-word or holophrastic stage, a child begins to understand that words connect sounds and their corresponding meanings. This stage usually occurs around 12 to 18 months of age. At this stage, children start associating specific words with objects, actions, or concepts in their environment. In addition, they begin to comprehend that certain sounds or vocalizations others make have consistent meanings. For example, they may recognize that when someone says "dog," it refers to the furry animal they see or interact with. It's important to note that children's receptive language skills (understanding of words and language) typically develop ahead of their expressive language skills (ability to produce words and language). Therefore, they often understand more words than they can actively use in their own speech.

This understanding of words as the connection between sound and meaning is an essential milestone in language development. It sets the foundation for future language growth as children continue to expand their vocabulary, refine their understanding of word meanings, and develop more complex language skills, including syntax and grammar.

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**.

3. Two-Word Stage

In this stage, around the time of a child's second birthday, they typically enter the stage of language development known as the two-word or telegraphic stage. During this stage, children begin to produce two-word utterances as they expand their linguistic abilities. Initially, these two-word utterances may seem like strings of the child's earlier one-word sentences or holophrases. For example, instead of saying "more milk," a child might say "more drink" or "want milk." The child uses basic word combinations to express their needs, desires, or observations in a simplified manner.

By around 18 months of age, many children start producing two- and three-word utterances. In addition, they begin to combine words more creatively and exhibit an increasing understanding of basic sentence structure. For instance, they might say, "Mommy eat cookie," or "Daddy go work."

Children are actively acquiring and experimenting with grammar and syntax during this stage. While their sentences may be shorter and lack certain grammatical elements, such as articles or verb inflections, they convey meaning and reflect their growing understanding of language rules and structures.

The two- and three-word utterances are important in language development as

children move beyond single-word expressions and start constructing simple sentences. The emergence of two- and three-word utterances is a significant milestone in language development. It signifies a transition from single-word expressions to the construction of simple sentences, marking an important step forward in a child's language proficiency.

These multi-word utterances allow children to express more complex thoughts, convey relationships between objects or actions, and communicate their needs and experiences with greater clarity. By combining words, children can express a variety of meanings and engage in more sophisticated communication with others.

Two- and three-word utterances demonstrate that children are developing an understanding of basic grammatical structures and syntactic rules. They begin to grasp concepts such as word order, noun phrases, verb phrases, and the use of prepositions. Although their sentences may still be simplified and lack certain grammatical markers, they convey meaning effectively within their linguistic abilities.

As children continue to engage in conversations and receive language input from their caregivers and the environment, their multi-word utterances become more complex and grammatically sophisticated. They acquire a broader vocabulary, improve their sentence structures, and refine their language skills.

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)

4. 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**.

When children progress beyond two-word utterances in their language development, their speech often exhibits characteristics known as telegraphic speech. In telegraphic speech, children focus primarily on content words, which carry the main message or meaning of the utterance, while omitting or simplifying function words and grammatical markers. Telegraphic speech is characterized by the following features:

Children tend to omit small function words such as articles (e.g., "the," "a"), prepositions (e.g., "to," "on"), auxiliary verbs (e.g., "can," "is"), and pronouns (e.g., "he," "she"). These function words serve grammatical purposes but do not carry significant semantic content. Instead, children prioritize content words, typically nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Content words carry the essential meaning and convey the main message of the utterance. Telegraphic speech often has simplified sentence structures and needs more complex grammatical constructions. Children may use simple word order, omit or misuse grammatical markers, and rely on basic subject-verb-object patterns. The term "telegraphic" refers to the concise and telegraphic nature of these utterances, resembling

the telegram messages of the past, which required a limited number of words to convey a message. The focus is on conveying the core message using essential content words. It is important to note that telegraphic speech is a normal and expected stage in language development for young children. It reflects their increasing ability to combine words and communicate meaning while they are still acquiring and refining their knowledge of grammar and syntax. As children continue to develop their language skills, they gradually incorporate more functional words and grammatical structures into their speech, leading to more grammatically complete and complex sentences.

