AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

(Teaching and Learning Material)

Nanik Mariani & Fatchul Mu'in

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Telp.: (0274) 387194, 7472110
Faks.: (0274) 417762
e-mail: elkispelangi@yahoo.com

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Nanik Mariani & Fatchul Mu'in

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PREFACE

The book entitled *An Introduction to Linguistics (Teaching and Learn ing Material)* 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 Gramma, Semantics, Sociolinguistics, and Psycholinguistics.* In *What is a language* the writers elaborate the definition and concept of *Human Language* and *Animal Language.* In *Characteristics of 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 own speakers.*"

In *Linguistics and Language Teaching* they present d*efinition 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 differenciate *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*, dan *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 *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 anda (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 discussed. The other sub-topic includes brief description on *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 delition.

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

The Writers

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
Topic 1 : What is Language?
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on a language. In this case, some concepts relating to the topics are presented here such as human language vs animal 'language', characteristics of language, and functions of language. Your und erstanding on the topic will be useful for studying the next topics.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of language b. on differences of human language and animal 'language' c. on characteristics of human language; d. on functions of language; e. on the others

Chapter I
WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Language

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 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 (Finocchioro, in Ramelan 1984)
>
> A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication (Wardhaugh, in Ramelan, 1984)
>
> A language is 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 cay 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 other means of communication may use sounds as its medium. In short, a means of communication 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 characteristics of human language, as follows:

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

A language is *systematic.*

Since a language is said to be a system, it must be systematic in nature. The systematicness 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 certain 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 everyday."* 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.

Language is a highly organized system in which each unit plays an important part which is related to other parts (Boey, 1975 : 1). All human

languages have their own certain characteristics. This is to say, for instance, that a certain language, say *Bahasa Indonesia* or English, has its own system. As a consequence, it has a dual structure, that is: two levels of structure 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 idea 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 main 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 firstly created on the basis of social agreement. In this relation, there is no reasonable explanation, for instance, why a certain four-footed domestic animal is called *dog* in English, *asu* in Javanese, or *anjing* in Indonesian. Giving a name of the animal is really based on the agreement among the members of the social groups. On other words, Javanese, *English and Indonesian* people made an agreement 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. a 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 social context, a language is not only means for communication but also it is an important medium for establishing and maintaining social relationship. For instance, there are two persons sitting in a waiting room of bus station; they begin to introduce and talk to each other. In short, they know each other. At the time of introducing, talking and knowing each other, they establish social relationship and they will probably maintain their social relationship in future time. Establishing and maintaining social relationship must involve the use of language.

A language is *spoken*.

Basically, a language is always spoken. This statement implies that all people the world over, regardless of their race or ethnic group, always speak a language. This means that they always 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, as 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 that fifty feet. Another weakness is that speech signals are gone without trace as soon as they are uttered. Nowadays, the spoken language can be recorded using tape recorder.

Another means of communicating ideas, that is the use of 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 certain 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. Beside it is used for establishing and maintaining social relationship, 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 recognize some terms of water transportation means such as *jukung, klotok, ketinting,* etc. Javenese people recognize some terms

such *pari, gabah, beras, and nasi*; meanwhile English people know them as *rice*.

An expressive symbol refers to a symbol used by human being to express their emotion. An evaluative symbol refers to a symbol used by 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 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:

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.* The directive function enables him to control the behaviour of others through advice, warnings, requests, persuasion, suggestions, orders, or discussion.
4. *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.
5. *Metalinguistic.* The metalinguistic function enables him to talk about language, for example, "What does ……..mean?"
6. *Imaginative.* 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 major 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 relation to *message,* the

speaker focuses on the message; (e) in relation to *contact,* a (certain) language is used for the initiation, continuation and termination of linguistic encounters; and (f) in relation to *code*, a language is used to talk about the language itself.

Human Language and Animal 'Language'

When human beings come together and then 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 talk to total strangers. They may talk 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 whether a language is the only means of communication or whether all means of communication are known as languages.

A language may be differently perceived by the different people. 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 language and an animal language. The human language may be perceived as having some types such as oral, written and body languages. In relation to 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 as a language.

Human beings are not only species that can communicate among themselves, as animals are often said to possess some kind of communi-

cation 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 different 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 a 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' have 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 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 the various kinds of sounds, by using speech organs. The sounds produced by the speech organs are often called *speech sounds.* The kinds 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 new combination of the 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 communicate 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 the present time, 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 very limited and the sounds is further developed. A dog, for instance, can only produce 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 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. As 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 largely instinctive (Taylor, p. 7). If ability to speak for human beings is culturally learned from their elders, 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 produced by animals. The sounds produced by animals are always the same and remain unchanged. A young animal will produce 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; they are never taught by their elders. A young dog, for instance, has ability to bark without being taught 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 characterstics of a language do not belong to an animal's means of communication.

Exercises

1. What is meant by a language?
2. Mention and explain some characteristics of a language!
3. How do you differ a language and an animal's means of communication?
4. How does a human being acquire a language?

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
Topic 2 : Language in Social Context
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on a language in relation to the socio-cultural context. In this case, some concepts related to the topics are presented here such as language acquisition and language learning, language use in a community, relation of language and society. Your understanding on the topi c will be useful for studying the next topics.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to: (a) answer the questions on the topics discussed, (b) relate linguistic factors to the socio-cultural context, and (c) conduct a simple study on the use of language in the socio-cultural context in their own community.

Chapter II
LANGUAGE IN SOCIAL CONTEXT

Introduction

A discussion of language in social context is focussed on a lan guage acquisition and language learning, significance of language in a community, and relation of language and society. The language acquisition is differentiated from the language learning. The former is unconsciously conducted by a language user, whereas the latter is consciously conducted by a language user. The significance of language in a community is viewed from the viewpoint of its importance in a community; and it is discussed in relation to the three inseparable 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 is able to 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.

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 a means of communication known as *language* is used. By using a language man can express his ideas and wishes to other people such as when he needs their help. There will be a 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 very important. 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 social relationship among speakers of the language. As an illustration, take an example, there are two persons in the waiting room of railway station. At first, they do not know one and another. They, then, begin to make a talk to avoid their boredom. They talk 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 the 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 Indonesian language with a certain accent spoken by people from that part of the country; and the other will probably use the other 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 individual 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 different 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 different occupational code, specialized religious language, secret codes or various kinds, imitative 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, English has only one word for *snow* but Eskimo has several. For English people, it is not necessary to make distinction of *snow* because their physical 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 interact with the other members of the community in accordance with the values 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 happens is through the phenomenon known as taboo. Taboo can be characterized as being concerned with behaviour which is believed to be super-

naturally 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 aggregate 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 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.

Ronald Wardhaugh (1986: 10-11) summaries the relationship between and society. According to him, there are some possible relationships between language and society. *A first one* is that, viewed from the participants, social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure and/or behaviour. For instance, in relation to the age-grading phenomenon, 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 directly opposed to the first: linguistic structure and/or behaviour may either influence or determine social structure. This is supported by the Basil Bernstein's finding on the use of elaborated and restricted codes. This find-

ing 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 community. 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 dialects. 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.