Language and the Brain

In relation to human ability for language it is necessary to know something about the way 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 brain consists of several major parts, each with its specific functions. These parts work together to control various bodily functions and cognitive processes. Here is a brief overview of the four major features you mentioned.

The first is Medulla Oblongata. Located at the base of the brainstem, the medulla oblongata is responsible for vital functions such as controlling involuntary actions like breathing, heart rate, blood pressure, and digestion. In addition, it serves as a connection between the spinal cord and the rest of the brain.

The second is Pons Varolii. The pons is located above the medulla oblongata and relays signals between different parts of the brain, including the cerebellum and cerebral cortex. It is involved in functions such as sleep, respiration, and facial movement.

The third is Cerebellum. The cerebellum is located below the cerebral cortex at the back of the brain. It is primarily responsible for coordinating and regulating voluntary movements, balance, posture, and motor learning. It helps with precise and smooth moves and contributes to muscle coordination and control.

The last is Cerebral Cortex (Cerebrum). The cerebral cortex is the brain's outer layer and is highly folded and wrinkled, forming characteristic grooves and bumps. It involves higher cognitive functions, including sensory perception, conscious thought, reasoning, language processing, memory, and decision-making. It is divided into two hemispheres (left and right), each with specialized functions and interconnected regions.

The cerebral cortex is further divided into different lobes, including the frontal, parietal, temporal, and occipital. Each lobe has specific roles in processing different types of sensory information and coordinating various cognitive functions. It's important to note that this is a simplified overview, and the brain is an incredibly complex organ with interconnected

structures and functions. The interaction between these brain regions and their networks enables the diverse range of abilities and functions the human brain exhibits.

2. Lateralization

The lateralization of language is related to the areas of the brain which are involved in the use of language (Seinberg, 1997: 180). Language lateralization refers to the phenomenon where language functions are predominantly located in specific areas of the brain, primarily the left hemisphere for most right-handed individuals and, to some extent, in the right hemisphere for some left-handed individuals. This specialization of language centers in the brain is known as hemispheric dominance.

The main language centers associated with language processing are. The first is related to Broca's Area. It is located in the frontal lobe, typically in the left hemisphere; Broca's area is involved in language production, specifically in the planning and execution of speech. Damage to this area can result in expressive or motor aphasia, where individuals have difficulty producing fluent speech. The second is related to Wernicke's Area. It is found in the temporal lobe, usually in the left hemisphere; Wernicke's area is associated with the comprehension and understanding of language. It plays a crucial role in language comprehension and semantic processing. Damage to this area can lead to receptive or sensory aphasia, causing difficulties in understanding spoken or written language. The third is related to Angular Gyrus: situated in the parietal lobe, the angular gyrus is involved in various language-related processes, such as reading, writing, and the integration of auditory and visual information. For example, it plays a role in linking visual representations of words to their meaning and assists in reading comprehension.

While the left hemisphere is typically dominant for language functions, it's important to note that language processing is a complex and distributed process involving interactions between multiple brain regions. In addition, the right hemisphere also contributes to certain aspects of language processing, such as prosody (intonation, rhythm) and some aspects of discourse comprehension.

Individual variations in brain organization and lateralization can occur. For example, in some cases, language functions can be more distributed or even predominantly located in the right hemisphere for left-handed individuals or individuals with atypical brain organization. Overall, language lateralization reflects the specialized neural networks and regions involved in language processing, with a general tendency for language centers to be primarily located in the brain's left hemisphere.

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). The concept of a critical period in language learning refers to a specific age range during which individuals are thought to have optimal language acquisition conditions. There is a limited window of opportunity for language acquisition, and beyond this period, language learning becomes more challenging or less successful. While the exact timing and duration of the critical period are still subject to debate, it is generally believed that the critical period for language acquisition occurs during early childhood, typically before puberty.

During this period, children are highly receptive to language input and can acquire languages more effortlessly and naturally. They can acquire grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and language use without explicit instruction. If language learning is delayed until after the critical period, it is often considered more difficult and may require more effort and formal instruction. As a result, the ability to acquire native-like proficiency in a second language decreases, and learners may exhibit persistent difficulties in certain aspects of language, such as pronunciation or grammar.

It is important to note that the critical period hypothesis is a generalization and does not mean that language learning is impossible beyond a certain age. Individuals can still learn and become proficient in a second language even after the critical period. However, the degree of proficiency and ease of acquisition may vary compared to learning in early childhood. The critical period hypothesis has been supported by various studies and observations of language acquisition, but it is also a topic of ongoing research and discussion in linguistics and cognitive science.

Bilingualism

Psycholinguistics offers various views on bilingualism, examining how bilingual individuals acquire, process, and use multiple languages. Here are a few key perspectives. First, it is related to Separate Language Systems. This view suggests that bilingual individuals have two different language systems in their minds. Each language is represented separately, with different lexicons, grammatical rules, and processing mechanisms. According to this view, bilinguals switch between languages based on context and activate the appropriate language system for communication.

It is related to Integrated Language Systems. In contrast to the separate language systems view, this perspective suggests that bilingual individuals have a single integrated language system encompassing both languages. The languages interact and influence each other during language processing. This view emphasizes the interconnectedness of languages and the potential for cross-linguistic transfer and interference.

It is related to Bilingual Advantage. Some research suggests that bilingualism can confer cognitive advantages. For example, bilingual individuals may exhibit enhanced cognitive control, attentional abilities, and problem-solving skills. This advantage is attributed to the constant management and control of two languages, which exercises cognitive processes associated with language switching and inhibitory control.

It is also related to Code-Switching. Code-switching refers to the phenomenon of alternating between two languages within a single conversation or even within a sentence. Psycholinguistic research investigates the cognitive processes involved in code-switching and how bilingual individuals navigate between languages seamlessly. In addition, it

explores factors such as language proficiency, social context, and language dominance in code-switching behavior.

It involves Language Processing Differences. Psycholinguistics examines how bilingual individuals process and access their languages. This includes investigating whether there are differences in lexical access, sentence processing, and syntactic parsing between monolingual and bilingual individuals. In addition, it explores how factors like language proficiency, dominance, and exposure influence language processing patterns.

It is important to note that psycholinguistic research on bilingualism is diverse and ongoing, and different studies may offer different findings and interpretations. Moreover, bilingualism is complex, and individual experiences and language profiles can vary widely. Therefore, the views and findings from psycholinguistics contribute to a broader understanding of the cognitive and linguistic aspects of bilingualism. 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).

1. Advantage of Bilingualism

Psycholinguistics research suggests several advantages of bilingualism from cognitive and linguistic perspectives. There are some key advantages. First is that bilingual individuals often demonstrate enhanced executive functions, which involve cognitive processes such as attention, inhibition, cognitive flexibility, and problem-solving. Managing and switching between two languages on a regular basis requires constant monitoring and control, leading to improved cognitive control abilities. The second is that bilingualism has been associated with better attentional control and selective focus. Bilingual individuals need to constantly monitor and switch between languages, which can enhance their ability to filter out irrelevant information and focus on relevant cues. The third is that bilinguals have shown advantages in problem-solving tasks. The ability to switch between languages and utilize different linguistic and cultural frameworks may contribute to increased cognitive flexibility and creativity in finding solutions to problems. The fourth is that bilingual individuals often have a heightened awareness of language structures and rules. They can reflect on and analyze language more effectively, as they have experience with different grammatical systems and can compare and contrast linguistic features between their languages. The fifth is that bilingualism can lead to enhanced language skills in multiple domains. Bilingual individuals may have a larger vocabulary across both languages and demonstrate more advanced language abilities, such as better language comprehension and production, compared to monolingual individuals. The last, but not least, is that bilingualism provides opportunities for cross-cultural communication and understanding. Bilingual individuals can engage with different cultural communities, appreciate diverse perspectives, and establish connections with a wider range of people.

It is important to note that the advantages of bilingualism can vary depending on factors such as proficiency in the languages, age of acquisition, language use patterns, and cultural context. Additionally, individual experiences and abilities can differ. Nonetheless, psycholinguistic research consistently indicates cognitive and linguistic benefits associated

with bilingualism, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of the advantages of being bilingual. 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).