Exercises

1. Explain why English-Speaking people only have one word (rice) to refer what Javanese people call *pari, gabah, beras, sego, etc.*
2. Explain why Banjare-Speaking people only have some words to refer what Javanese people call as *perahu.*
3. Mention vocabularies of English-speaking communities showing their kinship system!
4. Find out some tabooed words both in English and in your own language

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
Topic 3 : Linguistics and Language Teaching
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on a language, linguistics and branches of linguistics. In this case, we will discuss linguistics and language teaching, and branches of linguistics. Your understanding on the topic will be useful for studying the next topics.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of linguistics b. on branches of linguistics c. on linguistics for language teaching; d. on the others

Chapter III
LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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 (if 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 fulfil 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 every thing beyond the scope such as gestures/bodily movement will be ignored. So *explicitness* in defining the subject matter must be conducted in order that we know what must be studied/analyzed and what must be left.

Second, it must be based on an 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 it can be verified by any competent observer or investigator. 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 investigation must be systematically arranged. This must be conducted as an effort to show 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 to develop 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 the 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 braches of linguistics are presented as follows:

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds, which are known more technically as p**hones. Th**is the study highlights, especially, how the speech

sounds produced by using speech organs. It shows mechanisms of how to produce the speech sounds.

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.

Morphology is the study of analyzing the expression system of a language which is concerned with the identification of morphemes and the ways in which they are distributed or combined into longer utterances or morphological constructions.

Syntax is defined as the study on 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 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).

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 containing such rules is called a *generative grammar.* When the rules include transformational rules, we have a **transformational-generative grammar**

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

A 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 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 as the sociology of language.

The study that 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 contexts. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provides 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). Sociolinguitics 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)

A 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, psychology of communication, developmental psychology, educational psychology, and psychology of language. The last branches of psychology is 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 has gone on in 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 the 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 improved from time to time. The various supporting books and textbooks have been written by many writers and those are published by the various publishers. 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 empirical experience shows that many students fail in their English learning and that they regard the language as the difficult subject to learn.

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

Who is wrong in our English teaching, our students, our teachers or others?. Of course, we will not find "who are wrong and what is wrong" in the failure of our English teaching. Because, in fact, 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 important for language teaching because linguistics and language teaching can be likened to the relationship of knowledge about engine and the skill in driving a car. It will be better for the driver to supported with some knowledge about the car 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 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 deeper 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 teaching 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 the scientific study, linguistics can 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 sociocultural and psychological perpectives. All of the aspects are of course useful for language teaching.

Exercises:

1. What is meant by linguistics?
2. As a system, a language has some sub-systems. What are the sub-systems of the language?
3. What are the branches of linguistics om the basis of the sub-systems of the language?
4. In relation to the other fields of study, what are the fields of study applied in the scientific study of language? Mention the branches of linguistics!

LINGUISTICS: AN INTRODUCTION
Topic 4 : The Sounds of Language
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on phonetics, speech sounds, production of speech sounds and vowels, consonants, and d**iphthongs**. This topic covers the concept of phonetics and its branches, mechanisms of producing speech sounds, and English vowels, consonants and diphtongs.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of phonetics. b. on branches of phonetics. c. on mechanisms of producing speech sounds. d. on vowels, consonants and diphtongs

Chapter IV
THE SOUNDS OF LANGUAGE

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.

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: **articulatory phonetics,** which is the study of how speech sounds are made or 'articulated'; **accoustic 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; **auditory phonetics** (or perceptual), which is the study of how speech sounds are heard, deals with the perception via the ear, of speech sounds.

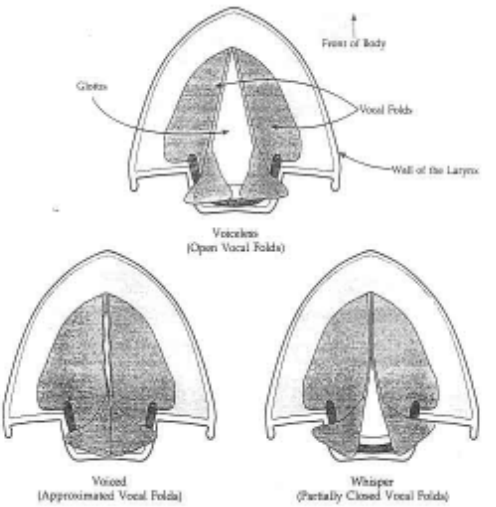
In articulatory phonetics, we investigate how speech sounds are produced using the fairly complex oral equipment we have. We start with the air pushed out by the lungs up through the trachea (the 'windpipe') to the larynx. Inside the larynx are our vocal folds which take two basic positions:

(1) When the vocal folds are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded. Sounds produced in this way are described as **voiceless.**

(2) When the vocal folds 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.**

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 4.1: **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)

Place 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. These symbols will be enclosed within square brackets [ ].

When reading about each of the following points of articulation, refer to Figure 4.2 below:

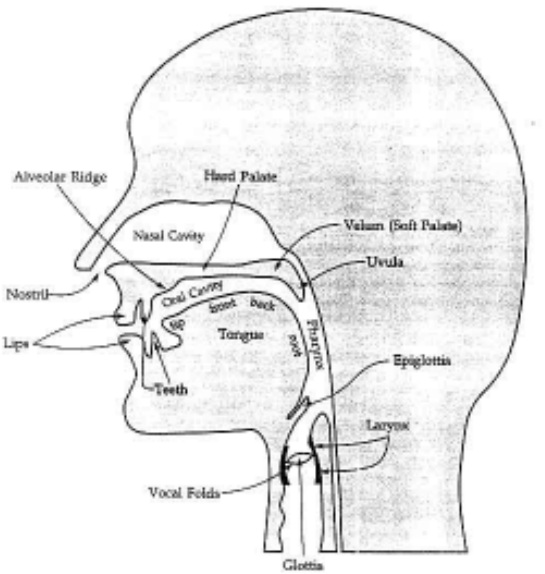
- **Bilabial** – bilabial sounds are made by bringing both lips closer together. There are five such sounds in English: [p] *pat,* which is voiceless, and [b] *bat,* [m] *mat,* which are voiced. The [w] sound found at the beginning of *way, walk,* and *world* is also a bilabial and also [w] *where* (present only in some dialects).
- **Labiodental** – labiodentals consonants are made with the lower lip against the upper front teeth. English has two labiodentals, which are in the initial sounds and in 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*
- **Interdental** – 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 [θ]. 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.*
- **Alveolar** – just behind the upper front teeth there is a small ridge called the **alveolar ridge.** English makes seven sounds with the tongue tip at or near this ridge: [t] *tab*, [d] *dab*, [š] *sip*, [•] *zip*, [n] *nose*, [l] *loose*, and [r] *red.* Of these [t] and [š]are voiceless, whereas [d], [•] and [n] are voiced. It may be clear that the final sounds of the words *bus* and *buzz* have to be [š]and [•]respectively, but what about the final sound of the word *raise*? The spelling is misleading because the final sound in this word is voiced, and so must be represented by [•] Notice also that despite the different spelling of *knot* and *not,* both these words are pronounced with [n] as the initial sound. Other **alveolars** are [l] sound found at the beginning of words such as *lap* and *lit,* and the [r] sound at the beginning of *right, write* and *rip.*
- **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 poste-

rior 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]*lea<u>sh</u>,* [•]*mea<u>s</u>ure,* [è]*hurch,* [ǰ] *judge,* [y] *yes.* (More precisely, [š,•,è], and [ ] are **alveo-palatal** 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.)