Psycholinguistic research suggests that bilingualism may also have some potential challenges or disadvantages. It is important to note that these disadvantages are not experienced by all bilingual individuals and can vary depending on factors such as language proficiency, language dominance, and individual experiences. Here are some potential challenges associated with bilingualism.

Language Mixing and Confusion

Bilingual individuals may sometimes experience language mixing or confusion, especially in situations where both languages are used simultaneously or where there is a need to switch between languages quickly. This can result in code-switching errors or difficulties in selecting the appropriate language for a particular context. Language mixing or confusion can occur when bilingual individuals are exposed to both languages simultaneously or when they need to switch between languages rapidly. In such situations, they may unintentionally mix elements from both languages in their speech or struggle to select the appropriate language for a specific context. This can lead to code-switching errors, where they switch between languages mid-sentence or use words or phrases from one language while speaking in the other.

Language mixing or confusion is more likely to happen in informal or bilingual environments where both languages are commonly used. It can be influenced by factors such as language dominance, language proficiency, social context, and individual language strategies. While language mixing may not necessarily impede communication, it can create challenges in maintaining language boundaries or adhering to specific language norms in different contexts.

Vocabulary and Lexical Access

Bilingual individuals may occasionally experience difficulty in word retrieval or have a smaller vocabulary in each language compared to monolingual individuals. This can lead to occasional challenges in finding the right words or expressing oneself precisely in both languages. Bilingual individuals may sometimes encounter difficulties in word retrieval or have a smaller vocabulary in each language compared to monolingual individuals. This can result in occasional challenges when trying to find the right words or express oneself precisely in both languages.

Having a smaller vocabulary in each language can be a natural consequence of dividing language input and usage between two languages. Bilingual individuals may not have the same depth of vocabulary in each language as monolingual speakers who exclusively focus on one language. As a result, they may occasionally struggle to recall specific words or find equivalents across languages.

The challenge of word retrieval can be influenced by several factors, such as language proficiency, frequency of language use, language dominance, and the context in which the individual is communicating. Bilingual individuals may need to actively engage in language learning and exposure to expand their vocabulary in both languages and enhance their word retrieval abilities.

Language Proficiency Imbalance

In some cases, bilingual individuals may have an imbalance in language proficiency, with one language being stronger or more dominant than the other. This imbalance can result in difficulties in certain language tasks or situations where the less dominant language is required. Language proficiency imbalances are common in bilingual individuals, where one language is stronger or more dominant than the other. This can lead to difficulties in certain language tasks or situations that require the use of the less dominant language.

The language dominance or proficiency imbalance can arise due to various factors such as differences in language exposure, educational opportunities, societal influences, or personal preferences. Bilingual individuals may have had more exposure or extensive use of one language in their environment, leading to greater proficiency in that language.

Difficulties may arise when the less dominant language needs to be used in formal settings, academic or professional contexts, or when interacting with individuals who primarily speak that language. Bilingual individuals may experience challenges in expressing themselves accurately, comprehending complex language structures, or using specialized vocabulary in their less dominant language.

Language Switching Costs

While bilingual individuals generally exhibit efficient language switching abilities, there can still be cognitive costs associated with language switching. Switching between languages requires additional mental effort and can briefly disrupt fluency or cause processing delays. Language switching in bilingual individuals comes with cognitive costs. While bilinguals often exhibit efficient language switching abilities, there can still be cognitive demands and consequences associated with the process. Switching between languages requires additional mental effort and can temporarily disrupt fluency or cause

processing delays.

When bilingual individuals switch between languages, they need to engage cognitive control mechanisms to select the appropriate language and inhibit interference from the non-target language. This cognitive control involves monitoring language cues, suppressing the activation of the non-target language, and activating the target language.

The cognitive costs of language switching can manifest as processing delays or "switching costs." Bilingual individuals may experience a brief pause or slower response time when transitioning between languages, especially in tasks that involve language production or comprehension. This can be particularly evident when the language context changes abruptly or when the demands of the task require frequent language switching.