- **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 the 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 [ ] sound is at the end of *sing, sang* and, despite the spelling, *tongue.* It would occur twice in the form *ringing.* Be careful not to be misled by the spelling – the word *bang* ends with the [ ] sound only. There is no [g] sound in this word.
- **Glottal** – the space between the vocal folds 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 *have* and *house,* and, for most speakers, as the first sound in *who* and *whose.* This sound is usually described as a voiceless glottal. The 'glottis' is the space between the vocal folds 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 [ʔ]. 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 4.2: **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], [θ], [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 [ž].
- **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 [ ]. [č] is a combination of [t] and [š], and so is sometimes transcribed as [ ] *cheep*. It is a 'voiceless palatal affricate'. [ ] is a combination of [d] and [ž], and is sometimes transcribed as [d] *jeep*, It is a 'voiced affricate'. How would you describe [ ]?
- **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 [ ], the sounds are described as nasals. These three sounds are all voiced. Words like *morning, knitting,* and *name* begin and end with nasals.

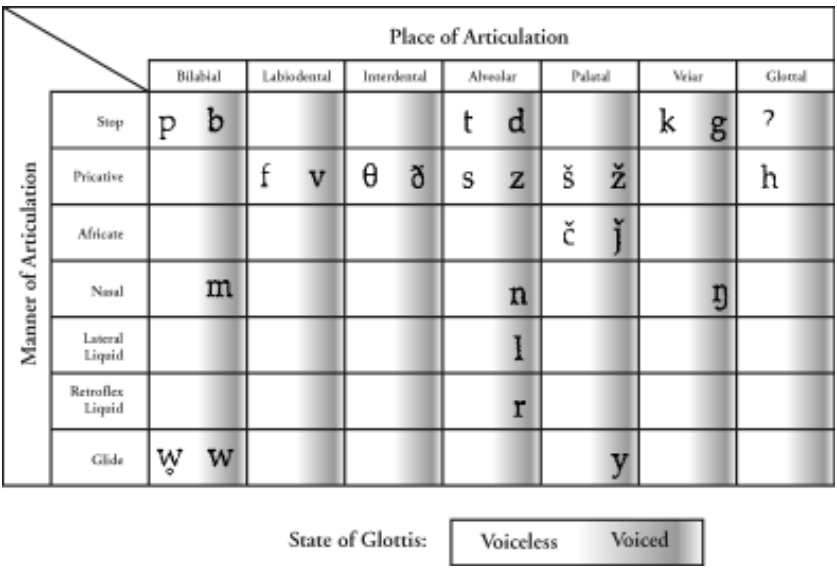
- **Liquids** – when a liquid is produced, there is an obstruction formed by the articulators, but it is not narrow enough to stop the airflow or to cause friction. The [l] in *leaf* is produced by resting the tongue on the alveolar ridge with the airstreams escaping around the side of the tongue. Thus 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 [•].

The chart can also be used to find classes of sounds. For instance, to find all the alveolars, 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 4.3 : The Consonants of 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.

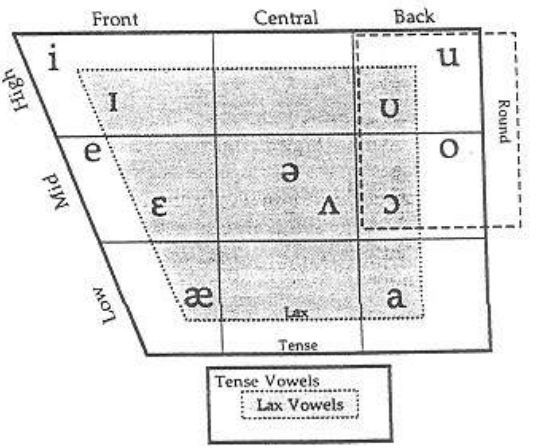
Vocal fold vibration is the sound source for vowels. The vocal tract above the glottis acts as a resonator affecting the sound made by the vocal folds. The shape of this resonator determines the quality of the vowel – [i] vs [u] vs [a], for example.

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 4.4 : The Vowels of English.



Tongue Height

If we repeat to ourselves the vowel sounds of *seat, set, sat* – transcribed [i], [å], [æ] – we will find that we open our mouth a little wider as we change from [i] to [å], and then a little wider still as we change from [å] to [æ]. These varying degrees of openness correspond to different degrees of tongue height: high for [i], mid for [å], 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, 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 [å] of *set* are produced with an intermediate tongue height; in English, these mid vowels are [e, å, Λ, , 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, å, æ] as in *seek, sick, sake, sec, sack,* and retracted or pulled back for the back vowels, [u, U, o, ɔ, a], as in *ooze, look, road, paw, dot.* The central vowels, [ʌ] as in *luck* or [E] 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, 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 [U]. 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 [U] 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 [U].

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
- [ʌ], 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*
- [aU] *how, sow, cow*
- [əU] *no, go, show*
- [ ] *beer, deer, dear*
- [ ] *bear, fair, care*
- [ ] *tour, moor, sure*

Conclusion

In this chapter we have studied about human speech production, they are the **larynx** which contained of the **vocal folds** and the **glottis,** and another is the **vocal tracts** above the larynx, which is composed of the oral and nasal cavities.

In describing a consonant sounds, it is also necessary to state where in the vocal tract a **constriction** is made – that is, where the vocal tract is made more narrow. This is referred to as the sound's **place of articulation** (Bilabial, Labiodental, Interdental, Alveolar, Palatal, Velar, and Glotal). Beside 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 airstream 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). The **Manner of articulation** consists of Stops, Fricatives, Affricates, Nasals, Liquids, and Glides. Therefore, when describing a vowel, it is necessary to provide information about the four aspects of the articulation of the vowel, such as **tongue height, tongue advancement, lip rounding,** and **tenseness.**

Exercises:

1. What are the general terms used to describe the sounds, produced (a) when the vocal folds are drawn together and (b) when the vocal folds are spread apart?
2. Which of the following words end with voiceless and which end with voiced sounds?

   a. touch b. pig c. maze

   d. lip e. lathe f. sit
3. Provide the phonetic symbol representing each of the following sounds.

   a. high front tense unrounded vowel
   b. mid back lax rounded vowel
   c. low back lax unrounded vowel
   e. voiced labiodental fricative
   f. voiceless palatal affricate
   g. voiced velar nasal
4. Transcribe the following words.

   a. cough f. hour k. cookies p. cane

   b. huge g. rhythm l. mother q. wrapped

   c. flood h. monkey m. raspberry r. punch

   d. breathe i. move n. icy s. leather

   e. prays j. mustache o. slyly t. cringe
5. Below is a set of English words with different written forms representing the same sounds in a number of ways. Can you identify the alternative spelling of the sounds [i], [f] and [e]?

   Elephant, rare, marines, pear, hay, feet, quay, air, suit, weigh, giraffe, pier, tough, keys, meat, Sikh.

   How many different ways of spelling the sounds [s], [k], [s] and [å] can you discover?

LINGUISTICS: AN INTRODUCTION
Topic 5 : Phonology
A brief description: In this meeting. you will study some views to make an early understanding on phonetics vs. phonology. phonology and its aspects. This topic covers the concept of phonetics and phonology. phonemes. phones and allophones. minimal pairs and minimal sets. and assimilation and elision
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of phonetics and phonology, b. on phonemes. c. on difference of phonemes from phones d. on assimilation and elision

Chapter V

PHONOLOGY

Both phonetics and phonology can be generally described as the study of speech sounds. **Phonetics,** as we learned in the previous section, is more specifically the study of how speech sounds are produced, their physical properties, and how they are interpreted. **Phonology,** on the other hand, investigates the organization of speech sounds in a particular language.