Language Interference

Bilingual individuals may experience interference between their two languages, particularly in areas such as pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary. Interference can lead to occasional errors or influences from one language affecting the other. Certainly, interference between the two languages is a common phenomenon experienced by bilingual individuals. Interference refers to the influence of one language on the other, resulting in occasional errors or instances where features from one language affect the use of the other language.

Interference can manifest in various aspects of language, such as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or even language usage conventions. For example, a bilingual individual may inadvertently pronounce certain sounds or words in a way that aligns with the patterns of their other language. They might also use grammatical structures or word order that reflect the rules of one language while speaking the other.

Vocabulary interference can occur when bilingual individuals mix or borrow words from one language into their speech in the other language. They may also experience occasional difficulties in finding equivalent words or expressions due to the influence of one language dominating their mental lexicon.

Interference is more likely to occur when the two languages have similar linguistic features or when the bilingual individual is not yet fully proficient or experienced in managing the two languages separately. It tends to be more common in early stages of language acquisition or when there is limited exposure or practice in maintaining both languages.

Cultural Identity and Integration

Bilingual individuals may navigate challenges related to cultural identity and integration. They may need to negotiate between different cultural and linguistic communities, potentially experiencing cultural adaptation or identity conflicts. The bilingual individuals may encounter challenges related to cultural identity and integration. Being proficient in multiple languages often means having connections to different cultural and linguistic communities, which can lead to a complex interplay of cultural identity and a need to navigate between diverse social contexts.

Bilingual individuals may need to negotiate their cultural identities, finding a balance between their heritage culture and the culture of the community they live in. This can involve adapting to different cultural norms, values, and expectations, and sometimes reconciling conflicting cultural practices or beliefs. The process of cultural adaptation may

involve adopting new cultural behaviors, modifying existing ones, or creating a unique blend of cultural expressions.

Furthermore, bilingual individuals may experience identity conflicts or challenges when they find themselves in environments where their bilingualism is not fully understood, appreciated, or accepted. They may encounter stereotypes, prejudices, or discriminatory attitudes based on their linguistic or cultural background. Such experiences can influence their self-perception and may require resilience and self-affirmation to maintain a positive sense of identity.

It is important to emphasize that the disadvantages of bilingualism are not inherent or universal, but rather potential challenges that can be overcome through language learning strategies, increased exposure to both languages, and continued language development. The benefits of bilingualism generally outweigh the potential disadvantages, and many bilingual individuals successfully navigate and adapt to the complexities of using multiple languages.

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).

Psycholinguistics is a field of study that examines the psychological processes involved in language acquisition, language learning, language production, and language comprehension. It explores how individuals acquire and use language, as well as the cognitive mechanisms and brain processes that underlie these abilities.

In the area of language acquisition, psycholinguistics investigates how children acquire their first language and the cognitive processes involved in language development. It examines the stages of language acquisition, the role of input and exposure in language learning, and the innate linguistic capacities that facilitate language acquisition.

Language learning, on the other hand, focuses on how individuals acquire additional languages beyond their first language. Psycholinguistic research in language learning investigates factors such as age of acquisition, individual differences, language aptitude, and the impact of instructional methods on second language acquisition.

The study of language and the brain in psycholinguistics explores the neural mechanisms involved in language processing. It investigates how different regions of the brain support various aspects of language, such as speech perception, syntax processing, semantic understanding, and language production. Techniques such as brain imaging (e.g., fMRI) and neuropsychological studies of individuals with language impairments (e.g., aphasia) contribute to our understanding of the neural basis of language.

Bilingualism is another significant area of study within psycholinguistics. It examines how individuals acquire and use two or more languages, investigating the cognitive processes involved in bilingual language production, comprehension, and language switching. Psycholinguistic research in bilingualism explores topics such as language dominance, language proficiency, language interference, and the effects of bilingualism on cognitive functions.

Overall, psycholinguistics offers valuable insights into the cognitive and neural mechanisms underlying language acquisition, language learning, language processing, and bilingualism, contributing to our understanding of how humans acquire, use, and process language.

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