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 cap-

tured 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] 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 V 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/? 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 [ ] sound in words like *seed* and *seen*. In the second word, the effect of the nasal consonant [n] makes the [ ] sound nasalized. This nasalization can be represented by a diacritic over the symbol, [ ] in narrow phonetic transcription. So, there are at least two phones, [i] and [ĩ], 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 [sô] for *seau,* meaning 'pail', contrasts with [sô] 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 [hig] 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 /Î/ 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 [ ] (a velar) rather than [n] (an alveolar). The most commonly observed 'conversational' version of the phrase is [aykə go]. Notice that the vowel *can* has also changed to [ə] from the isolated-word version [æ]. The vowel sound [ə], 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 [ænd] in isolation, but in the casual use of the phrase *you and me,* you almost certainly say [ən], as in [yuənmi].

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* [frånšIp]. 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 [æsp ks] for *aspects,* or in [him sbi] 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.

Conclusion

We have learned about the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language or usually called as **phonology.** It is concerned with how these sounds are systematically organized in a language, how they are combined to form words, how they are categorized by and interpreted in, the minds of speakers. A class of speech sounds that are identified by a native speakers as the same sound is called **phonemes** (phoneme is a meaningful distinguished sounds in a language). The members of these classes, which are actual phonetic segments produced by a speaker, are called allophones, in other language, if there are at least two **phones**, such as [i] and [i̯], used in English to realize a single phoneme, these phonetic variants are technically known as **allophones.** We also learn about a **minimal pair** which is defined as a pair of words with different meanings, are pronounced exactly the same way except for one sound that differs. For examples, *fan – van, bet – bat, site – side.* 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.*

When two phonemes occur in sequence and some aspects of one phoneme is taken or 'copied' by the other, the process is known as **assimilation.** But when a sound is 'omitted' in the pronunciation of a word, is technically described as **elision.**

Exercises

1. Broadly speaking, how does phonology differ from phonetics?
2. What is the test used for determining phonemes in a language?
3. Which of the following words would be treated as minimal pairs

   Pat, pen, more, heat, tape, bun, fat, ban, chain, tale, bell, far, meal, vote, bet, pit, heel.
4. How does an allophone differ from a phoneme?
5. What processes are involved in the relationships between:
   a. [grand] *grand* and [græmpa] *grandpa*
   b. [post] *post* and [posmən] *postman*
6. The use of plural –s in English has three different, but very regular, phonemic alternatives. You add:

   /s/ to words like *ship, bat, book* and *cough*

   /z/ to words like *cab, lad, cave, rag* and *thing*

   /əz/ to words like *bus, bush, judge, church* and *maze*

   Can you work out the set of sounds which regularly precedes each of these alternatives? What features do each of these sets have in common?
7. In the following pairs, the first word was pronounced carefully in isolation and the second was produced in the middle of conversational speech. Identify which sounds have 'changed', what type of change has

occurred, and try to offer a possible explanation for the direction of change.

[n rθ]	[hænd]	[fayv]	[wet]
[n r ðərn]	[hæ kər if]	[fifθ]	[wedi]

8. The word-initial sequences of / pl- /, / bl- /, / kl- /, / gl- /, / sl- /, / fl- / are permissible in English, but other sequences involving / l / are not. Can you produce a description of the required features a consonant must have in order to precede / l /?

LINGUISTICS: AN INTRODUCTION
Topic 6 : Morphology
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on morphology or morphological construction. This topic covers the concept of morphology or morphological construction, its smallest units, free and bound morphomes, affixes, and roots and stems.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of morphology or morphological construction b. on how to identify morphemes c. on free and bound morphemes d. on roots and stems

Chapter VI
MORPHOLOGY

Yule (1987:59) tells that in many languages, what appear to be single forms actually turn out to contain a large number of 'world-like' elements. For example, in Swahili (spoken throughout East Africa). The form *nutakupenda* conveys what, in English, would have to be represented as something like *I will love you.* Now, is the Swahili form a single word? If it is a 'word', then it means to consist of a number of elements which, in English, turn up as separate 'words'. A very rough correspondence can be presented in the following way:

Ni	*- ta*	*- ku*	*- panda*
'I'	'will'	'you'	'love'

It seems as if this Swahili 'word' is rather different from what we think of as an English 'word'. Yet, there clearly is some similarity between the languages. In that similar elements of the whole message can be found in both. Perhaps a better way of looking at linguistic forms in different languages would be to use this notion of 'elements' in the message, rather than to depend on identifying 'words'. The type of exercise we have just performed is an example of investigating forms in language, generally known as **morphology.**

Morphology

The study of analyzing the expression system of a language which is concerned 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 **morphemes.**

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 compiling, writing and editing dictionaries, and (b) **Theoretical lexicography** is the scholary discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic relationship within the lexicon / vocabulary of a language and developing theories of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries.

Morphemes VS Phonemes

A continuous stream of speech can be broken up by the listener (or linguist) 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 meaningful 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 distinguished 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 language, which are universal in that they are always found in any language. Each language has *phonemes* and *morphemes* as its signaling units. For example, the word 'fat' has three smallest distinguished sound (**phonemes**): 'fat' [fæt] : /f/, /æ/, /t/ and also to the word 'some' [səm] : /s/, /ə/, /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 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). 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 func-

tion 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 VI). 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 + f'. 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. (Pri-

mary stress is indicated by ' on the vowel).

Compounds	Phrases
'Blackbird	'black 'bird
'makeup	'make 'up

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:

'easy-'going	'easy-going
'man-'made	'man-made
'homem'ade	'homemade

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 France.*

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 'compound-

ing', 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.

Conclusion

In this section we learned how the word formation process in a language, especially in English. **Morphemes**, the smallest linguistic unit that has a meaning or grammatical function can be divided into two, **Free Morphemes**, that is, **morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words,** e.g. **open** and **tour.** And **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.** In free morphemes, there are **lexical** and **grammatical / functional free morphemes,** and in bound morphemes, there are **derivational** and **inflectional bound morphemes.** We also discussed about some processes to form words, such as affixation, coinage, borrowing, reduplication, clipping, compounding, back formation, blending, acronyms, conversions, false etymology, proper names, and multiple process.

Exercises:

1. What is morphology?
2. Is morphology the same as lexicography?
3. What is the difference between morphology and etymology?
4. What is morpheme?
5. (a) List the 'bound' morphemes to be found in these words: *misleads, previewer, shortened, unhappier, fearlessly*

   (b) In which of the following examples should the 'a' be treated as a bound morpheme: *a boy, apple, atypical, AWOL?*
6. What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence:

   The old man sat on a chair and told them tales of woe
7. What are the inflectional morphemes in the following phrases:

   (a) *the teacher's books* (c) *the newest model*

   (b) *it's snowing* (d) *the cow jumped over the moon*
8. What would we list as allomorphs of the morpheme 'plural' from this set of English words: *dogs, oxen, deer, judges, curricula?*
9. Which of the following expressions is an example of 'calque'? How would you describe the others?

   (a) luna de mile (Spanish) – *honeymoon* (English)

   (b) mishin (Japanese) – *machine* (English)

   (c) trening (Hungarian) – *training* (English)
10. The term *Vaseline* was originally a trade name for a product, but has become an ordinary English word. What is the technical term used to describe this process?
11. How can you tell a compound from a phrase?
12. Identify the affixes used in the words *unfaithful, carelessness, refillable* and *disagree,* and decide whether they are prefixes or suffixes.
13. The compound word *birdcage* is formed from a noun *bird* plus another noun *cage,* while the word *widespread* is formed from adjective *wide* and a verb *spread.* So, compounds differ in terms of the types of ele-

ments which are combined. Can you identify the different elements involved in each of the following compounds?

Bedroom, blackbird, brainwash, carfish, clean-shaven, crybaby, haircut, hairbeat, hothouse, hovercraft, leadfree, madman, ready-made, seasick, sunflower, sunrise, telltale, threadbare, watchdog, well-dressed.

LINGUISTICS: AN INTRODUCTION
Topic 7 : Syntax
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on syntax or syntactical construction. This topic covers words as the smallest units of syntax, types of syntactical construction, syntactic devices and syntactical analysis.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of syntax b. on syntactical constructions c. on syntactic devices d. on syntactical analysis

Chapter VII
SYNTAX

Introduction

Syntax is defined as the study on 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 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.

Content and Function Words

Words are classified into two great classes. 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. Firstly, content words have clear 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 happaned 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 wod 'of'. 'Of' may mean 'possession' (for instance, the house of my father) and it may mean 'relationship of an action and its object' (for instance, the running of the boy).

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

Thirdly, the difference between conten and function words is in relation to their numbers. The former are said to be great in number; and the latter are known as those which are limited in number. In this relation, we can not 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.

Fouthly, the difference between conten and function words is in relation to 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 instance, -s in dogs, derivational suffixes (for instance, -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 identify a word 'in'; there is nothing in the word 'in' that tells that it is a preposition.

Lastly, the difference of content and function words in what we often call open and closed classes of words. This is to say that the former are said to be open classes of words; and the latter are known as closed classes of words. When words are open in nature, 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 hadly ever increase in their number.

Syntactical Constructions

Syntactical construction may be in the form of phrases, clauses or sentences. A phrase or a sentence can be analyzed on the basis of its *immediate constituents (IC-s)*. This term was introduced by Bloomfield, who illustrated the way in which 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 an endocentric ot 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, the sentence is not accepted because there is a sentence with an adjective as it 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 wors, 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 what 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 a complete sentence 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 thay 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: (1) 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 Unlam*, 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) complementative 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 contruction '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 complementative 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 the construction:

(I) am a teacher	à be (am) + a noun as a complement
(He) is strong.	à be (is) + an adjective as a complement
(They)	are in the room à be (are) + an adverb of place as a complement

There are some verbs that 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 has 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 the other cases, they are different from 'be'. In this relation, when the sentence is changed into a negative or an interrogative sentence, it is changed in different way. 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 important 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 à He (subject) + is angry (predicate)
2. He sings well à He (subject) + sings well (predicate)
3. People elect him a president. à He (subject) + elect him a president (predicate)

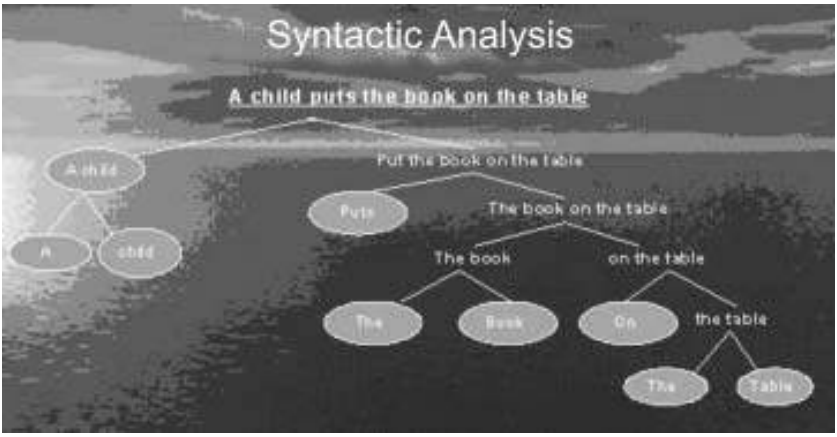
Syntactic Devices

The arrangement of words do 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 changed 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 resultan form will be a syntactical construction, namely: 'I go to school'.

Syntactic Analysis

The following is an example of a syntactic analysis.



A construction in the form of a sentence must be analyzed on the basis of the predicative construction. As has been discussed, the predicative construction has a subject and a predicate as its IC-s. Thus, in the case of the sentence, we regard it as a predicative construction. After the sentence 'A child put the book on the table' is analyzed on the basis of predicative construction, we have 'a child' and ' puts the book on the table' as its IC-s.

The IC 'a child' as the subect still refers to a construction, namely: an attributive construction'. We, then, analyze it based on its IC-s; the first IC is 'a' and the second one is 'child'. In the other side, the IC 'puts the book on the table' as the predicate still shows a construction (a directive construction), in

which there are 'a director'(*puts)* and its object (*the book on the table)*. The object is still in the form of a construction, e.g. the book on the table (an attributive construction); it must be separated into its IC-s: 'the book' and 'on the table'. Then, 'the book' (an attributive construction) is separated into 'the' and 'book'; 'on the table' (a directive construction) is separated into 'on' and 'the table'; and 'the table' (an attributive construction) is separated into 'the' and 'table'. An analysis is accomplished when no construction occurs.

Conclusion

Syntax is the study of arrangement of words into phrases, clauses, and sentences or syntactical construction. The smallest units of syntax are free forms or words. Morphological construction is different from syntactical construction in which the former has morpehemes as its IC-s and the latter has words as IC-s.

Syntactical construction is divided into two kinds: endocentric and exocentric construction. The former is then divided into three sub-types: attributive, appositive, and coordinative constructions; while the latter is then divided into three sub-types: directive, complementative, and predicative constructions.

Exercises:

1. What is meant by syntax?
2. What is meant by a syntactical construction?
3. Mention the two types of syntactical constructions! Explain their differences and give some examples!
4. Mention the differences of content from function words. Explain them.
5. Analyze the following constructions based on their IC-s:
   a. The man in black and the girls in white are the members of the rich family.
   b. The man swimming in the river is my uncle.
   c. They have some ways of knowing what makes the use of the words appropriate.

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
Topic 8 : Transformational -Generative Grammar
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an understanding on a grammar, sentences, competence vs performance, deep and surface structure, TG Grammar, and transformation.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able a. to answer the questions on the concept of grammar; b. to answer the questions on transformation and its types; c. to solve the problems of ambiguity

Chapter VIII

TRANSFORMATIONAL-GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

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 others 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 produce 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 containing 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 sometimes followed by an object or a complement. Beside such a pattern of sentence, we are necessary to understand several kinds of sentences together 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 construction, they are (1) simple sentences, (2) compound sentences, (3) complex 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 linguistics. The goal is to find out what speech sound units are used to distinguish 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 combination 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 performance.* Linguistic competence refers to the speaker and hearer's knowledge 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*; surface structure provides *form* of the sentence.

Thus we can say that the deep structure of a sentence gives its meaning 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 intermediate 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 transformation.*

3. Passive Transformation

The interchanged constituents must be noun phrases. The passive transformation can interchange noun phrases regardless of the number 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 constituent.

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 explanation 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 equivalent 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 transformation:

First, the constituents "Daisy" and "Winterbourne" have been interchanged. 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 specific sentence. (The passive transformation, of course, not only interchanges the two constituents, but also introduces a form of "be" and adds the preposition "by." When we speak of the interchange of constituents 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 always 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 inappropriate reflexive pronoun *themselves*. The reflexive pronoun must be changed into *herself* to make the sentence grammatical. So, the sentence becomes 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:

2. 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 transformation*. 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 sentences 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 reflexive 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 prepositions 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 following 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 compound sentences or complex sentences or combination of compound and complex sentences.

1. 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 meanings (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 transformed 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 problem 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 transformational rules. The grammar can be thought of as a machine which generates all the possible sentences of the language. A grammar containing such rules is called a *generative grammar.* When the rules include transformational 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.

Exercises:

1. What is TG Grammar?
2. What are meant by langue and parole? What are meant by competence and performance?
3. What is meant by transformation?
4. Mention the kinds of transformations! Explain them!
5. Analyze the following ambiguities:
   a. Flying planes are dangerous.
   b. The police station is near the bank.
   c. The lamb is too hot to eat.

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
Topic 9 : Semantics
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on semantics. This topic covers words or a group of words and their meaning, reference, semantic features, and lexical relations.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of semantics b. on some kinds of meanings c. on references d. on semantic features e. on lexical relations

Chapter IX
SEMANTICS

Semantics is the study of linguistic meaning; that is, the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences (Nirmalasari, 1988: 41-42). 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-mean-

ing 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 – its **referents**. 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 inten-

sion 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 some-

thing 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,

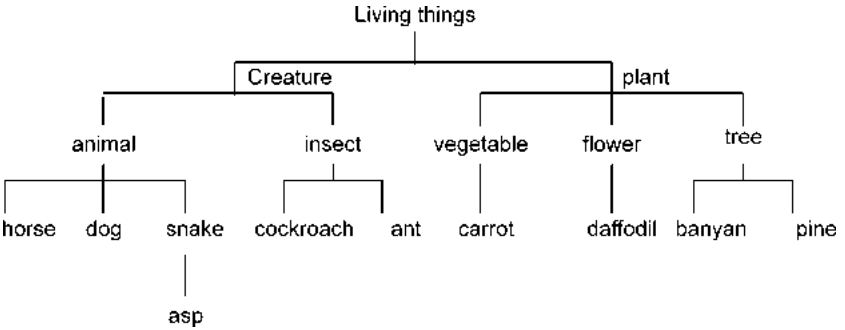
say, warm or cool. These antonyms do not constitute contradiction but **contrary** relationships. **Non-gradable antonyms,** on the other hand, which also called 'complementary pairs' or **Binary antonyms**, are pairs that exhaust all possibilities along some scale. *Dead* and *alive* are examples of 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 mean-

ings, 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**

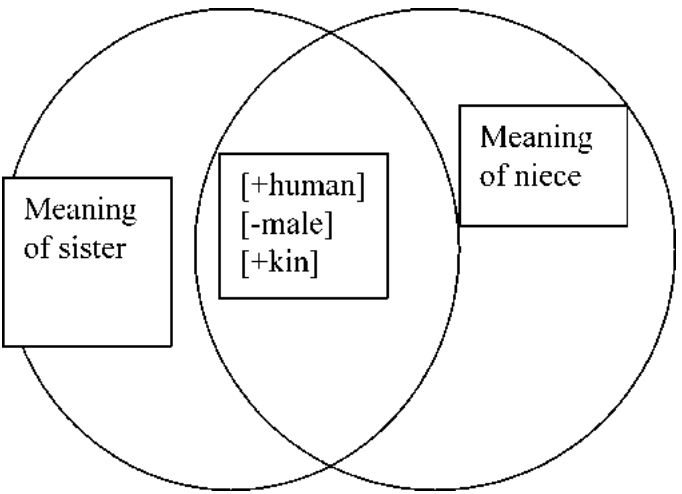
Two words **overlap** in meaning if they have the same value for some (but not all) of the semantic features that constitute their meaning. For example, the word *sister, niece, aunt,* and *mother* overlap in meaning. This phenomenon can be accounted for by stating that part of the meaning of each of 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**

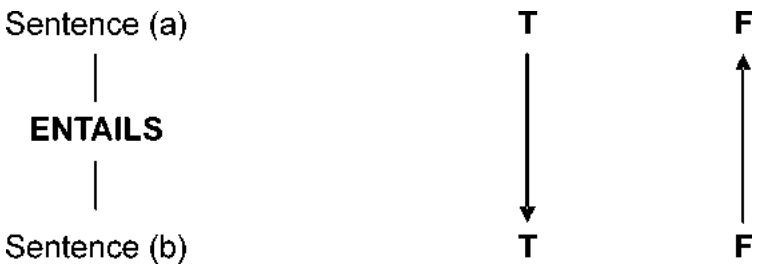
One sentence entails another. If the meaning of the first sentence includes the meaning of the second. (Note the similarity between entailment and hyponymy. Just as hyponymy describe an inclusive relation between two words, so entailment describes an inclusive relation between two sentences. The test 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 unindirectional.

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.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we studied about **Semantics,** which is the study of linguistic meaning; that is, the meaning of words, phrases, and sentences. Unlike pragmatics, semantics is a part of grammar proper, the study of the internal structure of language. 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.

In semantics, we learn about **words meaning, phrase meaning,** and **sentence meaning.** The study of reference, in phrase and sentence meaning, can be divided into two areas: speaker-reference and linguistic-reference. We consider some concepts that seem to be useful in thinking and talking about speaker-reference, which consists of **referent, extension, prototype,** and **stereotype**, then we take a look at some different types of linguistic- reference, such as, **coreference, anaphora,** and **deixis**. Studying words meaning, related to **semantic features** and **lexical relations** and the types of lexical relations which are usually appealed to are defined and exemplified such as **synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, homophony, homonymy,** and **polysemy**. The study of **meaning** and **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**).

Exercises:

1. What is semantics?
2. Is a word's meaning simply the definition of the words we find in a dictionary?

3. Who determine a word's meaning?
4. What is the lexical relation between the following pairs of words?
   (a) shallow deep (c) suite sweet (e) single married
   (b) mature ripe (d) table furniture (f) move run
5. How would you describe the oddness of the following sentences, using semantic features?
   (a) The television drank my water (b) Your cat writes poetry
6. What semantic feature or property differentiates following sets of nouns?
   (a) niece, daughter, sister vs. nun, woman, girl.
   (b)Table, chair, pencil vs. love, thought, idea
   (c) Table, chair, pencil vs. water, dirt, cream
   (d)Ayah, kakek, paman vs. tukang pos, pilot, supir
   (e) Sejarah, ilmu bumi, ekonomi vs. matematika, fisika, kimia
7. What reference relation holds between the italicized expressions in each of the following sentences?
   (a) George will give a fat lip to *anyone who* wants one
   (b) Maxine has been named *secretary of the Student Government Association*
   (c) Saya membeli sebuah buku. *Buku itu* diterbitkan tahun 1988.
   (d) Ayam dan *itik* adalah *unggas* yang dianjurkan oleh pemerintah untuk diternakkan di daerah transmigrasi.
8. What truth relation holds between the following sentences? How can it be demonstrated?
   (a) Fred is mortal (c) Ahmad menikah
   (b) Fred is a man (d) Isteri Ahmad guru SMP.
9. What kind of truth is illustrated by each of the following sentences?
   (a) My table has four right angles (b) A square has four right angles
10. Say whether the following sentences are True or False

(a) Tall and *short* are binary antonyms

(b) The meaning relation illustrated by *ibu, istri,* and *nenek* is overlap

(c) The relationship that holds between the italicized expressions in "*Bapak Yusuf Kalla has been elected Vice President of the Republic of Indonesia* is reference.

(d) Clean and *dirty* are gradable antonyms

(e) The sentence *Bryan killed Bob* presupposes the sentence *Bob died.*

(f) Two words overlap in meaning if they share the same specifications for at least one semantic feature

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
Topic 10 : Pragmatics
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on pragmatics. This topic covers aspects of pragmatics: (1) performatives, (2) speech acts, (3) locutionary, illocutionary, and Perlocutionary Act, (4) felicity conditions, and (5) Cooperative Principles
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions on: a. the concept of pragmatics b. Performatives c. Speech Acts d. Locutionary, Illocutionary, and Perlocutionary Act e. Felicity Conditions f. Cooperative Principles

Chapter X
PRAGMATICS

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 consider-

ation. 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 interpreta-

tion 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 10.1:
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 10.2:
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 never-

theless 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.

Exercises:

1. What is Pragmatics?
2. What is Austin's principle about an utterance?
3. Mention some performative verbs in English and Bahasa Indonesia!
4. What is meant by felicity condition?
5. For the following exercises:
   a. identify the speech act in each of the following sentences.
   b. Consider the contexts in which these sentences could be uttered.
   c. How does context affect their function?
      (1) Don't smoke
      (2) Can you pass the salt.
      (3) The washing machine is broken, dear.
6. Assume that each of the following utterances constitutes a non-felicitous (invalid) act of apologizing.
   (a) *I apologize for what I'm about to do.*
   (b) *I apologize for not running you over with my car.*
   (c) *Saya minta maaf anak saya telah menumpahkan air di baju anda.*
   (d) *Saya minta maaf telah memberi anda nilai 100 pada test terakhir.*
7. You are driving down the street and see a sign that says *Maaf perjalanan anda terganggu.* What is the illocutionary force of the indirect speech act?
8. You asked a friend *Do you know where Billy Bob is?* The friend responds with *Well, he didn't meet me for lunch like he was supposed to.* What type of maxim did your friend use in his response?

SOCIOLINGUISTICS: AN INTRODUCTION
Topic 11 : Sociolinguistics
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on a language in relation to the socio-cultural context. In this case, some concepts relating to the topics are presented here such as sociolinguistics, language and its varieties, linguistics, society and speech community, etc. Your understanding on the topic will be useful f or studying the next topics.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to a. answer the questions on the topics discussed. b. relate linguistic factors to the socio-cultural context; c. conduct a simple study on the use of language in the socio-cultural context in their own community.

Chapter XI
SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Introduction

When a study of language in which the linguistic factors are related to the factors beyond the language, such as language use that is done by its speakers in a certain speech community, it refers to sociolinguistics. According to Fishman, for instance, socially, the language use involves *"Who speaks, what language, to whom, when and where"* Fishman, 1972:244).. When some aspects of sociology are adopted in studying a language, this means it presents an interdisciplinary study; and its name represents a combination of sociology and linguistics. In this relation, some experts call it as sociology of language; and some others call it as sociolinguistics.

The following discussion involves some terms such as language, linguistics, sociology or its aspects, and sociolinguistics as well as relationships between language and society

Sociolinguistics

A 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 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 as the sociology of language.

Sociolinguistics is defined as:

1. The study that 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 contexts. It discusses the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. All of the topics provides 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)
2. The study that is concerned with the interaction of language and setting (Carol M. Eastman, 1975; 113).
3. 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)

Socio-cultural Aspects

A group of people is required by both community and society. They communicate and interact between and another. They have a membership consciousness on the basis of the common goals and their behaviour 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 certain goal, they will be known as a community.

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 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 neighbourhood, he may be a religious leader. According to Soerjono Soekanto, social role is a dynamic aspect of status (Soekanto, 1982: 236-237).

Thus, the man has three statuses: as a father, a director, and a religious leader. When he fulfils 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 a 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. (John T. Plat and H.K. Plat, 1975: 33).

Troike and Blackweel state that 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 (such as the Western World, European Common Market, or the United Nations) (1982:19).

b. Speech Situation

According to Dell Hymes, 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 (in Gumperz, John J. and Dell Hymes, eds., 1972: 54).

c. Speech Event

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 (in Gumperz, John J. and Dell Hymes, eds., 1972: 56).

d. Speech Act

According Dell Hymes, 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 (in Gumperz and Dell Hymes, eds., 1972: 56).

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.* A *frozen (oratorical*) style is used in public speaking before a large audience; wording is carefully planned in advance, intonation is somewhat exaggerated, and numerous rhetorical devices are appropriate. A *formal (deliberative)* style is also used in addressing audiences, usually audiences too large to permit effective interchange betweens speaker and hearers, though the forms are normally not as polished as those in a frozen (oratorical) style. A typical university classroom lecture is often carried out in a formal (deliberative) style. A *consultative* style is typically a dialogue, though formal enough that words are chosen with some care. Business transactions, doctor-patient conversations, and the like are consultative in nature. *Casual* conversations are between friends or colleagues or sometimes numbers of a family; in this context words need not be guarded and social barriers are moderately low. An *intimate* style is one characterized by complete absence of social inhibitions. Talk with family, loved ones, and very close friends, where you tend to reveal your inner self, is usually in an intimate style.

Someone may speak very formally or very informally; his choice of the styles is governed by circumstances. Ceremonial occasions almost require very formal speech; public lectures are somewhat *less formal*; *casual* conversation is quite informal; and conversation between intimates on matters of little importance may be extremely *informal* and *casual*.

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 behavior of communication regulated in his speech community. This means that he has to apply "regulation" of using his language. That is why Fishman suggests that in using a language someone has to consider *to whom he speaks*. Considering the person to whom he speaks, he will determine what language or its varieties he wants to use to speak. His consideration is not only based on *to whom* he speaks, but also on *when or where* he speaks. The language speaker will consider the setting of time and place.

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 situation, speech event, speech act, and speech styles, as well as components of speech. Those form an integrated parts in the communicative behavior. Dell Hymes (in Gumperz and Hymes, 1972 : 59-65) states the speech are in the sixten 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 will be explained later.

Factors Influencing Language Use

They are four dominant factors influencing someone's language use in a given speech community: (a) the participants: who speaks, to whom he speaks, (b) the setting: where does he speak? (c) the topic discussed, and (d) the function: what and why does he speak?. These factors (and the

other factors) will be discussed in detail in the next chapter (Wardhaugh, 1983). These four factors can be illustrated as follows:

For instance, there are two persons involving in a speech act. They are called as participants. They are identified as father and his son. At home (*setting*), in order to be familiar between them (*function*), both father and his son (*participants*) speak Javanese language to talk about daily activities (*topic*); they use Indonesian language in another topic. Both speakers never Javanese outside their home to each other; they use Banjarese or Indonesian language.

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 linguistic structure and/or behaviour. 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 behaviour may either influence or determine 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.

Bilingualism, Code Switching and Interference

Bilingualism

A language is used by its speaker for the sake of communication and interaction. Initially, a newborn child tries to master one language used 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. In 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 'force' 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 Indonesian language, he is called as bilingual speaker.

According to Weinreich, bilingual is a person who involved in alternately using two languages. In this case, it can be said that before someone can be stated as bilingual speaker, of course, he has to master two languages. Mastering two languages enables 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). William F. Mackey defines *bilingualism* as *the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual* (Mackey, in Fishman, ed., 1972: 555).

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).

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.

Interference

Discussion on interference must be related to the use of two or m ore languages by the same individuals. 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.

As stated above, the concept of bilingualism has become broader and broader. It was regarded as the equal mastery of two languages, as explicitly defined by Bloomfield as "the native-like control of two languages". When a speaker has the mastery of two languages whose bilingualism is in line with the Bloomfield's concept, it seems that he will not make a linguistic deviation known as interference.

Originally, the concept of interference referred to the use of formal elements of one of code with the context of another, i.e. any phonological, morphological, lexical or syntactic element in a given language that could

be explained by the effect of contact with another language (Troike and Blackwell, 1986).

Mackey defines interference as *"the use of features belonging to one language while speaking or writing another"*. The description of bilingualism must be distinguished from the analysis of language borrowing (Fishman, ed., 1972:569). The language borrowing will be illustrated under the discussion of integration.

The use of languages in the alternate way may result in linguistic deviations in one language used by a given language user. This deviation is known as interference. In this relation, Weinreich says that the practice of alternately using two languages will be called *bilingualism* and the persons involved, *bilingual*. Those instances of deviation from the norms of either language either language that occurs in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of language contact, will be referred to as *interference phenomena* (1968:1).

The levels of interference may be cultural, semantic, lexical, grammatical, and phonological.

1. In *cultural level*, cases of interference may be found in the speech of the bilingual; their causes may be found, not in his other language, but in the culture that it reflects. The foreign element may be result of an effort to express new phenomena or new experience in a language that does not account for them. For instance, an Indonesian speaking English is 'forced' to use such words as *sampan, kelotok, and ketinting* because of no equivalent words in English language. The foreign element may result of the introduction of the custom of greeting and thanking in his own language. For instance, he may say 'Good night' instead of 'Good evening'; or he may say 'Thanks' instead of 'No thanks'.
2. *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 language 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.*

3. 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.
4. In grammatical level, interference may involve the use of grammatical patterns of one language in another. The grammatical patterns or categories may be morphological or syntactical. The possible examples are: (a) An English speaking Indonesian language does not know its word-formation (using the affixes *me-kan*) may say *Dia meninggal tempat ini satu jam yang lalu*" instead of *Dia meninggalkan tempat satu jam yang lalu*. In the other side, in making a plural noun, Indonesian language shows a different way from that of English language, (b) A student learning English may meet difficulties (and the same time, makes interference) when he wants to say *many book* instead of *many books*. This can be explained that he is influenced by the Indonesian language word-order *banyak buku*. Although, a word *banyak* is a marker of plurality, it is not followed by a plural noun *buku-buku;* (c) A student learning English may use say *He go to school everyday* instead of *He goes to school everyday.* This interference occurs as a result of no system of agreement or concord between noun and verb (subject and predicate) in Indonesian language; all the subjects are followed by the same predicate (verb) such as *Saya pergi; Dia pergi, Mereka pergi,* etc.
5. 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 sound system between both languages may be of several kinds.

First, it is the existence of a given sound in the latter, which is not found in the former. Second, both languages have the same phonetic features but they are different in their distribution, namely: when and where they may occur in an utterance. Third, both have similar sounds that have different variants or allophones. Interference arises when a bilingual speaker identifies a phoneme of one language with that in another. For instance, an Indonesian speaking English may pronounce *bag* as [bæk] instead of [bæg]. This interference occurs because of the fact that /g/ never arises in the final position of Indonesian language words; so, /g/ is identified as /k/ in that position. In addition, he may replace /v/ with /p/, /f/ with /p/; he may not use a /p/ with aspiration.

Conclusion

A language is an important thing in a given community, a speech community. 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 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 dialects. 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.

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.

Exercises

1. What is meant by sociolinguistics?
2. Explain a language from the viewpoint of social perspective?
3. What are the social units of language use? Explain!
4. What are meant by a bilingual, bilingualism, interference, and code switching? Explain and give some examples to support your answers!

AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS
Topic 12 : Psycholinguistics
A brief description: In this meeting, you will study some views to make an early understanding on pycholinguistics. This topic covers the concept of psycholinguistics, language acquisition device, language acquisition, language development, language and brain, and bilingualism.
Specific Instructional Objectives: After studying the topics the students will be able to answer the questions a. on the concept of pycholinguistics. b. on language acquisition device c. on language acquisition. d. on language development. e. on language and brain f. on bilingualism

Chapter XII
PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

Introduction

The 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, psychology of communication, developmental psychology, educational psychology, and psychology of language. The last branches 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)

Another term is 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 considered as cognitive processes.

All scientific studies must be based on philosophical reasoning. Let us try to trace back a philosophical 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 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). The former is used by nativist / rationalist and the latter is used by empiricist. The nativist claims that individual development is much influenced or determined by innate factors; the rationalist claims that all knowledge derive from the human mind; he believes that the mind is the only source of knowledge. Thus, 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 a number of ideas. These ideas are *innate* and not derived from experience and are sometimes said to be inherent in human's mind. In 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 two kinds of language structures: *deep and surface structures.*

Whereas, the empiricist believes that all knowledge derive from experiences or socio-cultural environment. John Lock 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 learns a certain language from his parents, family and environment. This philosophical thought influences much on behaviorists' thought*

The empiricist admit the existence of LAD in human's mind, but it is then considered as 'a potential seed' which has to be developed and nur-

tured in an appropriate place: a social community. A child can acquire language he has 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 correctly produce the speech sounds of his language. As has been stated above, a new born child is equipped with language acquisition device and it is supported by physical apparatus (called as 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 mental dictionary. The list of words is finite, but no dictionary can held 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 new born child does not automatically have ability to speak a language. Linguistic knowledge develops by 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 pe-riod infants produce a large variety of sounds, many of which do not occur in the language of the household. Deaf children also babble and it is re-ported 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 speak also babble. Thus, babbling does not depend on the pres-ence of acoustic, auditory input. Hearing children born of nonpeaking parents also 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 to be 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 early 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 important respects, it resembles 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 new born child has been equipped with the language acquisition device and speech organs. These enable him to speak a language that is, of course, preceded by producing speech sounds. The sounds produced 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 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 isntance, an utterance 'want cookie' (= I want a cookie) is meant to request; and 'red car' is meant to inform that the car is red (Steinberg, 1997 : 7-8)

5. Telegraph Speech

The utterances of children longer than two mords have a special 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 table', 'what that?', and ' no sit here', etc. are lakc of the function words. These are why they are called **telegraphic speeches.**

The telegraphic speech includes only morphemes and words that carry important semantic content. Gradually a child will begin to include function morphemes (bound morpehemes) in his or her utterances. Children acquire them in a consistent 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, overgenelization 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 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 principle 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 right side of the body is controlled by the left hemisphere, 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 sensory information from the left side of the body is received by the right hemisphere.

2. Lateralization

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 hemisophere 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),

Wenicke's area (towards the back), and the angular gyrus (which is even futher 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 which 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 writing in the disconnected left hemisphere but their right hemisphere had lettle 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 the 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 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 sociocultural aspects. Now, we discuss it in relation to 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 to another outside the home. Under such condition, 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 experts. The Bloomfield's definition of bilingualism as *"the native-like control of two languages"* implies the same fluency and accuracy as those of language use by each of its native speaker. 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 this 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 speaker for the sake of communication and interaction. Initially, a newborn child tries to master one language used 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. In 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 'force' 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 Indonesian language, he is called as bilingual speaker.

To be a bilingual speaker for a young child is beneficial. This is because the brain functions of young child is more plastic that those of older people. Young child, especially in the first six years or so may be considered as in the critical period for language acquisition, especially for phonology and basic syntax (Taylor, 332). Most people consider bilingualism as something good. 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 subjectd 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. A research tended to find a negative effect (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 chosing one of the two, and (4) a bilingual's vocabulary is large, as it includes words from two languages.

By knowing and using two languages a 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).

Exercises

1. What is meant by pycholinguistics?
2. What is the difference between language acquisition and language learning?
3. Explain the stages of language acquisition?
4. What is meant by an exposure?
5. Explain bilingualism from the viewpoint of psycholinguistics!
6. What are advantages and disadvantages to be bilinguals in the early age?

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